

**EFFECT OF INTERACTION ON
LOCAL CAPABILITY**

THESIS
Submitted
**For the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in Public Administration
Tribhuvan University
Faculty of Management**

By
Harsh N. Bhandari

**Central Department of Public Administration
Tribhuvan University
Dean's Office
Kathmandu, Nepal**

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TRIBHUVAN UNIVERSITY
FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT
CENTRAL DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
(1976)

Jamal
Kathmandu, Nepal
Date:.....

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Forward

The secrecy of life is to make oneself happy and to franchise happiness of all surroundings. Life has both internal and external obligations and one must be sincere to fulfill such obligations duly. It is believed that one who successfully fulfills such responsibilities would have achieved self-actualization. Everyone strives for it but only few people are able to attain it. My beloved friend Late Harsha Bhandari is one who is able to achieve it making his life eternal.

His association with more than 3 decades in Public Administration Education has contributed profoundly to enhance the subject matter. When he has joined in academic field there were only few people who had formal academic degree concerning to Public Administration. His intellectual and academic contributions in the field of Public Administration will remain ever.

This is not exaggeration that he is very much dedicated in enhancing his academic excellence that has been reflected through his persuasion of Ph D. He was very much interested to examine the developmental impact of the interaction of local and outside people. He is an ardent believer that physical development alone is not enough for the overall development of community and society. He believes that people's socio-psychological changes are necessary to reap the outcome of development. His thesis was concerned with it. He was involving seriously to complete the thesis, unfortunately it could not be happened. As his thesis advisor, I am very satisfied with his all academic activities impinging to his thesis. This thesis could be master piece for those students who want to know about interface between two people having different socio-c-academic backgrounds and its ultimate impact upon whole community.

The present 'unedited manuscript' of his thesis has been presented as it is what was written by him. This manuscript will be guiding post for the students who aspire to know the social-development dynamics.

Prof. Shree Krishna Shrestha

Head

Central Department of Public Administration

Tribhuvan University





TRIBHUVAN UNIVERSITY
Faculty of Management
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PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION CAMPUS

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Acknowledgement

It is my great pleasure to know that the Thesis prepared for the PhD degree by our bosom friend and senior faculty member of Public Administration Late Mr. Harsa Nath Bhandary, who served more than thirty years in the faculty, is being compiled by his family members in the form of what it is and where it is and without editing. I am pretty confident that this manuscript will be one of the major contributions to the faculties, students of Public Administration and to practitioners in quenching the thirst of knowledge in the concerned area.

Late Mr. Bhandary who left to heaven untimely was amicable, cooperating, associating, and witty with many characters of modern human being. His association with academicians as well practitioners of travel and tourism might have encouraged him pursuing PhD degree in the sector of tourism management however his untimely demise did not let him accomplish his unfulfilled desire. His family members are really thankful who dared to bring the original manuscript prepared for the submission for PhD degree before the public which is, I believe, is not so simple especially in absence of the writer. But the readers will definitely judge the value of publication of such unedited version of the manuscript.

Professor Govind Prasad Dhakal PhD

Campus Chief
Campus Chief

May 30, 2011

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background:

The economic restructuring and the farm crisis, among others, contributed to the reduction of economic opportunities for the rural communities, rendering older developmental strategies less viable and forcing a substantial population to look for non-traditional ways to sustain themselves (Wilson et al, 2001; 132). In the backdrop of Nepal's poor Human Development Index, the UNDP has indicated the development of the human capability is the "end (objective) of the development" and all others only have the instrumental significance to this end (Sparrowhawk and Holden, 1999; 37).

'Poverty Alleviation', 'Job Creation' and 'Social Harmony' as the World Tourism Day theme for the year 2003 is marked alongside the Millennium Declaration of the United Nations that identified 'Poverty Alleviation' as one of the most challenging issues for the international community in the 21st century (Nepal Tourism Board Newsletter, 2003; 3).

Poverty can be considered as an indicator of low capability conditions prevailing in the local institutions (individual/groups/community settings) in a society and thus its reduction would indicate changes in the capability of its institutions overall. Capability development—which scholars sometimes interpret as empowerment, development, skill, knowledge and attitudinal changes (human resource development aspects), human development and institution building – help to handle existing jobs and also create and harness new opportunities.

Tourism provides a platform for different groups/individuals – national or international – to interact. One can analyze the socio-economic implications, forms and purpose compatibility of such interactions to the nation's requirement.

The Nepal government put a lot of efforts, especially in the recent decades (NTB, 2001), to alleviate poverty in society. Agriculture, industries, tourism, education and social areas have

been targeted in the efforts. Many national and international institutions including NGO's and INGO's are also working to supplement the government's efforts in that direction. Yet the results have been far from expected, and almost half of the country is still lives under poverty (The Himalayan Times Oct, 10, 2002).

The Ninth Five year Plan (1997- 2002) adopted poverty reduction as its primary objective. In the 10th Five Year Plan (2002-2007), the government presented a comprehensive “Reform Agenda for Poverty Reduction” (Dahal et al. 2002). Nepal ranks 129th among 162 countries worldwide in poverty level, and the gap continues to widen every year between the rural and urban areas across geographic regions, social classes and castes (Dahal et al., 2002). Maskey (1998; 4) has also discussed this aspect of the poverty scenario in Nepal.

Local capability here refers to the local-level human capability (referred later as the human resource development aspect) in an area where interaction between and among different units/institutions take place. Poverty being the general prevailing scenario in the country, capability development as such seems to be a panacea to create and identify opportunities and finally to be able to use them. This study seeks to find whether or not tourism-induced interactions at the local level significantly change the local capability.

Ever since the country officially opened to the outer world in 1950, and especially after the establishment of Tourism Development Board in 1956 (Pradhan, 2000; 19), Nepal has tried to preferentially encourage the tourism sector for its substantial foreign income, employment boost, and use of local products, among others (45). Nepal is bestowed with ample natural, religious and cultural resources throughout the country that are identified as potential tourism products, which have high potential to attract tourists. Both the government and the people are equally enthusiastic to promote this sector. This can be seen empirically from the growth of the private sector agencies and the government sponsored tourism programs, such as Visit Nepal Year 98, Nepal Tourism Destination 2001, Village Tourism Development Program and Tourism for Rural Poverty Alleviation Programme (TRPAP) (TRPAP, 2003).

The 2052 (1995) Tourism Policy in its very Preamble reads:

Tourism has been competitively and rapidly developing in the world and due to specific natural and cultural heritages there is a great possibility of tourism industry

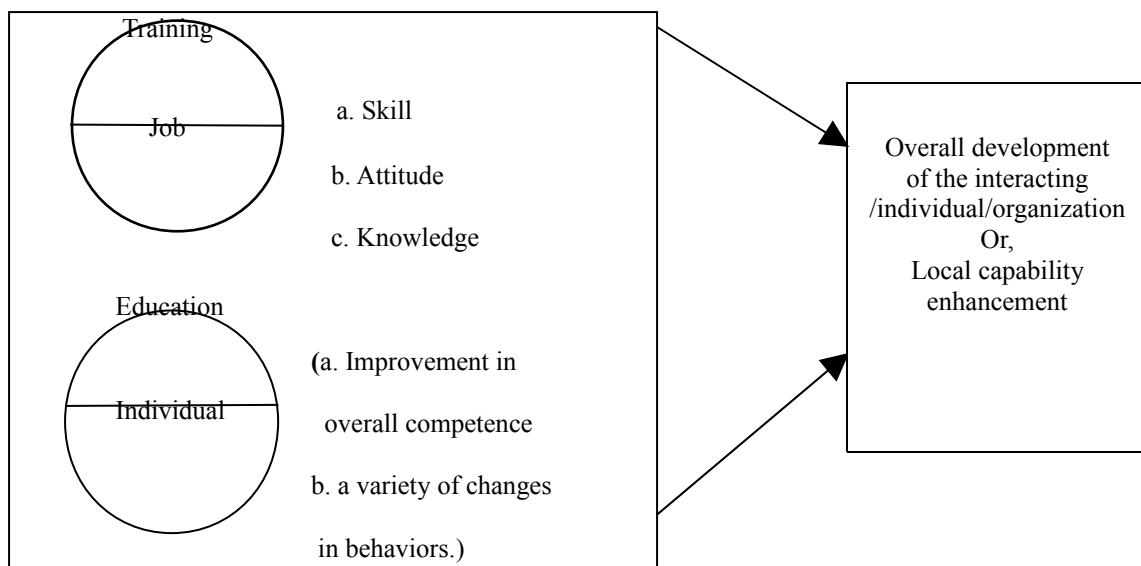
in Nepal. Hence in order to increase national production and income, to expand earnings of foreign currencies, to create opportunities for employment, to improve regional imbalance and to develop image of Nepal in international community, this Tourism Policy has been framed. (Ministry of Tourism and Civil Aviation, 1997).

The present study, as stated earlier, intends examine tourists and local actors/institutions interactions to understand how such interactions may alter the capabilities of the local players. It will look at groups' interactions from different perspectives, and whether or not they have lead to skill, knowledge and attitudinal changes. In other words, the study seeks to know the possibility of capability enhancement at the local level in poorer regions by luring more visitors through incentive schemes. Interestingly, the country's regionally backward areas seem to have equal, if not more, touristic attractions, having enigmatic qualities with distinct cultural, historic, ethnic and geographic features (Wilson et al. 2001; 132).

The Conceptual Framework:

There has been an attempt to clarify the theoretical side of the concepts the study uses. The figure below shows how training and education in a package lead to changes in the capability of an institution (a unit) in its skill, knowledge and attitude. This will finally manifest in the overall development of the organization that the unit belongs to.

Figure 1: Conceptual frameworks for Capability Enhancement.

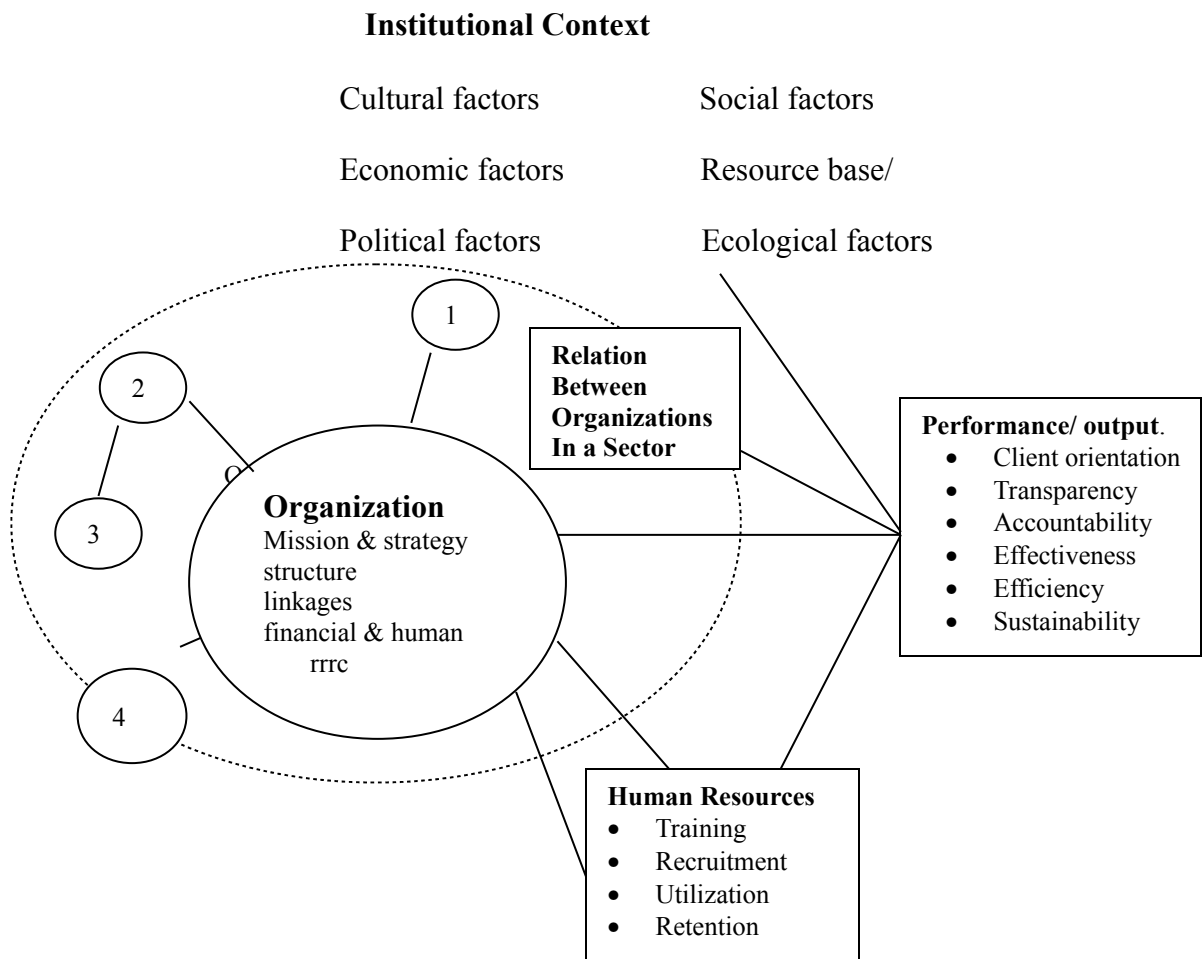


(Source: Adopted from Nadler (1970; 39), modified.)

Changes in skill, knowledge and attitude (or social behavior) come through learning in terms of training, experience and observations (DeCENZO, 1998; 240, 241). Further, learning becomes a continuous interaction between an individual (institution) and the particular environment where the individual functions, called the social learning process (DeCENZO and Robbins, 1989; 241).

Vinc views institutional development in four levels for better output from institutions to benefit its stakeholders (1999; 24). The levels are a. Participants' (staff's) capacity enhancement b. Organizational capacity enhancement c. Sector improvement and national institutional change (capacity enhancement), and d. International change, which is to bring change in international values and norms towards the nation in question, in cases such as assistance to the nation, global agenda for ecological problems, and gender equality (Vinc, 1999; 24, 25).

Figure 2: Coherence of Resources in Changing Capability



(Source: Adapted from Grindal and Hilderbrand (1995), (In Vinc 1999; 25).

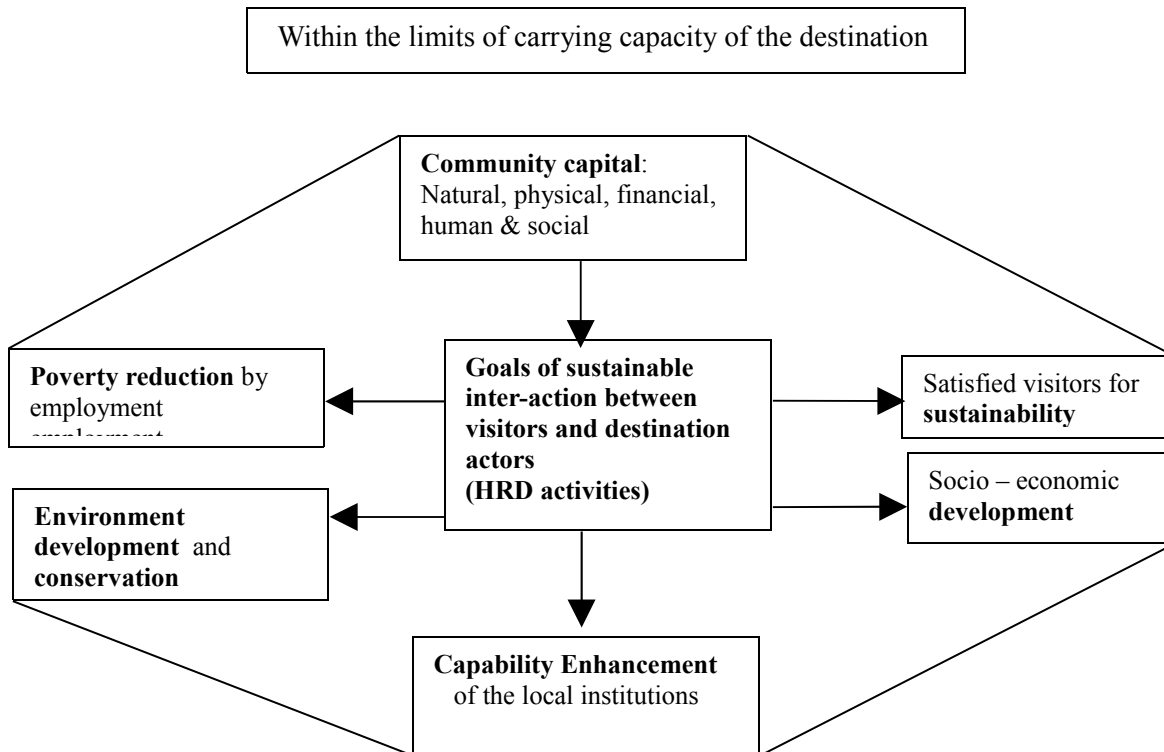
Dimensions of Institutional Development).

The above figure shows factors that bind together a number of organizations in a particular set up. The factors are mission and strategy, structure, linkages, and human and financial status. Circles represent different organizations. Institutional context is taken as a broader aspect where factors like culture, economy, politics, society, the resource base and ecology contribute alongside the organization for the output. Human resource as a crucial factor is shown separately to contribute to the overall output, which is in itself its own development (or, capacity enhancement).

Interaction and Carrying Capacity model:

For the clarity in the conceptual framework the researcher proposes to make use of the following diagram:

Figure 3: Interaction and Carrying capacity model



(Source: Partially adopted from Banskota and Sharma, 2000).

The above figure suggests that the resources available to a community or a local institution be used in activities of sustainable interactions between the visitors and the local stakeholders, eventually resulting in the enhancement of local capability. This will be reflected in factors of poverty reduction because of engagements in service for the visitors and the requirement of keeping the environmental status for future tourism sustainability. One could think that as the local institutions' capability enhances, it will also expand the limits of the carrying capacities of the destination, in whose perimeters it exists and operates. It shows also that of all the capital (resources) a given destination has, it is the human (resource) that is crucial and common among all. Its capability enhancement is, in the real sense, the over all capability enhancement.

Some writers also take a similar understanding like that by Leonard in what they have to tell about such interactions for capacity development at the three levels, all being mutually interdependent -- the individual, the institutional and the societal (Fukazawa et al., 2002; 9). This is also the concept this researcher would like to adopt for the study. In its simplest terms, an individual is in fact always the member of more than one institution.

Institutional activities like the above involve building on existing capacities by being encouraged for local initiatives (as opposed to new injections) however in a nascent manner (Fukazawa et al., 2002; 9). He confirms on suggesting the involvement of stakeholder as much as possible even though the output at the beginning is insignificant.

Societal refers to capacities in society as a whole by creating the kinds of opportunities (in public/private realms) which enable people to use and expand (interaction opportunities in the present study) their capacities to the fullest possible extent (Fukazawa et al., 2002; 9). The opportunities for interaction therefore should be extended to the optimal extent for more and better results.

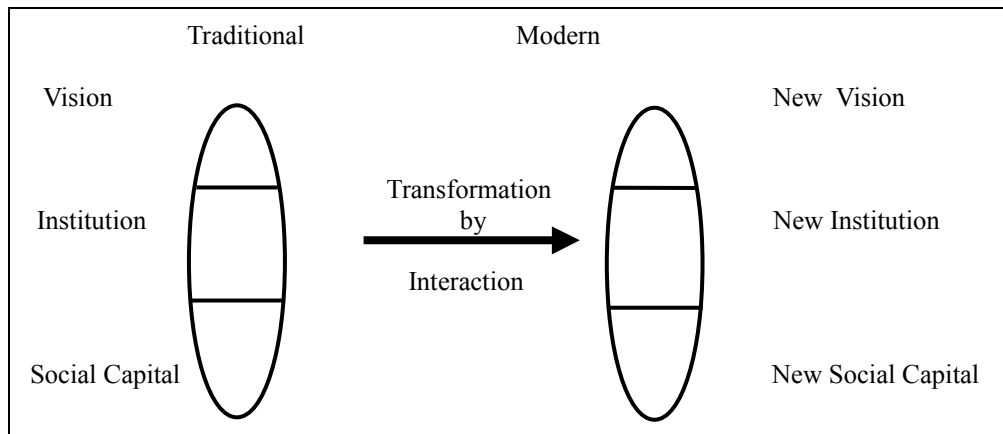
Admittedly, capacity development is one of today's key development challenges and much of the socio-economic progress rest upon it, the purpose of human development as is to

extend the human capabilities, then capacity development not only becomes the mere stepping board but the purpose in itself --- for individuals, organizations and the societies involving a process of learning and relearning in the fray (Fukazawa et al. 2002; 20).

Transformation of Society:

Transformation is taking place in every society including in local communities in Nepal because of the interactions of the communities with others through activities such as hospitality that manifest by the way of new vision, new institutions and new social capital. This is possible through changes in work skills, enhanced understanding (knowledge) and attitudinal changes to adopt newer situations.

Figure 4: Transformation of a Society



Source: Khalid, 2002; 31. (modified)

The local institutions gear up for economic prosperity and in their way tourists get motivated because of new destination products, lower prices and other incentive packages. The dynamics of tourists and self-motivated local stakeholders render in the changed behavior, economic security, social mobilization, good delivery, and social justice (the latter two being the government’s worries towards its citizens).

Interacting automatically serves to train the stakeholders in skill development, educating oneself to know the other leading to wide and accommodating behavioral changes through alterations in attitude beliefs, values and so on.

Ironically, it is stated and also argued by the World Bank (World Bank, 2000) that it is not easy to impose changes from outside, and that ownership being a critical ingredient for sustainable development, its absence cannot lead to capacities enhancement and without this transformation cannot take place.

1.2 Statement of the Problem:

The complexities and frustrations of the development efforts have generated a voluminous stock of literature along with numerous institutions and organizations suggesting changes and new directions. The concept of human development since 1990 started, for example, to give a different and broader concept other than of economic growth, presenting a more inclusive view of people's capabilities, not only to merely define it as higher income but as enlarged choices, knowing more and doing more, and having health, skills and the vigor to lead full and satisfying life (Fukudawa et al. 2000; 2).

They observe further that developing countries lack important skills and abilities and the outsiders could fill this with quick injection of know-how and thus the vocabulary for aid kept changing from 'development assistance' to 'skill transfer' and to 'technical assistance', and later to 'development co-operation and technical co-operation' and so on. But the writers admit that even with all the elements of co-operation packages, developing national capabilities emerged as an elusive goal (Fukudawa et al. 2000; 2).

At home, even though the potential for tourism growth looked very promising, its role in the poverty reduction through participation and socio-economic regeneration (particularly at the local level) criterion seems to be far from realization. Tourism is being seen as the provider of the appropriate conditions for the interactions between the local institutions (individuals/groups/communities) and the tourists. There is apparently a big gap in its region-wise and democratic harnessing ever since tourism has been thought of as a means of absorbing labour surpluses. Excerpts from an interview with the National Project Director of Tourism Project shows that tourism being backbone of the national economy, ordinary people have not

benefited from it (Rural Tourism, 2003). We are at the crossroads of too much use of certain regions and no use of the other potential regions. The uncontrolled flow of tourists especially in some trekking routes have already shown negative socio-ecological impacts in changing the delicate mountain balance, for example, Solukhumbu region (Satyal, 1999; 107). UNESCO shares a similar view in case of the two natural heritage sites of The Royal Chitwan National Park and The Sagarmatha National Park (The Kathmandu Post, Aug. 12, 2002). In the Eighth Development Plan also, it was envisaged to ease pressure from the few limited areas (NTB, 2001; 17).

If capability enlargement (which relate to the poverty reduction) depend upon the learning through the interactions (participation) social and/or, otherwise, in the course of activities it will have a very positive impact on the overall situation.

As such, the capability of a unit/groups/communities (institutions) expands by the way of affecting the skill, knowledge and the attitude aspects; this is thought to enlarge the opportunities situations hitherto unidentified and qualify to harness them (realization) independently and self motivated or with the minimum outside interference.

Word poverty thus could be seen as the opposite of capability enhancement, which means poverty reduction implies target population's skill, knowledge and behavioral aspect change.

Seemingly responsible persons of (His Majesty's) Government of Nepal admit that the idea of tourism was supposed to expand from limited urban to others areas by promoting the natural, cultural as well as archeological sites (Tourism for Rural Poverty Alleviation Program, 2003). The actual benefits from tourism to the share of the local people is often minimal. While large investors from outside take away the larger chunks and the environmental degradation, drug trafficking, prostitution and various cultural and social problems befall the localities (The Third World Quarterly, 2002; 531). This has resulted in the overall regional imbalances in the nation, particularly in the field of bio-diversity, economic ramifications and the socio-cultural impacts. It is interesting to note that international institutions like the OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development), the UN, the UNESCO, and the World Bank spend vast amount on tourism and encourage the adoption (The Third World Quarterly, 2002; 531), yet in the same fashion.

It is interesting to note that most of the tourism studies relate to the earning sides, less - or none - are noted in case of the rendering interaction opportunities and its impact on capability. It is in some way easy to preclude that the more the index of poverty, the more the requirement of capability development opportunities, such that the skill, knowledge and the attitudes are altered as desired.

Thus while some regions are seemingly extremely depleted in their total system, many other areas particularly Mid- and Far-Western and sections of Eastern regions of Nepal have seen rather fewer opportunities and other developmental factors, and are less or not frequented by tourists. These are generally the regions that seem remotest to modernization (Department of Survey, 1998). In another instance, then HMG/N had identified 25 districts as more backward and remote (Dahal et al. 2002; 134), than others in the country.

There is a need for a study that tells whether or not luring visitors to such regions will mean affecting the capability of that local area, which can be of help policymakers to develop approaches to developing such areas. It will be a method best suited to address poverty and related aspects, because this is a capacity building by the way of skill, knowledge and attitudinal changes and will cause a balanced bio-diversity interference by the local/regional institutions themselves. It is to analyze a situation of learning through participation that will render the region with mechanism of all types of local/regional/national institutional involvement and co-ordination including the individuals who could work all the way towards sustainable future constantly developing the capability in multiple ways. This study thus is required to look into the ways of genuine devolution and democratic governance to effect the capability through interactions at multiple levels of the economy. The opportunities that render economies to grow with emphasis particularly on the self-motivation.

It is important to note that the funds from tourism and its far-reaching multiplier inducements (Goeldner, 2000; 420), could be best alternative to activate poverty (low capability) reduction through (activity) interaction between the two self-motivated agencies and related issues effecting at the local level the skill, the knowledge and the right attitudinal changes. This study has been intended to look into public policy changes and supportive environment (UNDP, 1993) for human resource development through capacity building rather than public funds

involvements - so scarce for the poorer nations like Nepal.

With the appropriately designed and executed policies and program, it can at least provide niche for the poor in providing goods and services to tourists and in the process enhance their standard of living (Sharma, 2002; 234) through engagement into learning by interactions and possibly a breakthrough in their capability limits.

In a study conducted in Ghandruk and Ghorepani villages of the Annapurna region, Sharma and Banskota (1995), however, report that a large percentage of subsistence farmers particularly the poor lower class do not directly benefit from tourism income (Banskota, 1995), which may lead into discouragement and less (or negative) interaction.

The case of Humla district in Nepal's far west is important to note because it is one of the country's poorest region with \$1 a day standard, and over 90 percent of the population poor (Seville 2001). And that development programs are said to have further marginalized the mountain economies compared with that of the plains, making mountain economies more vulnerable and at a comparative disadvantage, wherein tourism qualifies in offering opportunities for growth by breaking a person's limitation (Nepal, 2000; 678). A niche for tourism is bringing about changes in society's skill, knowledge and attitudinal aspects without the government having to do much from its side.

The present study therefore focuses on answering the following research questions:

- Does interaction at the local level make changes to local institutions' capability in terms of skill, knowledge and the attitudinal aspects?
- Does secondary information also explain in some way (broadly or narrowly) the HRD in terms of interactions (participation) and through it the capability changes?
- Can one seek compatibility within secondary and within secondary and the field result?

1.3 Objectives of the Study:

The basic objective of the study is to examine the relationship between interaction and capability enhancement at the local level.

The other specific objectives are:

- To assess conditions that would give rise to interaction most compatible to capability enhancement.
- To assess the compatibility of human-centered development concepts with interaction model.

1.4 Research Hypothesis:

For the purpose of the study the following hypothesis has been developed:

"Capacity of local institution/s is enhanced by the interaction at local level"

1.5 Rationale of the Study:

Seen from the perspectives of the problems discussed earlier, it becomes imperative to device public policies geared toward peoples' roles in the activities intended to their uplift their status through capability development, or enhanced skill, knowledge and attitudinal changes. The socio-economic impact of tourism will only be realized if it could reach to a wider section of society with ever-larger direct and indirect multiplier effects (Goeldner et.al. 2000; 426) without tampering the delicate ecological and anthropological milieu. It is thus important to study whether we could establish a relation between interaction at the local level and the corresponding modifications in skill, knowledge and attitudinal aspects.

What is important to note here is that the poor areas often have many tourists attractions because of unspoiled lifestyles, persistent old cultures and special landscape (Li and He 2002; 209), providing potential for locals' and tourists' interactions. Li and He (2000) say that it could be seen as an opportunity to simultaneously address issues of poverty and tourists' facilities. They say that it will develop implications from rural tourism activities leading to also imparting modern skills and capabilities to the rural workers. Since a variety of nature-, culture- and ritual-based tourism attractions are located in the rural sector, the expansion of rural tourism will help

people promote and protect these resources (2002; 209, 219).

Among the different problems associated with the local governments, it is observed that the physical, institutional and management capability of many of those governments, in particular VDCs of the remote districts, are far short of the minimum expected level of performance and therefore capability development becomes an important future strategy of the local government (Thapa, 1998; 30). In capacity development, immediate and continuous programs have been emphasized. So it becomes imperative to see whether there is a worthwhile relationship between interaction (participation) and capacity change.

It is in this view that the proposed study becomes timely and appropriate. The study assumes tourists as investors and activities stimulators at the local level as against the government that makes sizable public investments in the same or similar activities. The study also tries to explore avenues of optimal interaction to enhance to the fullest the socio-economic capability regeneration at the local level -- a human resource development perspective (and also the institution building) so direly awaited hitherto. Among others, this will open up ways to make good governance possible through better delivery system of economies. This will also be in itself a socially justified activity towards the deprived citizens in general, and of the backward regions in particular.

The present study also intends to study alternative relief measures for the over exhausted regions in order to regain their original status while in the mean time offer newer and challenging products to the tourists' likings. These activities have remained some of the many major challenges to the Nepal's tourism policymakers (NTB, 2001).

One of the very important benefits of the study would be to be in a position to suggest for future research, whether or not some regions of the nation could be identified as 'preferred' as against others for the (deliberate) interaction and the resulting effect on the local capability change, delivering the interaction activities (for capability change) to poorer (needy) sectors of the nation. This is where the study, if tested, intends to recommend tourist motivating incentives.

The intention of the research is also to suggest alterations in policies at the government level, rather than just make high investments to address the poverty issues through the use of

different human-centered concepts of development rather unsuccessfully in the overall terms.

1.6 Definition of the Terms:

For the purpose of the study following terms should be understood as the given explanation.

- **Local institution** will include individual, households, communities/groups and manufacturers to producers, educationists, and local government bodies including NGOs. In other words, it means all the stakeholders of the region under the study. Goeldner et al. identify the following as residents of the “host” destination and tourism industry sectors:

Host destination:

- ◆ local /municipal/ regional/ provincial/ national governments
- ◆ local/ regional/ national governmental groups
- ◆ local visitors/ executionists
- ◆ remote visitors/ tourists
- ◆ destination management organization
- ◆ Cultural heritage group
- ◆ Social /health/education groups.

Tourism industry

- | | | |
|---|----------------|--------------------------------|
| ➤ | transportation | entertainment |
| ➤ | accommodation | events |
| ➤ | food service | commercial outdoor recreations |
| ➤ | attractions | commercial visitor service |

(2000; 427)

Norman explains his concept of local institution in relation to other institutions as following:

International Level ----- National Level ----- Regional Level (State or Province) ----- District Level----- Sub-district Level ----- Local Levels (a. Locality Level, where a set of communities having cooperatives/commercial relations; sometimes same as the sub-district level where the sub-district is a market. b. Community Level, a relatively self-contained socio-economic residential unit. And c. Group Level, a set of persons self-identified, having some common interest; may be a small residential group like a hamlet, or a neighborhood, an occupational group or some ethnic, caste, age, sex or other groups). ---- Household Level ----- Individual Level. (Uphoff, 1986; 11).

- **Capability** will grossly mean the socio-economic and management capacity of the local stakeholders in handling the activities generated through the introduction of tourism. This is to be seen in terms of a. skill development b. Knowledge/understanding development and c. changes in the behavior (attitude, beliefs, norms and values), but at present the attitudes. Capability is considered similar to writing capacity.

The **capability enhancement** of local institutions for conceptual understanding in the present case is generalized and explained in terms of the continued (or sustaining) process of human resource development activities, as explained by Leonard Nadler in his book *Developing Human Resources* (Nadler, 1970). Here he explains in some way like the following (modified for the present study purpose).

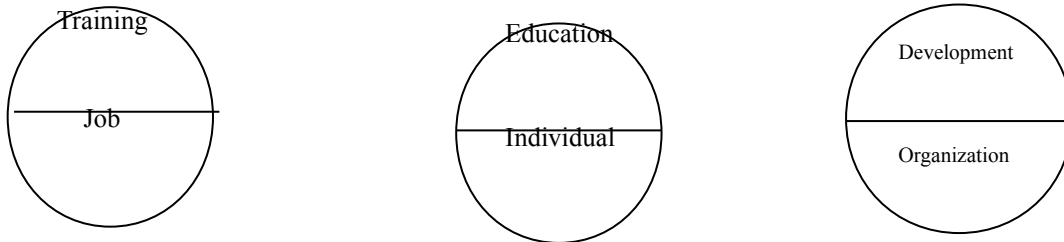
Interaction Area	Focus	Output	Manifestation
Training	Job	Capability	Poverty reduction
Education	Individual	Enhancement	Employment
Development	Organization/Community	(HRD/OD activity)	Participation Org. Development Better Environment and so on

Source: Modified and adapted from Leonard, Nadler, 1970; 39.

In its further elaboration, it has been stated that training, which in this study relates to skill development due to interaction, focus on the job. Secondly, education, which in this case relates to the improvement of overall competence of the individual in a specified direction and beyond

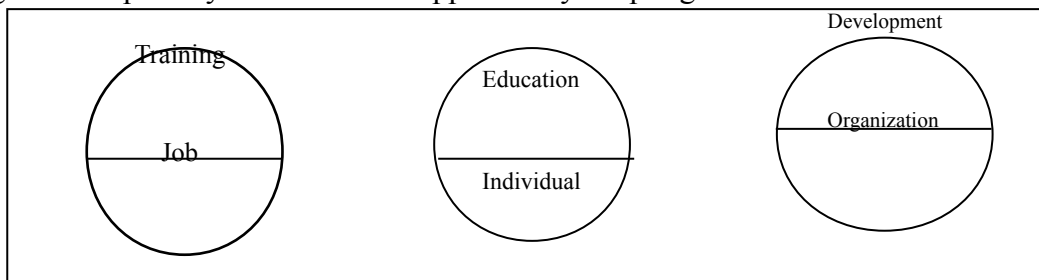
the job presently held (Nadler, 1970; 60), or about the knowledge from interactions, focuses on individual. Thirdly, the development, which is attitudinal approach (related to the institutions, societies/ communities) focuses on the organization.

Fig 5: Labels for HRD activities. (assumed synonym to capability enhancement)



When all are considered together, the concept of the total picture of HRD (Nadler, 1970; 39) or, for the present study's purpose the capability enhancement, is illustrated. Such a model would apply to any kind of situation for the employees as well as general society (Nadler, 1970; 39).

Figure 6: Capability Enhancement Approach by adopting HRD model.



(Source: Adopted from Nadler, 1970; 39).

One should not, however, see these as separate from one another but integrated with each other. As such, effect in one, for example, would lead to changes in knowledge, skills and the attitudes through learning by experiences (Wilson, 1999; 6). In fact, what Garavan termed it as “complimentary components of the same process.” (Garavan, 1997; 42).

The view adopted above can also be interpreted by Vinc Nico’s institutional development point of view. Interpreting the view for the overall capability enhancement, which is equated with the view of institutional development (at the local level). It comprises of:

- **(Staff) capacity building** involving formal and informal training for career opportunities,

extra allowance and fringe benefits, ability to adopt technology and multicultural environment and finally more adoptive to different behavior (Vinc, 1999; 23).

- **Organizational development**, involving improvements in organization culture, objectives and strategies, restructuring and setting new units, planning use of management tools, documentation and working environment, equipment and supply delivery, cost effectiveness awareness and resource sourcing for own living, output increase, quality control, publications, better links with stakeholders and participatory decision making process and so on (Vinc, 1999; 23).

Vinc talks of co-ordination, professional skills, norms, working conditions for minorities and women, as factors related to the institutional development at the national and sectoral level (Vinc, 1999; 23).

Lastly, the understanding for the term **behavioral aspect** should be understood for the purpose of the study as attitudinal aspects only. Even though such a term would encompass value judgments, beliefs and so on, they have not been specially pinned down and dealt with in the study.

1.7 Scopes and Limitation of the Study:

The scope of the study basically includes:

- Examining the present status of effect of interaction between local institutions and tourists on skill, knowledge and attitudinal aspects.
- Enter wider interaction base between local institutions and tourists.
- Reviews of human-centered concepts of development and their relevance to the study.
- Finding compatibility base between the existing literature and field outcome.

The the present study 's basic limiting factors are that:

- The study has been carried out in the significant tourists flow period (September to November) and not in low seasons.
- That the area of the study has been limited to the route to Annapurna Sanctuary from Nayapul

and Dampus via Ghorepani and Ghandruk and Landruk, mentioned in the Area of study.

- That the meanings of the terms referred to in the study are for the conceptual understandings in the study only.
- While the study relates to all the sectors' stakeholders and key actors at the interaction level (for example, GOs, INGOs, NGOs, private sectors, community organizations and so on), it limits itself to only the individuals and members of a family as respondents in this study.
- In all, it will deal with only the three types of the respondents for the questionnaire. These include the hotel owners, hotel workers and the field trekking/expedition staff.

1.8 Structure of the Study:

There will be eight chapters in total.

The First Chapter will cover the Background of the Study, Focus of the Study, Statement of the Problem, Objectives of the Study, Scope and Limitations of the Study, Definition of Important Terms and the Organization of the Study.

The Second Chapter will focus on issues related to the development models, people empowerment programs and social mobilization and local development endeavors and so on. Also, a review will be done here about the Nepal Government's efforts to decentralize society in line with their responsibility of good governance.

The Third Chapter focuses on the theoretical aspect relating all to tourism policies and practices. The Fourth Chapter has been assigned to the tourism and poverty issues and perspectives. Reviews will be done in matching the tandem of tourism efforts with the government's poverty and local development issues.

The Fifth Chapter relates to the Methodology of the study. The Sixth Chapter deals with the actual part of the research, which is Presentation and Analysis. Chapter Seven deals with the research Findings and Interpretations. Chapter Eight has Summery, Conclusions and Suggestions. And lastly, the report concludes with annexes and the bibliography.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Tourism and Interaction:

Tourism field has been focused on for analyzing the interaction (social or otherwise) for the study. The interaction in terms of participation affecting the capability of the host institutions remains common to all the other field of activities. The concept of skill, knowledge (understanding) and the attitudinal (behavioral) changes (referred here as the human resource development aspects) are taken as common aspects of the capability enhancement in the broadest sense.

The research zeroes in on the field of expanding the local stakeholders' interaction with the flow of the tourists, and as such the review focuses on those topics related to, for example, human-centered models such as development activities/concepts, those agencies whose concern would be community participation and local institution development, pro-poor rural activities including the activities in relation to poverty addressed through tourism. The study tries to include concepts of the social science discipline which express how human beings are affected in terms of skill, education (the level of knowledge/understanding) and finally changes in the behavioral aspects (like attitude, values, norms and beliefs) in general, which comprise our understanding of HRD. In other words, activities/programs that help to affect capability of concerned institutions at the local level.

An effort is put to substantiate the area-wise review of literature into three headings, namely, a) development models, people-centered concepts, empowerment programs and social mobilization and local development endeavors and so on b) theoretical aspects relating all to tourism policies and practices and c) tourism and poverty issues and its perspectives with the government's poverty alleviation and local development issues, and d) the general profile of the study area.

2.2 Different Human Centered Approaches to Development:

One could imagine a variety of writers in providing the explanation of the development models and their usages in for or against. Over to a variety of chronologies of these models, attaching importance to one or the other of their choices generally relating to their respective fields of knowledge. They, however, provide to us one clear message of many such facets of studies in arriving at a certain clearer common conclusions, which the researcher tries to deal with at the conclusion of this chapter.

2.2.1 Development Models Chronologies:

Taking the case of poorer countries like Nepal, Bhatta speaks of some development models suggested after the World War II as new alternative strategies to development, which gave birth to more than half a dozen schemes. These include, for example, Cooperative movement, Rural Area Development, Hill Development, Small Farms' Development and Integrated Rural Development (Bhatta, 1990; 1) apart from the ones dealt above.

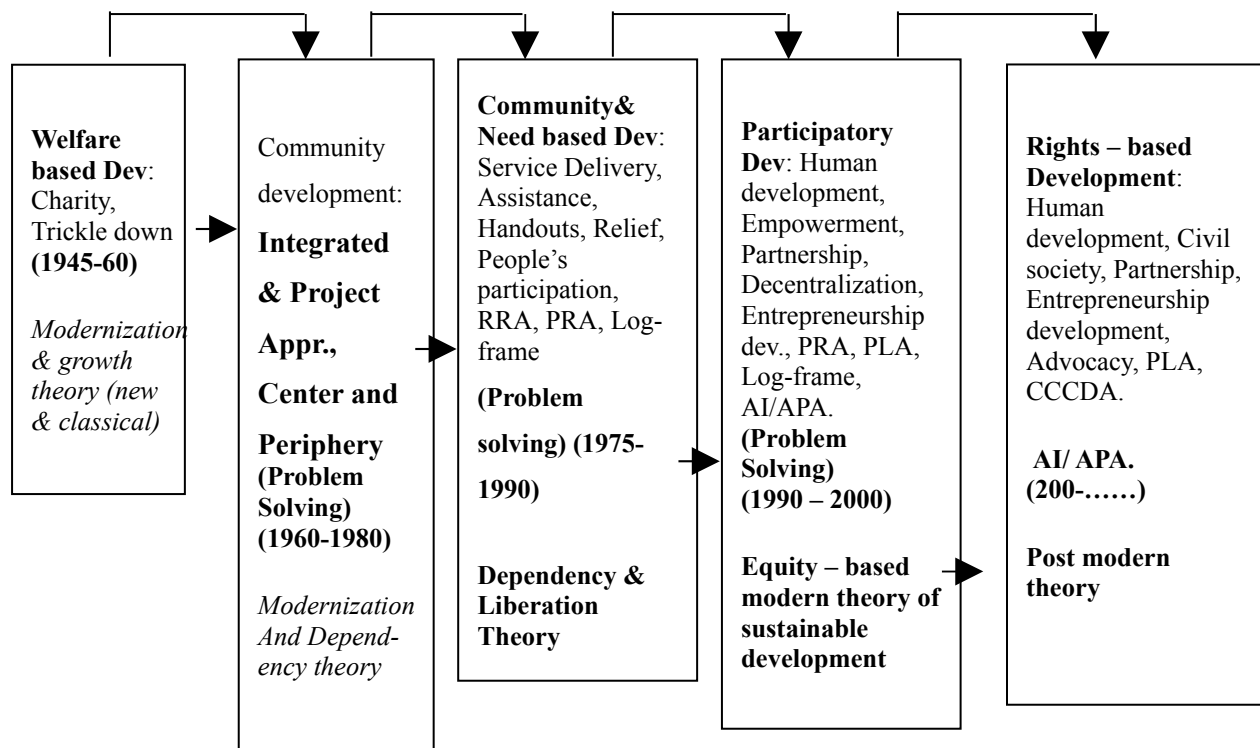
Subrahmanyam (1999) identifies in a broader way the different development models adopted during the 50s through the 90s, referring to "growth -first" models of the 50s to 60s as being without "distributive justice"; the 70s, which saw models such as basic needs approach, integrated rural development models, referred to as "the decade of equity and justice" in establishing the "new international economic order", mostly having only the structural adjustments. And the 80s, the result dependent, as the "lost decade" (Subrahmanyam, 1999; 40). This, however, gave space to "people's participation" and an integrated approach to development in the 90s, thus making this a decade of the democratic forces, participatory decentralized rural development, civil societies and, finally, human development. (Subrahmanyam, 1999; 40).

In his foreword, Gurung (1998) writes that rural development in Nepal has been the national agenda ever since the debut of the country's first periodic plan (1956-1961). He classifies development approaches in Nepal as sectoral, characteristic of the 1960s, integrated packages (1970s), the golden age of integrated rural development (IRD)(1980s), and the phases of NGOs as implementing partner agencies (1990s) (Gurung, 1998; 4 - 8).

Chapagain's production of the following table could be yet another way of presenting the

chronology of the development models, which provide for the development paradigms that kept shifting the methodologies. One could clearly notice that they are all people-centered and appreciated their participation in various ways.

Development Paradigm: Application of Development Approaches and Theories



(Source: based on the writings of G.Ritzer (1996), Heinz Bongart and Dev Raj Dahal (1996) and J. N. Pieterse (2001) and Chapagain).

Chapagain in his thesis propagates the concept of Appreciative Inquiry (IA) approach for community and human development, and concludes that this methodology of self-motivated participatory program and human resource capacity building are rather superior over the earlier problem solving approaches (2004; 4).

2.2.2 Some Development Model Types and their Experimentations:

In their book *Development Studies*, Heinz and Devraj say that after the 50s,

modernization, which sees a change in value as an essential precondition for economic and social development, became identical with development, especially to the third world countries (Bonqartz and Dahal, 1999; 4).

Next comes the Community Development approach to mobilize the labor of the rural and the urban communities, working together with the national government (Pratt and Bayden, 1985; 141). Later, the approach was also applied to India 's national development plans (Bonqartz and Dahal, 1999; 15). The UN has also been cited to describe that the strategy of community development assumes that the activities and efforts of the population have to be combined with the government's development projects in order to improve the economic, social and cultural living conditions of the people (Bonqartz and Dahal, 1999; 15).

Although the above models have shown results in agriculture production and health care in the rural sector of the developing countries, the true "trickle down" effects of the top-down development programs failed to appear and consequently poor people had no significant participation, and the situations of rural communities worsened continuously (Bonqartz and Dahal, 1999; 19). Even though participation was seen as the key to bring about a change in an individual's quality, deliberate and genuine participation of the target remained unsatisfactory.

Obviously, the new Participatory approach to development emerged as a result of the criticism of Community Development approach, which emphasized 'super imposed direction' (Midgley et al. Eds.; 1986; 19). However, the main theme in the participatory approach was that people's participation would strengthen the capabilities of individuals and communities to mobilize and help themselves (Migdley, et al.; 1986; 8).

It was a leap forward since the 70s toward strengthening the poor of the rural communities and would (because of the participation of the local population) reduce costs and mobilize the hitherto underused human energy and creativity (Harrison, 1983; 344).

The Participation model is adored for reducing the culture of paternalism and dependence, and social and ecological disruptions, and for involving equity, equality, social justice and liberty (Bongarts and Dahal, 1999; 21). Obviously, it would also provide social capital in the decision-making governance and evaluation as well as reach to the resources at the state and market levels

(21).

But David Ellerman, who argues about the unhelpful help (leading to dependency relationship), explains that the (external) assistance works in two ways: a) the helper by social engineering deliberately tries to impose his will on the doer or, b) the helper by benevolent aid alters the doer's will with his/her will (Ellerman, 2002; 44,45).

The models like Decentralization of power and Local Self-reliance came close to the participatory approach. Decentralization meant transfer of power, resource and responsibility from the central authority to the local bodies to provide the latter with a say in the planning, administration and control of the strategic decisions affecting their lives (Bongartz and Dahal, 1999; 22).

The scholars further discuss the Self-reliance approach as against Dependency theory (24), the Basic Needs approach (initially developed by the ILO) (25), and the Self-help Organizations approach (27).

More recently, during and after the 1990s, however, concepts like human development, people-centered development, participatory development, empowerment, self-governance, poverty alleviation, sustainable development, civil society and so on have been promulgated as development theories, some of which have originated from the past and some reformulated (Bongart and Dahal, 1999; 52). Bongart and Dahal further argue that the failure of the dominant paradigm of development theories have equally nourished the global debates about alternative concepts of development (52).

In fact, with the decade of the 1990s came the broader approach to improving people's choices through capabilities enhancement as the center of the development effort, and, the UN defines human development as the process of increasing people's choices through their capabilities and functioning that incorporate, among others, knowledge and access to resources--two major components of the Human Resource Index (Pandey, 2002; 63)

2.2.3 Capacity and Institution Building

Saburo cites instance of a UN body identifying development synonymous with participation, and thus he says that capacity building covers all aspects of human well-being in

terms of a) technical skill b) organizational and management skills (which qualify as the 'knowledge' part of our present research), and the behavioral and negotiating skills (behavioral part of our research definition of HRD) (Saburo, 1999; 43). This concept of the UN will allow us to see HRD in terms of overall development (participation).

The concept of Institutional Development, however, are not always clear and often pose ambiguous explanation, admits the article “The challenge of institutional change” (Vink, 1999; 11). The experts/consultants now think change is not always brought about by rational and planned processes but many instances do witness that irrational factors also play crucial roles (13).

At present, crucial donors in relation to assistance to the developing world are seen reconsidering their interest for good governance, a concept closely related to institutional development (Vink, 1999; 1). Vink's article explains Institutional Development not being an end in itself but just means for achieving certain goals, leading finally to social development. It considers institutional development to be much more than the mere economic growth, to also include having vulnerable groups, such as the poor and the women, in the social decision-making milieu (11).

The local – individual and institutional -- capacity building (Saburo, 1999; 30), must be made capable so that an individual will voluntarily participate, self-help, and generate income, an institution can facilitate collective autonomous functioning of local administration, social mobilization, leadership development and self-sustaining economy generation (29, 30).

2.2.4 Capacity for Development

Ironically, it is cited that the present day needs are to work on the basics of economics where people respond to conditions of incentives, which calls for government's intervention in its compatibility with free-market to create incentives for markets especially in deprived areas that can provide technology for the long term (Carlos, 1996; 126). The introduction of the new technology would certainly refer to the new skill, knowledge and the new adoptions in the society in question. If unregulated, such inferences tend to concentrate where they already existed and thus the rich get richer and the poor, poorer (Carlos, 1996; 126) and thus leading to

yet another instance of bad governance. Here the government's role is assumed as that of a catalyst rather than an actual participant.

The idea that earlier models preferred control and steering now look for the image of a collective participation for influencing each others' options and at times shared chaos (Vink, 1999; 13). It has to be seen in a way that the presence of chaos and irrational elements constitute parts of the process of change that take place within a development setting (13). The interactions in the varied group behaviors make much of the difference.

In his understanding, Pandey admits that it is the domestic capacity that makes the development sustainable and not if it has to, in his own words, “come from foreign aid”, and based on the World Bank Report 2001, even states that democracy is indeed at the foundation of capacity building efforts (Pandey, 2002; 72,73). The capacity building becomes like a process that renders interactions at different levels of society and thus again capability is affected, an interdependent causation and result dynamics.

Ironically as it appears, fund for technical co-operation have actually declined for low income and least-developed countries but increased for higher income countries of Asia and Europe (Fukazawa et al., 2000; 2); thus, countries in the most need for capacity development receive less co-operation.

Fukuzawa explains that technical aid is frequently criticized for:

- a. undermining local capacity (it tends to displace local alternatives)
- b. distorting priorities (bypass normal budget process, escape priorities setting rules).
- c. choosing high profile activities (that suit the supplier).
- d. fragmenting management (self prioritized packages).
- e. using expensive ways (look and hire experts from donor countries).
- f. ignoring local wishes
- g. fixating on targets and thus the technical co-operation is not driven by the demand but by the supply (Fukazawa et al., 2002; 6-12).

When one considers the views of donor countries' agencies that provide funds to the developing world (Nepal not an exception, for instance) for institution development, one finds that earlier criteria made for such aids focused on "good policies". These were said to have been based on some studies that indicated that foreign aid was only effective in countries with such good policies (Degnbol, 2002; 275). Good policy here refers to the macro economic policies of a country receiving aid, which would ensure returns in economic terms. And such concepts are still being referred to in seminars with bilateral and multilateral donor agencies (The Kathmandu Post, Sept.11, 2003). Jan Ponk talks about a similar concept in his article "Aid as catalyst" (2001), where he favors a specific types of conditions, which asks the recipient countries to improve their policies and performance.

As a critic of the above view, Degnbol terms the view as being based on narrow economic terms especially in case of agencies like The World Bank and USAID (though the view now has been changed for The World Bank (The Himalayan Times, Feb. 13, 2003)), which he too admits later, and suggests to include other criteria of development goals, for example, poverty alleviation, human development and democratization (Degnbol, 2002; 273). He does not favor increasing the effectiveness of aid always in narrow economic terms but be justified on need assessment (273).

It is said that the developing countries are in a high need of aid and are generally plagued by mass poverty, weak state and institutional foundations for the market economy, and an ineffective democratic political system (273). With these aids, policies of changes could be effected through participation.

Degnbol suggests comprehensive assistance in establishing basic conditions for both good governance and socio-economic development (273), rather than looking only in terms of economic performance. Obviously what is a good policy in one country may not be the same in another, where conditions, problems and potentialities differ (273).

Some donors already see 'capacity building' as development itself (Pandey, 2002; 67). Pandey observes (UNDP, 1977) the capacity development as "the process by which individuals, groups, organizations, institutions and societies increase their abilities to one, perform core functions, solve problems and define and achieve objectives and two, understand and deal with

their development needs in a broad context and in a sustainable manner (Pandey, 2002; 68).

The view on the development assistance from a donor is that it should be for the institutional development and capacity building, which take into account being, a) more open to citizens in decision-making process, b) more transparent and accountable, c) more responsive to the needs of the poor people, d) more attentive to the needs of women, and e) more attentive to the environmental considerations (Degnbol, 2002; 226, 227). As explained, the capacity development involves more people in the fray of activities responsive to local needs and demands, including that of the marginalized people and the environment. The interaction level increases by participation resulting in human resource development by modification in skill, knowledge (understanding) and the attitudinal aspects.

2.2.5 Empowerment

Writings state that empowerment that assumes the recipient at the center of the development process, relates in one sense to the expression of choices and possibilities – the core in human development.... and thus empowerment relates to increasing the capability of people (Carlos, 1996 /128). The focus is for the individual/unit being empowered.

It further observes that capacity dimension being an important part of ownership requires participation (interaction in the study) as necessary element for capacity enhancement (Carlos, 1996; 128). Ownership without a true involvement and interaction of the target cannot be sought and thus capability (skill, knowledge and attitude aspects of the HRD) remains unchanged.

It has been observed by the UN system that low income countries have demonstrated that it is possible to achieve high levels of human development if they skillfully use the available means to expand basic human capability, which has again direct relation to skill formation and education (Carlosl, 1996; 129).

Based on the same report, Carlos further suggests that public policies must therefore be directed not only toward building up people's capabilities but also toward matching these capabilities with opportunities – linking the supply of human capital to the demand for it and maintaining their balance (Carlos, 1996; 129). Thus in an ongoing process, the demand (volume of activities) and the interaction activities (supply) for it should match continually, which means

self-updating and sustaining.

2.2.6 Local Self-Government

After the brief discussion about the development approaches, let us now proceed toward the position of Nepal's local governments, as this constitutes a vital area of decentralization and people's participation.

Despite its growing importance in the recent times, especially after the 1990s, local self-government is still seen as neglected, with the central government ruling predominantly in all areas of the country (Thapa, ed., 1998; 67). The limitation associated with the current form of governance are the central government's distrust of the local governments, the bureaucrats' overconfidence to rule the management body of the local governments, the limited revenue sources available to the local governments, dependence of local governments on the central house of representative, and a resistance to practical changes (Thapa, ed. 1998; 7).

In Nepal, the decentralization scheme after the Decentralization Act of 1982 and its bylaws in 1984, showed a major departure, which continued after the democratic change of 1990 especially by the enactment of the Local Bodies Act 1992 for the Village Development Committees (VDCs) and the Local Development Committees (LDCs) (Thapa, ed., 1998; 15). This obviously showed that the intention of the Nepalese Government was to enhance activities by local bodies to decentralize the central power (Thapa, ed., 1998; 15). The above two paragraphs show that the intention and implementation of decentralization exhibited big gaps, which limited the participation (interaction) resulting in poor local institutional capability (in terms of skill, education and attitudinal aspects). However, the theoretical basis still holds true for local participation (decentralization) in local affairs.

Thapa further argues that the local self-bodies could not enjoy the extent of decentralization because the supervision and the control of central authorities were "entrenched and pervasive" in the institutional, administrative, technical and financial supervision and control (1998; 15).

Thapa does mention some of the government's extra-curricular activities, such as to provide directives and executive installments like 'Build your village yourself' in the form of

village development and self-reliance program, the formation of the High Level Decentralization Co-ordination Committee and Royal Ordinance of 1997, in the supposition of enhancing local units' governance (Thapa ed., 1998; 15 – 17).

One of many recommendations by Thapa include local bodies being entrusted with the power to mobilize local resources from their perspective areas (Thapa, ed., 1998; 19), where the writer is obviously referring to local interaction.

In the article 'Local Self Government in Nepal: Future Perspective' S. R. Poudyal emphasizes particularly for the case of Nepal on the "greater participation" in business of governance (1998; 20) by encouraging the "democratic climate of opinion" (Smith, 1985). The reason is that the lack of easy access in difficult mountain terrain makes it imperative to handle local business locally (Thapa ed., 1998; 20), rather than by outside replenishment.

Also, the Constitution under its Directive Principles of State Policies (Article 25:4) calls for more and more involvement of citizens in governance through the process of decentralization for equitable distribution of benefits of democracy (Poudyal, 1998; 21).

It is stated that the economic decentralization has remained the neglected area vis-a-vis political and administrative powers and therefore the participation of local bodies are limited (Poudyal, 1998; 35). The article argues further that the local government can design policies more responsive to local needs and priorities, and as such it becomes relevant that benefits related to revenue generation be at the local level supplemented by scientific and transparent grants (Poudyal, 1998; 52).

The main problem in the realization of decentralization scheme at the grassroots seems to be the "wide dichotomy" between the legal framework and the realities of its practical implementation (Shrestha, 1999; 64). Shrestha, like the earlier writers, thinks that the capacity of the local government institutions is very low mainly because of financial and manpower constrains. Therefore he recommends the local government institution's capacity building for effective decentralization (64). It is important, however, to view capacity building and decentralization as very closely related, and the ways to increase participation (interaction) in the area concerned for enhancing local skills, knowledge and behaviors.

Dahal et. al. in 'Good Governance and Decentralization in Nepal' (2002; 34) refer to also the civil society for the poor people's participation and thus collective action. They say such civil societies, which include professional, voluntary, community and civic bodies, however, do not seem to be effective in encouraging participation.

Further, they opine that agencies like the central government, international non-governmental organizations (INGOs) and the donor agencies will be in a better position to be compatible with the need for the development of local leadership, capital accumulation, entrepreneurship and increased participation of the people at the grassroots level, which will then provide the balance in macro and micro institutions of governance (Dahal, 1999; 3).

The role of the state as the total authority should be limited. Otherwise it will be deprived of the benefit from indigenous knowledge and will not lead to a realization of the rationale of polycentric and multilevel governance for collective action in a conglomerated society (Shivakumar, 1999; 15), and ultimately lose the true local interaction and the whole theme of capability at multiple levels of the inclusive society.

A just society always looks for the principles of inclusiveness, liberty, equality and self-determination through access to markets, assets, goods and services, and the institutions (Dahal et al, 2002; 7).

"The mere existence of elected government ensures neither decentralization nor good governance" and things cannot be taken for granted at the face value only (Dahal, et.al, 2002; 58). Dahal et. al. rightly point out the commonly presented views that through decentralization efforts, local government, being closer to the people, can have the optional use of resource to realize their basic needs and demands (Dahal et. al., 2002; 58). In fact, decentralization in its broadest sense is the decentralization of participation (interaction opportunities), and thereby brings the local people at role play in governance.

In the 10th Five-Year Plan, people's participation at the local level has been highly emphasized for poverty reduction goal with the theme of "ownership" (Dahal et al., 2002; 121). In the pursuit of targeted programs, training and vocational education etc. have been taken as means to poverty alleviation (Dahal et. al., 2002; 121).

The book by Dahal et al. also emphasizes the role NGOs in combating poverty (low capability) through their own medium, those being mostly with the participatory approaches, which encourage awareness of the need to participate and are not simply participatory approaches (Dahal et al.; 2002; 12). Awareness is important as one's participation without a knowledge of the ultimate goal will be just futile.

The Ninth Five-Year Plan in its bid to empower local body through decentralization did emphasize being people-oriented, and involving the government, NGOs, the private sector, the civil society, consumer groups and local bodies in social mobilization to include marginalized, deprived and disadvantaged groups in the development process (Dahal et. al., 2002; 122). "Instrumental behavior," Dahal et. al. point out, the people's participation will exhibit in terms of their rational self-interest (122). No one theory about development seem to deny the role of participation (may be through decentralization). The governments provide resources to their bodies for implementation of these principles, but the real goal of interaction of the target falls far short of what was stipulated. This may be due to reasons not covered in this study.

Dahal et. al. (2002) also observe that the participatory approach in the districts of Far Western Region, such as Humla, Jumla, Mugu, and so on, are lagging far behind in terms of technological transformation, modern education, production, marketing, employment and communication (Dahal et al., 2002; 125) and thus there exists low management capacity.

Decentralized development and governance, as per these scholars, centers downward accountability having the broad scope for people's participation, thus increasing responsiveness of local authorities (Dahal, et. al., 2002; 137).

At the very outset of the book about local government and decentralization, T.N Shrestha does rightly point out that the contemporary developing countries have been engaged in strengthening the local government institutions through decentralization function and as such, have become the prime aspects of public management (Shrestha, 2000; 1).

Similar to the findings of earlier writers, a study conducted in two districts of Nepal reveals high capacity deficiency at the local level despite so much emphasis given to it in today's concept of development (Shrestha eds., 2000; 52, 53), thus bringing into light the need for

capability enhancement. It reports further that there is a need to access technical and other resources on a self-sustainable basis, but those needs remained largely ignored (Shrestha, et al., 2000; 52, 53).

Bhattachan in his article on local needs and capability-building of local self-government remarks that even after over five decades of practicing for local self government and decentralization, one is not in a position to fully realize them. He recommends that, the Nepalese society being multi-ethnic, multilingual, multi-religious, formation of any plan or program should seriously consider socio-cultural diversity in its core (Bhattachan, 1999; 7).

Bhattachan identifies the need of a local setup in terms of democratic outlay like - institutional development, human resource development, capacity building awareness raising, income generation, resource management, self-reliance and program for the disadvantaged groups in the local community (Bhattachan, 1999; 100,101). These above mentioned factors are of high relevance to the present study and it considers them all within local capability enhancement.

2.2.7 The UN System and Local Development:

The UN systems too are not less interested in the uplift of the rural areas. The United Nations Capital Development Fund-funded local development fund Decentralized Financing and Development Programme, under NEP/99 COI Project, is one of the activities that addresses poverty by funding rural infrastructure, income generation activities, and human resource development opportunities, which are identified through participatory planning process and local body's approval. (HMG/N, Ministry of Local Development and UNCDF, 2002).

An editorial comment in a local English language newspaper highly commends the success of the sustainable community development program adopted somewhere around 1996 in six districts of the nation (The Himalayan Times, July 14, 2003). This program highly emphasizes local people's participation as per the conceptions adopted in the Rio summit. It is a down-top approach and focuses on institutionalizing the community-based organization for its sustainability, promoting environmental governance at the local level, and putting pressure on the government to adopt sustainable approaches (The Himalayan Times, July 14, 2003).

2.2.8 Review of NHRDR-2001:

At present, it is observed that the HMG/N has been engaged in country-wide projects of enhanced accesses, infrastructure, productivity, rural credit, human development services as its strategy to combat human and income poverty (UNDP, Nepal, 2001; 78).

The UNDP report identifies “Decentralization” as the missing link for addressing the poverty issues. It also observes that even the Ninth Development Plan showed no specific relation to decentralization and poverty issues including the central and local governments coordinations (91).

However, this plan does mention as its main theme of poverty reduction proposed through community participation and management activities including local-level participation in the decision making process (78). The report, among others, suggests measures in addressing the poverty effectively by recognizing poverty as location-specific and combating it through involvement of local governments and communities locally, by strengthening the capabilities and resource availability at the local government level (90).

It critically explains that where the local community people (Cadre-Based Approach) leads the social mobilization, participation becomes substantial rather than by the staff of the implementing agency (Staff-Based Approach) (100,101). The report identifies social mobilization as enhancing people's capabilities in deliberating their future, thus reduction in poverty, better governance and finally human development (NHRDR) (102).

The above explanations for our present study's purpose correspond to the capacity development by way of enhancing interaction between the available activities and the stakeholders (institutions at the local level) involved.

The report expresses a concern about the convention of resources flow from the center through the line agencies bypassing the local governments, weakening the latter's poverty reduction linkage networks (UNDP, 2001; 78). Also, poverty-related projects such as Bishwesor with Poor, Mahila Jagrity and Ganesh Man Singh Aviyan (programs of political nature), run outside the framework of sectoral or local government purview (78).

The report is critical about the situation whereby the local governments are mandated to

prioritize programs that contribute to the poverty reduction but the manpower involved are centrally taken care of, thereby leading to the defilement of both the principle and practices of local governments' autonomy (UNDP 2001; 76, 77). The central government seems to overlook the local governments in activities of reducing poverty especially where the donor's support is involved (73). Because of these things, prescribed projects' participation generally tend to be superficial because the local people do not have a sense of ownership of the activities.

The report says that social mobilization (that is substantial interaction opportunities of the locals with activities) not only enhances the economic capabilities but also the solidarity, participation in decision-making process, awareness and, of all, the management skills, including encouragement to the deprived members of society to participate (103).

2.2.9 Human Development

Human Development's central theme hovers on people's capability expansion and their well-being by introducing positive growth and change in them, collectively or individually (Sharma, 2006; 1). As such, HD approach considers "well-being" as the end product and other activities to reach that state just as the "means"(11, 12).

Sharma mentions the views of the Nobel Peace laureate Amartya Sen, who considers capacity as an ability to perform any job in freedom (12). Freedom in itself is the end and also the means to development (12). Humans as such would not like to be passive recipients but active participants to development (by owning interaction) that can shape their destiny (13).

Human Development Report, 1990, observes that participation from human development perspective becomes both a means and an end, and because human development stresses the need to invest in human capabilities, greater participation (i.e. interaction) will have an important part to play in maximizing human capability and thus social and economic development (Carlos 1996; 129). It further adds that the fundamental aspect is the equality of access to the means of developing basic human capabilities, the equality of opportunities to participate in all aspects of economic, social and political decision-making and the equality of reward (129).

Mahbub ul Haq explains human capabilities in terms of improved health, skill and knowledge on the one hand and economic, social, political, environmental and cultural aspects

on the other (Sharma, 2006; 17). In essence, Sharma writes (for Haq) that HD stands on equity, sustainability, productivity and empowerment (2006; 7). Equity in opportunities, sustainability in linking now and the future, productivity in skill development and empowerment for a free choice (of prospects) (19). This is directly related to the human capabilities, as explained earlier by the writer, and is possible only through how people are let into interaction in the wholesome activities by self-motivation in a positive public policy environment (least interference through external impositions and programs). HD emphasizes the interactions through promotion of people's participation, the extension of capabilities to mobilizing endogenous resources, including cultural values (19).

Therefore HD's primary focus is to enhance people's capabilities in its overall terms so that they can utilize the opportunities (or challenges) available at a given time. But capability is understood to be achieved when skill, knowledge and attitude make a difference. Until a person is exposed to activities, such changes will not take place.

NHRDR-2001 also identifies capability enhancement by the community-based cadre participation for the reduction in poverty and better governance, leading to the human development (NHRDR)? UNDP- 2001). Capacity development through participation process remains the panacea for most human-centered theories.

2.2.10 Community Participation

It has been broadly suggested that the way to develop human capability in Nepal is through the establishment of widespread community-driven projects, which tackle 'head on' the problems associated with rural poverty (King Mahendra Trust for Nature Conservation, 1997), an indicator of low rural capability.

Community participation is said to strengthen the capability of individuals and the communities to mobilize and help themselves; thus, minimizing their dependence on the center (Midgley et al, eds., 1986; 8). Additionally, it is said that ordinary people rediscover their potential for co-operation and mutual endeavor (8).

Participation of the local population reduces the cost and mobilizes the most valuable of the resources, which is the human energy and creativity (Harrison, 1983; 344). Participation also

involves equality, social justice and liberty and provides community with requisite social capital in decision-making to effect governance, evaluation and access to resource source (Bongart and Dahal, 1985; 21). Community participation helps minimize the social and ecological disruptions and upgrades them to become subject of change (Bongart and Dahal, 1985; 21). Interaction (participation) thus helps strengthen social justice, governance and balancing social and ecological issues – the prongs of development to be realized only when skill, knowledge and the attitudes make the difference.

In their book, Bongart and Dahal mention that the earlier community development models generally benefited the dominating groups of the rural population and the trickle-down effects did not work as intended (1985; 21), meaning that the interactive participation by the expected population remained just on the surface.

Even in places where elaborate progressive policy of legal framework exist the country's elite continue to control the access to and ownership of resources, decision-making, distribution of services and opportunities, and this has increased the gap between the elite and the rest of the population, fueling further the feelings of relative deprivation (UNDP, NHDR, 2001; 73). A study conducted by Small Farmers Cooperative Ltd. shows the “better off” poor benefited more than the poor (an evaluation of seven VDCs mobilized under South Asia Poverty Alleviation Project (1994-1999) showed living conditions improved 83 percent for better-offs and 44 percent for the very poor (UNDP, NHRDR-2001; 103)).

It is cited that the greater the inequality, the lesser the poverty-reducing effect on growth, and according to a recent survey income inequality is in fact growing in several Asian countries (Thapa, 2002; 38). It is said that the major cause for this rising inequality is the growing disparities in economic growth arising from a concentration of economic activities in certain areas to the exclusion of others (38). Activities of opportunities and actions at one place itself connotes interactions and where there are low such interactions, it clearly explains the opportunities to grow through learning will be limited to society and hence the existence of low capacity resulting in poverty.

Some of the reasons behind unsuccessful performance of the community development approach were that:

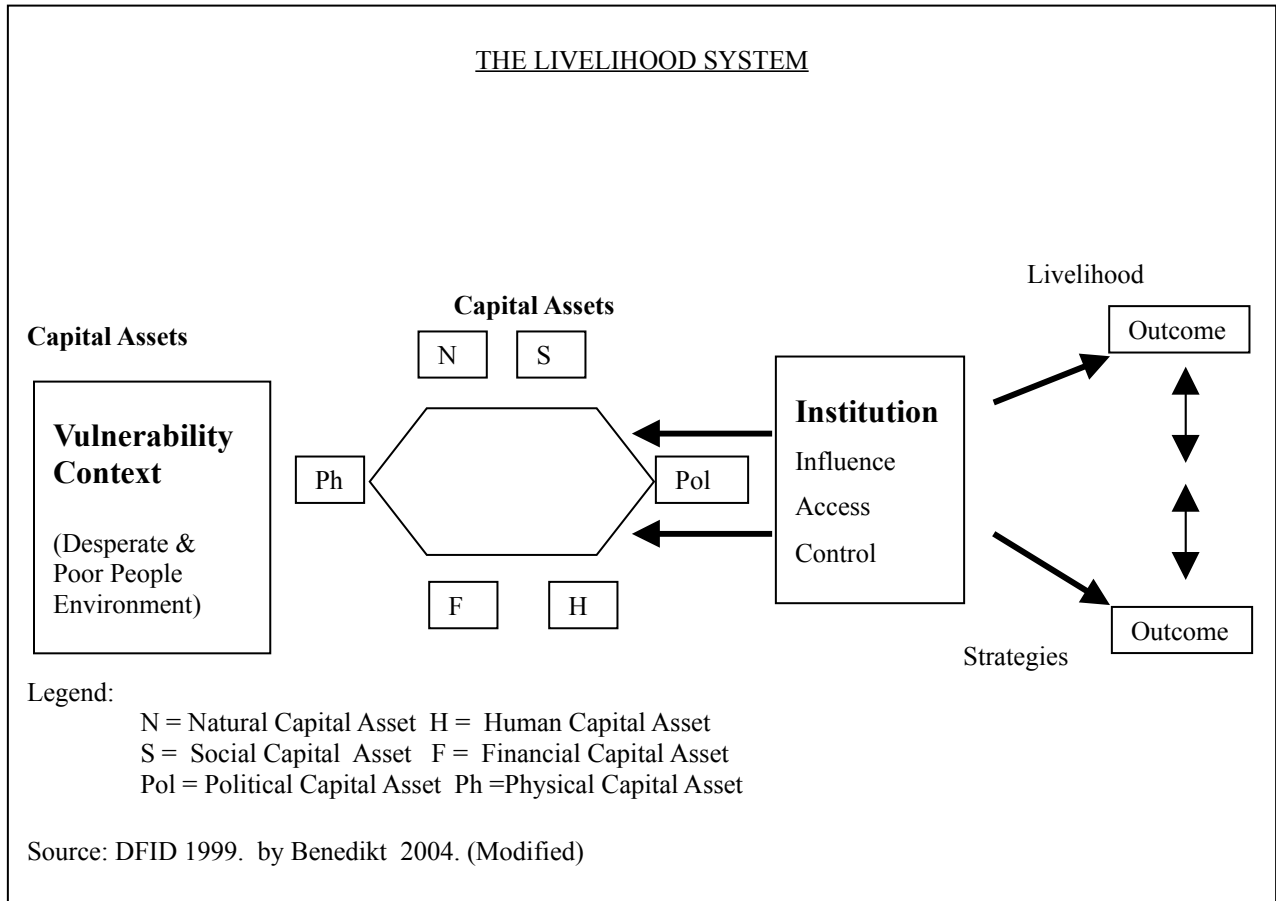
- a) It lacked conscious awareness building among the poor (Pratt and Baydon, 1985; 42).
- b) It neglected social stratification and conflicts of interest in the local community.
- c) The decisions were still centrally made (and also for the local level)
- d) The gender balance was not taken care of in a right way.
- e) It did not provide support for the self help activities at the village level, (Bongartz and Dahal, 1996; 18)

Thus in the pursuit of more involvement of the local stakeholders, community approach and basic needs approach have been developed by encouraging more community involvement in the projects, and this way of involvement of the people showed results of better performance and sustainability (Bongartz and Dahal, 1996; 20). This would be a process of participation (interaction), which called for more and more empowerment of citizens (through involvement) (20). This is a clear case of interaction and the effects on the capability at the community level.

It is not correct to see the aim of participation to be to produce the stipulated output targets (as means) only; it must be also expressed as an end in itself as much as empowerment results as a necessary outcome, thus participation function as an "emancipatory strategy" (Trevor, 2004; 573). Here the writer in a way considers participation function as an end objective in terms of 'empowerment'. This brings us closer to express empowerment as the human resource development function where participation is interaction resulting in capability development by local empowerment.

Although discussed in the context of livelihood, Benedict has expressed a view that could be well adopted for the present purpose of the review. He perceives civilian people as active and not as helpless victims, how an individual is in possession of six forms of endowments (natural, physical, human, social, political and financial, which could be utilized to get a hold of livelihood opportunities and options even under difficult circumstances (Benedict, 2004; 227).

Figure 7:



The World Bank including some writers like Khalid and Swarim use civic engagement and participation interchangeably (The World Bank Participation Source Book, 1996) sees this as a process and not as an event that closely involves people in the economic, social, cultural and political process that affect their lives (Khalid and Wagle 1993; 87), seeing it both as a means and an end.

The World Bank provides evidences of the findings in a study of 121 diverse rural water supply projects in 49 countries of the developing world, which show strong correlation between project success and high levels of beneficiary participation (Khalid and Wagle, 1993; 91). Beneficiary participation is the real opportunity to show ownership in activities interactions and thus the success.

2.2.11 Donors and Institution Building

The robust resurgence of community forestry in the hilly areas of Nepal has been one of

the most outstanding examples of the effectiveness of such self-help initiatives at the grassroots level (Shrestha, et al., 2000). Other examples could be NGOs-backed community women's groups and self-help organizations in the small-scale credit and saving programs (Enabling State Program, 2002; 36). These cases are good examples of self-motivated participation, as those activities in the stakeholders' eyes bear long-term prospects and really concerns them in their livelihood.

It is observed that involvement of the poor and the underprivileged becomes crucial for transforming pro-poor policies into actuality (Enabling State Program, 2002; 36). Nepalese government does have many programs on people's participation to design, implement and follow-up. Even the Local Self-Government Act requires that local bodies enlist participation of local people through the formation of users' groups for the latter's feeling of ownership (Enabling State Program, 2002; 37) in the endeavor. Ownerships that result in the real and self-motivated participation to effect skill, knowledge and the attitudinal difference.

Sustainability of the ecosystem seems possible through socially-directed instrument accepted by family, neighborhood, community, NGO's and the civil societies because these encourage self-reliance by being dependent on the local resources (Enabling State Program 2002; 37). There will be a kind of rejection or disowning when such instruments interfere (prescribed on from an alien body) and become as incompatible to the existing social set up from outside.

Bongartz and Dahal further opine that community participation, decentralization and local self-reliance are closely related (1996; 21). Self-reliance, which bears on a principle of "trusting one's own power, learning by doing and regenerating through one's own effort" (Ferdowsi, 1986; 375). This is what is to be studied to see whether interaction and learning at the field level (local level) enhances capability to perform jobs.

"Local self-reliance is crucial to a culture of freedom, articulation innovation and social mobilization, where community can take up the leadership to facilitate transformation" and that it is equally crucial to build local potential in institution building, resource generation, management, initiative and decision-making (Bongartz and Dahal, 1996; 24). More clearly, one could say that it is the individual's (or groups') interaction with the project/event which provides him/them with the real experience of leading to developing skills, being educated and

behaviorally modified to suit future challenges.

2.2.12 Social Capital and its Relevance:

At this point, it is useful to introduce the idea of social capital as it has emerged as a contemporary issue of discussion in the intellectual socio-economic and political arenas (Arrow, 2000; 3). It is hard to pin down a single definition for it because social scientists vary in their explanations. However, the scientists do form a sort of consensus among themselves that it is plausible to think the hypothesis that social networks can affect economic performances, but the tenacity into the analysis of computations differ (Arrow, 2000; 3). Some writers, explains Kenneth, express about the social networks giving rise to negative behaviors as well (Arrow, 2000; 3,4). But the point remains that the concept of social capital does work in the networking of interactions, whether it works this way or that way. It will have effects in the individual or the collective levels of performances, the relevance this study incorporates.

The World Bank defines social capital as “the institutions, relationships and norms that shape the quality of a society's social interaction” (Babu, 2004). This definition not only speaks of the interaction within a homogeneous community but also the social networks developed within and without (i.e., also with other communities/individuals with dissimilar characteristics). It provides opportunities to develop, as the writer puts it, “qualities of interpersonal relationships, networks, norms, social trusts and cooperation establishments for mutual benefits”.

Social capital is an important but very complex concept where there are different network perspectives, including even tacit knowledge (Stinglist, 1999; 67). He explains that the quality and composition of society always have rooms for alteration and this could lead to changes in the development process (Stinglist, 1999; 67). And in the process of economic changes taking place, a society "must adopt as well, allowing interpersonal networks to be partially replaced with formal institutions of a market-based economy (structured systems of laws of governance) (Stinglist 1999; 59).

Coleman takes a balanced view as economic functioning is socio-embedded due to social organization in the process, (2000; 15,16), meaning the activities process (interaction chain) as the real socio-economic machine.

According to Coleman (16), social capital manifests in a variety of ways, achieving ends sometimes by just its presence while understanding that unlike physical capital, social capital that is valuable in one instance may be less or even counterproductive in the other, that it may lead to different interactive pressure groups of negative intentions.

Coleman says social capital is not attached to a unit (a person or an organization, for example) but inheres in the structure of relationship between and among actors (16). Social capital, according to him, comes through changes in the relations among people who facilitate activities. While physical capital is tangible, human capital (skill and capability) is less tangible and the social capital is still less tangible because it is interpreted in relationships (19). It results from social network process, which involves interactions of various kinds at the various stages, and as such is difficult to measure.

Coleman discusses human capital and not human resource as such where he tries to distinctly separate skill and capability aspects from social relation effects. He tries to see human factor simply as an economic unit and the behavioral side remains shy. The explanation of the HRD in this study, however, fairly includes the behavioral aspects, also. Coleman does, nevertheless, show direct relation of social capital to skill and capacity.

Social capital, Coleman (19) asserts, comes from the changes in relationships among people who facilitate the actions. It is different from human capital, which means skills and capabilities that make those people able to act in new ways. He also asserts that all social relations and social structures facilitate some form of social capital and these in a family and a community play roles in creating human capital (23, 27).

Literatures of political science, sociology and anthropology generally refer social capital to a set of norms, networks and organizations through which people gain access to power and resources, which are instrumental in enabling decision-making and policy formulations—economists refer social capital to economic growth, relating it in terms of improvement of market functioning at the micro level and roles of institutions, legal framework, and the public organizations at the macro level (Serageldin and Grootaert, 2000; 45). If social capital this way takes one to empowerment and better economy, then extending it further would lead us to know that interactions interpreted through social capital is something related to a kind of training

encompassing skill, education and behavior modifications at the micro and macro levels. It becomes easier for one also to interpret in terms of HRD in the broadest sense.

Putnam sees social capital as a 'horizontal association' among people who have an effect on the productivity of the community (Putnam, 1993). Association here refers to the network of civil engagements and social norms for increasing productivity.

Yet another view sees social capital through social and political environment that enable norms to develop and shape social structures (Seralgeldin and Grootaert, 2000; 46).

Seralgeldin and Grootaert (2000) conclude by compromising the three different views about social capital as complementary to one another, having the following three in common:

- 1) Economic, social and political spheres are linked, and there is an assumption that social relationships affect and are affected by economic outcomes.
- 2) The type of formal and informal relationships among these economic agents can improve the efficiency of economic activities, and
- 3) Desirable social relationships and institutions have positive externalities (49). It is, however, cautioned that social relationships could also have negative outcomes depending on the context. Social capital becomes an area of many relations of interactions within one and many societies resulting in benefits of socio-politico-economic nature.

Grootaert says that there are enough evidences to show that social capital can have impacts on development outcomes including growth, equity and poverty alleviation (1996) or in general, the capability development.

Associations and institutions provide informal framework for sharing information, coordinating activities and making collective decisions (Grootaert, 1996), including peer-monitoring, developing a common set of norms and sanctions at the local level (Bardhan, 1995).

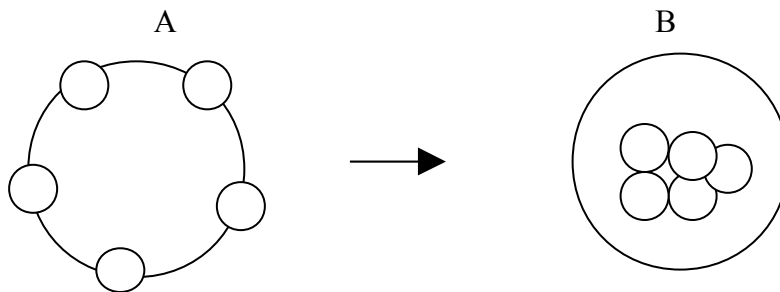
There exist complementary roles seen from the perspective of macro- and micro- levels of social capital (Stone et. al., 1992), where macro-level institution (macro-level social capital) can provide an enabling environment for micro-level institutions and thus the two levels of social capital mutually strengthen the economy (Seralgeldin and Grootaert, 2000; 50). The two levels of

social capital would be in terms of shared values and norms and mutual trust leading to the increase in “stock of social capital” (50, 51). More of the stock of social capital would mean more functioning of participative behavior leading to more interaction opportunities and capability modification.

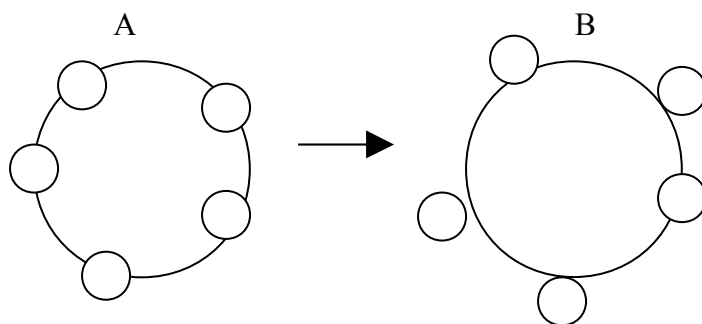
Seralgeldin and Grootaert have a view that if norms are shared cohesion is likely to improve, as institutes work towards a common objective, mutually reinforcing micro- and macro- levels and increasing the social capital stock in the interaction (51). There seems to be a kind of encouragement for learning through participation at micro- and macro- levels.

Figure: Positive and Negative Interactions between Micro and Macro Social Capital.

i) Positive interaction between macro and micro institutions



ii) Negative interaction between macro and micro institutions



Source : Seralgeldin and Grootaert , 2000; 52.

It is said that certain types of social capital may have additive contributions to the process while others' contributions may come in the form of multiplier effects (Seralgeldin and Grootaert, 2000; 53).

Putnam keeps the view that social capital promotes benefits of investment in physical and human capital (Putnam, 1993; 36). Serageldin and Grootaert talk of even the appropriate social capital as the “optimal mix” of the different types of social capital existing at a given time in a country (Serageldin, 2000; 54, 55).

It is mentioned that changing the working context (a transition from traditional working context to the new tourist-local interaction context) may provide a situation that motivates a change in the existing social capital and thus large changes in the external environment (for example, opening up of the international markets) can effect a large transformation in society, leading from an inward-looking one to an outward-looking one (Stiglitz, 2000; 66). This will not only broaden the community from being group-biased (particularistic and discriminatory) to open-market-based participators (Stiglitz, 2000; 66) but also lead them to be skillful and competitive.

In a traditional society, interacting with tourists in different contexts may lead to more openness and adopting nature, providing a breakthrough from barrier of cultural narrowness. Assuming that the tourists' products would be ever sustaining, the interaction thus would lead to change society's outlook toward the newer world with higher output.

Social capital has also been equated with 'social institutions' (Stiglitz, 2000; 59), which is a very useful concept but an extremely complex one in which different perspectives have much to contribute (67).

Scholars like Krishna Anirudh explain that social capital in two related dimensions exhibit:

- a. “Institutional capital” that involves structural elements like roles, rules, procedures and organizations, which facilitate mutually beneficial collective actions, and
- b. “Relational capital” that relates to values, attitudes, norms and beliefs that predispose individuals towards cooperation (2000; 71).

The cognitive aspect (cultural aspect) and the structural aspects (formal rules) in the pursuit of interaction are mutually reinforcing (Anirudh, 2000; 84), which will affect ultimately capacity status more and more. Such two (cultural and institutional) components are important,

and they discipline the interaction functioning in a typical social set-up.

A study conducted in Italy found that economic performances were better exhibited by regions with polycentric networks of interaction rather than the hierarchical or fragmented approach (Locke, 1995).

Social capital also expressed as the sociology of economic development in the actual working milieu can be expressed to work for cross purposes (Turner, 1999; 94). Jonathan views the working forces that form social capital into three levels – macro (institutional level), meso (corporate and categorical unit level) and, thirdly, the face-to-face interaction (unfold within corporate and categorical units) as micro level (Turner, 1999; 95), functioning at one level invariably getting mixed with the other (Granovetter, 1985 cited by Turner, 1999; 95).

Jonathan finds the introduction of market-based money transaction system in the societal functioning renders higher stimulating character making the local network limit extend to the national level integration (Turner, 1999; 102-104). For one purpose, one has to consider that the introduction of money as the factor catalytic for interactions amongst stakeholders and the higher capability generations in terms of skill, education in general and change in behavioral outfit (development aspect) in particular, as George Simmel in 1907 said that money is more neutral and create value in almost all human activity arena (Turner, 1999; 102). For the present purpose, these will account to the introduction of tourists and tourists' related activities in the traditional, marginalized and low capacity areas of the country, thereby the interaction amongst the stakeholders alongside the motivation by money generation.

The 'meta markets' as Collins (1990) states, the markets built on confidence by introduction of concepts like credit, contracts, stocks, mortgages, bonds and the like will be initiated leading to a broader market-based parameters (and thus the social capital enhancement) (Jonathan, 1999; 104), leading to institutional capacity enhancement much beyond the limit of kinship.

Ostrom (1995) tries to define human capital in terms of acquired knowledge and skills, and thus consisting of new capabilities (say skills) and the learning of constrains (say, education/knowledge).

Schuurman (2003) tries to show a variety of views by different prominent scholars of today on the concept of social capital in respect to individual perspective:

- i. The arrangement of human resources to improve flows of future income (Ostom, 1995).
- ii. The array of valuable relationships a person has accumulated over time (Meyerson, 1994).
- iii. Opportunities to turn a profit from the application of one's human capital (Burt, 1998).
- iv. The component of human capital that allows members of a given society to trust one another and cooperate in the formation of new groups and associations (Colman, 1988).

Shuurman also presents the views that in general, refer to a set of moral values for behavioral change (Fukuyama, 1995), the social trust, norms and networks (Putnam, 1993) and knowledge, behavior repertoire and attitudes of the members of a society (Putterman, 1995) (Schuurman, 2003; 995).

Social capital, according World Bank is a kind of “glue that holds societies together and without which there can be no economic growth or human well being” (Schuurman, 2003; 995).

2.2.13 Social Mobilization:

“Social mobilization is a long term process of education and awareness building”, but in realizing this there will be the requirement of investment in various forms in local communities to build their capacity for action and to form effective functional linkages with local governments and line agencies (UNDP, 2001; 107).

Khan keeps his views different from generally held traditional views of social mobilization. It is according to him, based on the assumption that people are willing to do things by themselves according to their own potential and they should not be approached with a “preconceived ” programme package, for example, credit/ micro-credit projects, drinking water projects, primary schools, digging irrigation channels, increasing agriculture productivity and so on (Khan, 1999; 5). He further opines that it is to know what these people are willing to do and the opportunities they see in this willingness and let the hitherto unexposed (local) potential to do the job (5, 9). He rightly points out the self-developed working priorities of the local institutions

to unveil and the government should sincerely encourage such cases of self-propelled potentials to act and react.

In his long experience of the field, Khan explains that even the poorest of the poor wish to do something but some constrains and limiting factors like absence of a genuine leader for social guidance, small finance and capital and economies of scale restrict them from executing those wishes (Khan, 1999; 9). If such limitations could be eliminated, one could unleash the potential within that has so far remained unsurfaced (5).

Among the three social mobilization tiers seen, the household, the group and the community, Khan perceives interference to households as preferred to have better and effective interaction rather than the community as generally community approach will expose more opportunities to the already smart and better-offs, which usually is the case with government programs/ projects (Khan, 1999; 7). The effectiveness of his recommended method, he says, is "tremendous" (9).

Khan's empirical explanations do provide ironical stance on the way one should see the interaction of stakeholders and the ripening benefits. It does emphasize on the voluntary participation and the willingness to do the job rather than a prescribed format of involuntary participation.

2.2.14 The Role of NGOs:

During the last few decades, NGOs have grown in size and complexity, and they seem to be exerting increasing influence on the public policies, which have earned them tremendous importance especially in the developing world.

The main reasons, cite Heinz and Dev, are the 'market failure' and 'state failure' in meeting the basic needs of the majority of the population coupled with their inability to take state policies to the remote areas of the country (Bongartz and Dahal, 1996; 44). The state and market both failed to cope up with the problems of poverty, inequality, insecurity and powerlessness of people, destruction of the environment, and degradation of moral value, ethics and culture, and this created room for the NGOs to form a rapport between the donors and the needy people (Bongartz and Dahal, 1996; 45).

By the end of 1997, the number of registered NGOs were found to be to the tune of 25,000 in a survey (The Katmandu Post; Oct 19, 1997). Because of the positive results, the non-government sector has become an alternative to the government-led development process particularly in the rural areas (Shrestha, et al., 2003; 58). The best example being the NGOs' rapidly increasing numbers in savings and credits, and that these organizations exceeded the priority sector lending program of the government (Upadhaya, 1995)

Maskey presents five interrelated factors leading to the NGOs' increasing role 1) thought for justice in the economic system 2) NGOs recognized as a catalyst of development by international development agencies 3) to sustain development in catering the increasing poverty rate in Nepal. 4) Increased concern for promoting NGO programs in development by HMG/N and 5) South Asian Association for Regional Co-operation (SAARC) thrust to the empowerment of poor as prerequisite for poverty alleviation (Maskey, 1998; 1).

At the village level, there are generally the traditional ways of doing things and there needs to be an outside change agent to calculate their inertia by helping the community to realize its potential through education consciousness raising, provision for small loans and introduction of simple new technologies (Korten, 1990; 119). These relate to capability enhancement by upgrading skill, knowledge and attitude.

And obviously so, the recent role of NGOs has been to enable greater participation of the people in governance and development process (Korten, 1990; 121).

NGOs are becoming more and more active in pro-poor initiatives by providing services at the local, regional, and national levels, and, ironically, many HMG/N ministries engage NGOs in their poverty alleviation and community development programs (Enabling State program, 2001; 36), whose main thrust is the right participation in the activities.

NGOs are concerned over broader process of development and have a concern for people rather than projects and as a result training, awareness nurturing, capacity building, social organization and institutional development have become their major activities (Suresh et al., 1999; 88).

Writing in the context of NGOs, Sparrowhawk and Holden state that after the 1990s, the

introduction of multiparty democracy in the nation made it conducive for greater involvement of citizens and that it was better illustrated by the rise in number of these non-government-funded organizations working on the community, children, women, youth, health, disability, environment, education, AIDS and moral development issues (1999; 40). The number of such organizations in 1999 were 5,100, out of which 2,330 were directly related to community development (UNDP, 1998). The report also mentions that there is significant correlation between Human Development Index value and the total number of NGOs operating in an area.

The above co-relation of Human Development Index (HDI) and NGOs can also be made in terms of tourism. The Central Development Region has the highest HDI value of all the development regions in Nepal, and that it is 80 percent higher than Western and Mid-Western Development Regions where tourism has been limited (Sparrowhawk and Holden, 1999; 40). That the West, particularly Kaski District, has earned many economic benefits from tourism development including job creations and increased regional foreign exchange earnings (40). However, in some cases only 10 percent of the earnings is retained locally (Gurung and Coursey, 1994).

Because of tourism, there are diversification of the economy, infrastructure development, ecological awareness, and preservation of cultural monuments and properties (Sparrowhawk and Holden, 1999; 40), and tourism on its part encouraged training and education, facilities modernization, health and hygiene awareness (Singh, 1989), and as such skill, knowledge and behaviors are affected.

The positive results were mainly due to community involvement (Sparrowhawk and Holden, 1999; 40) and larger management responsibility to the local populations (Gurung and De Coursey, 1994). The NGO, Annapurna Conservation Area Project (ACAP) of the then King Mahendra Trust For Nature Conservation, involved skills and ability development apart from environmental issues (King Mahendra Trust for Nature Conservation, 1997).

2.2.15 The NGOs in Tourism

Sparrowhawk and Holden (1994; 41) also observe that Nepal can increase the number of tourists and open other newer areas and increase the country's revenue. The Nepal government

did intend it by introducing 'Visit Nepal Year 1998'. With such policies, opportunities to engage in activities would increase.

That the NGOs of various kinds do have a greater role of engagements in the field of tourism and the local individuals'/societies' interaction with it. It, therefore, must be encouraged as actors to capability enhancement. There is a need to develop methods, which will permit the local institutions through participation to reap the greater benefits from tourism that now is estimated to be as low as 10% (retained earnings) and having substantial leakage (Sparrowhawk and Holden 1994; 42).

Khadka, however, cautions that too many roles on NGOs may lead to dependence rather than the very theme of development advocacy itself (The Rising Nepal, 1997) and obliterate the very notion of civil society as a means to enhance human capability (Nepal Human Development Report, 1998). It is important to have sustainable tourism development "locally controlled" and resources distributed in a "collective" and "equitable fashion" in the improvement of quality of life of village people (Sparrowhawk and Holden, 1994; 42).

In countries like Nepal, governments can break through their financial constrains to encompass the larger rural population obligations by promoting the role of tourism-based NGOs in terms of education and training for local institutions (Sparrowhawk and Holden, 1994; 42).

The NGOs in their role of awareness building, training, lobbying and advocacy, also engage in collaboration with local groups in the tourism activity area to collect basic empirical facts on a variety of impacts. These sometimes contradict the governments' outlook and provide the basis for any NGO-assisted grassroots struggle against "imposed" tourism (or projects) (Suresh et al., 1999; 90). This will ensure that the grassroots are consulted in the process and their priorities and willingness cared for. After all, sustainable development explicitly or implicitly include individuals/groups/community participation as essential to the development process.

NGOs' role is also prominent to appraise the breach of carrying capacities of the area in concern. These agencies have helped identify the deleterious effects of visitors' activities in critical environments which as in Goa, India has exhibited a success story of local efforts in tourism sustainability (Singh, 1999; 92, 94).

The NGOs facilitate the interaction of groups from different cultural backgrounds and social classes by encouraging the application of the principles of autonomy, self-sufficiency and diversification to permit the communities in supporting and strengthening local institutions while implementing programs for steady flow of income and gainful employment (Barken and Pailles, 1999; 69-73).

CHAPTER III

ASPECTS OF TOURISM, POLICIES AND PRACTICES

World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) states that tourism is the largest industry in the world on economic measures, in terms of gross output, value added, capital investment, employment and tax contributions (Theobald, 1997; 3). Theobald writes that one of the major issues of tourism (some writers like to call it a "social phenomena of an experience, or a process, rather than tourism industry with a product or, production (Davidson 1997; 20) in terms of economic impact is the diversification on the one hand and fragmentation of the industry itself on the other (Theobald, 1997; 1).

Tourism had been reported by 1992 as being the largest industry employing highest number of people and thus its impacts on the destination areas and their residents and its future prospects have been raised as extremely critical issues (Theobald, 1997; 1).

3.1 Theoretical relevance:

On the impact study from tourism it seems to differ widely as per the perspectives and interpretations of different sectors, for example, within scholars (as economists, sociologists, cultural, anthropologist and geographers), government, international bodies and academicians. Theobald admits difficulty in comparing tourism and its contribution to the local, regional and global economics with other sectors of the economy on reliable database but he admits that the scholars in this field do recognize the interdependent nature of tourism (Theobald 1997; 17).

In the socio-cultural front, tourism does seem to have ample effect on archeology and preservation of ancient monuments and other heritages, although indirectly. Referring to Italian churches, Greek temples and Egyptian tombs, Edmund writes: "Then as they became aware of the value of their ruins, they began to care for and protect them," (Swinglehurst, 1997; 96).

While discussing about tourists' resident impacts, Philip talks of considerable researches done on economic, environmental and social effects of tourism. These in his view overlap and

should be seen as a set of interlocking envelopes" (Pearce, 1997)

Even if someone may see it in terms of social impacts of tourism, one does admit the tourist resident contact do have some clear-cut economic and environmental components, and thus the preceding impact research must encompass interconnected themes (Pearce, 1997)

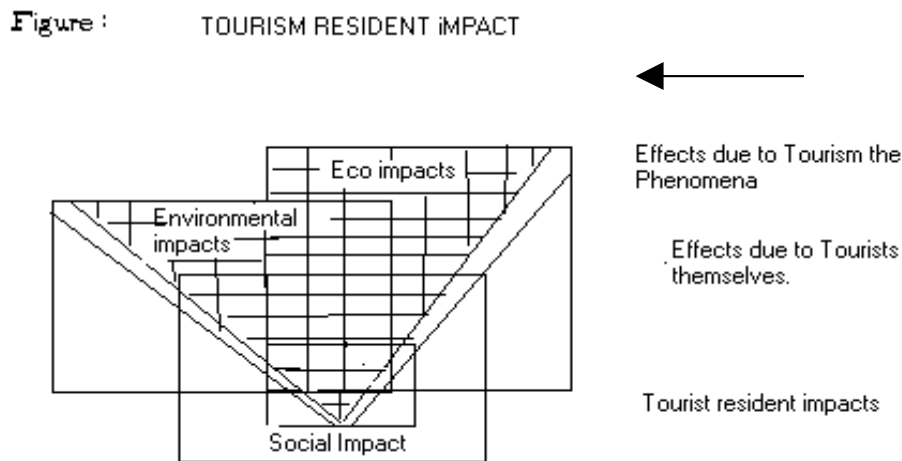
3.1.1 Tourism Resident Impact:

Tourism today has expanded and that it has moved from the domain of the rich visitors to the accessibility of the millions of the people to become a major social and economic force in the world (Goeldner, et al., 2000; 8).

It is observed that the tourism destinations as new economic generators are becoming more and more competitive to attract visitors and in the process replacing the activities in the traditional sectors (Goeldner et al., 2000; 412).

Tourism resident impact set within the framework of social, environmental and economic impacts of tourism and consisting of both broad tourism and specific tourists.

Figure 9: The Livelihood System



(Source: Pearce,1997)

The Environmental , Economic and Social clearly overlap and can be interpreted as a set of interwoven envelopes. Superimposed upon these boxes (environmental, economic and social) is the distinction between tourist and resident versus tourism phenomenon influencing resident

attitudes and feelings and so on (Pearce, 1997; 108).

Pearce (1997) does caution about the negative side of impacts and that these should not be ignored otherwise this may lead to some major economic and political repercussions, which may take the shape of loss of support for tourism promoters, unwillingness in tourism, no interest in promotion of tourism products, hostility toward tourists by overcharging, rudeness, apathy towards tourists and so on and "it will manifest as the complex web of community dissatisfaction" (109).

As these are undesirable for the future prospects of tourism and stakeholders' interactions, efforts should be made to understand the underlying interaction and effects (Pearce, 1997; 110). It is important to further note that such a situation as cited above will not be restricted to interpersonal level only but also extend to the stress of environmental degradation and infrastructure cost (110).

Tourism, suggests the author, should be viewed from four perspectives:

First, the tourists who seek various psychic and physical experiences and satisfactions, the nature of which will determine destinations and activities (tourists products as motivating factors) (Goeldner, et al. 2000; 8).

Second, the goods and services provided to them, to be seen as opportunity for business of making profits (interaction opportunities and encouragement to stakeholders).

Third, the host government which sees it as prospective incomes to their citizens within their jurisdictions including foreign exchange and tax, receipts (promotion factors).

And fourth, the host community (the local people), which sees it as cultural and employment factors and prospects from the effect of interactions (Goeldner et al. 2000; 14). These are the benefits from interactions in skill development, education, and behavioral changes.

Sometimes, the effect may not be beneficial but harmful. Therefore, in all of these the challenge is to set the favorable conditions by properly planning and managing in relation to the overall economic development and in the manner of sustainability. It will, however, be encouraging if a favorable situation exist in having the visitors and the host interact socially and

become better acquainted, which in terms will greatly increase awareness of each others' nature and qualities, building appreciation and respect. (Goeldner et al., 2000; 320). Such a condition would be compatible and yield benefits to both the sides.

Seen from the above parameters, in simple terms, tourism could be defined as the sum of the phenomena and relationship arising from the interaction of tourists, business suppliers, host governments, and host communities in the process of attracting tourists and other visitors (Goeldner et al. 2000; 14).

Tourism as a powerful economic force is the generator of economic impact for destination area by the way of visitors' expenditure and the resulting multiplier effects (412).

The writer indicates three goals of tourism:

- 4) Psychological experience maximization.
- 5) Profits from goods and services maximization and
- 6) Direct and indirect impacts maximization on a community or a region

(Goeldner et al. 2000; 418).

Multiplier effects from Tourism

It is further explained that the multiplier effect depend on the linkages among economic units such that money spent will have a link to economic units ranging from households to manufacturing plants (Goeldner et al., 2000; 420). The multiplier effect is the function of strength of linkages and it reflects the amount of new economic activity generated when the basic income circulates through the economy (420). The sectors with strong links to other sectors in an economy will realize larger multiplier effect and vice versa. It is said that there could be a thriving tourism industry in a region/ area but an abject poverty in the local population if there do not exist the appropriate links (420) for a particular region. Participation would be, in fact, number one required subject to release maximum effects at the various strata of society.

It is recommended that one uses all local labor eg. fruits, vegetables, flowers, eggs from local farmers, local entertainers, buy furnishings locally, so on and so forth. The linkages would

be weak if such things are done by importation (Goeldner, et al., 2000; 420), and therefore the total interaction and economy as a whole.

In addition to direct impacts, it is important to consider the indirect impacts. This comes into play as the visitors' spending circulates and re-circulates (426) and consequently the impact of the initial income derived from visitors' spending is usually greater than initial income itself, because it calculates the subsequent rounds of respending (427). Thus, greater the portion of income spent locally, greater will be the multiplier perspective and interactions.

It is explained that the degree to which a local destination is able to retain tourist income depends on how self-sufficient its economy is in being able to produce the goods or services the tourists would buy (Goeldner, et al. 2000; 427). It would follow that the more the tourist is going to spend in a given economy, more will be the multiplier (427). The multiplier should be seen in terms of income multiplier, employment multiplier and capital multiplier (427). For the present study's purpose, of all the important ones is the total/maximum interaction-led multiplier between the destination stake-actors and the visitors in all its terms. It would encompass all kinds of multiple chain of interactions due to tourists and their spending for hospitality and products offered by the hosts/ activists resulting in effects on the (local) capability.

It is said that when all rhetoric are given ways, two parameters remain to determine a tourism destination, a) competitiveness, and b) sustainability, and any one of these is not sufficient alone but are mutually supportive (Goeldner et al., 2000; 447). The former indicates being profitably able to compete and the latter means maintaining quality of its physical, social, cultural and environmental sources (447).

3.1.2 Destination Carrying Capacity

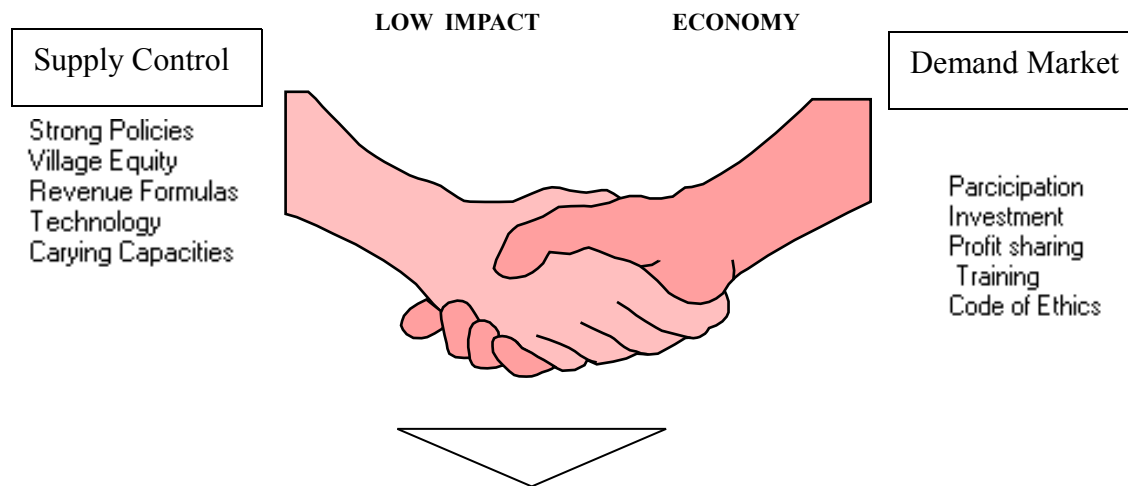
It is cautioned here that one should not look for the short-run profitability of depletion (Goeldner, et al, 2000; 448) of "natural capital" which one writer terms as "false appearance" of economic profitability (Starbrook, 1998; 105). It is to refrain from present consumption in order to restore capital stock renewable for the future (Prugh, 1995). These views refer to the sustainability of the activities for the long term in terms of the carrying capacity of the destination.

Starbrook cautions that the dominant transnational corporations in general may exploit the environment and local populations for short gains rather than conserving them under the band of sustainable development (Starbrook, 1999; 105). It brings into differentiating between social carrying capacities and the cultural carrying capacities (125) – the cultural capacity may be collapsed yet sustainable socially. It means that the values, beliefs and other (traditonal) cultural set-ups may be substantially affected, yet the society may be working for economic gains.

3.1.3 Low Impact tourism :

Scholars also take up topics of Low Impact Tourism. It is a supply-driven tourism activity having low impact on society and the environment as against the demand-driven, usually in the traditional system of tourism (Donald, 1991; 163). It is explicitly concerned with social impact, economic development and natural resource management of the host destinaion and places the control aspects on the destination country and not on the demand side of travel and tour operators (Donald, 1991; 163).

Fig 10: Developing Niche Tourism



- **Resident responsiveness**
- **Privatization**
- **Environmental Management**

- **Mandates**

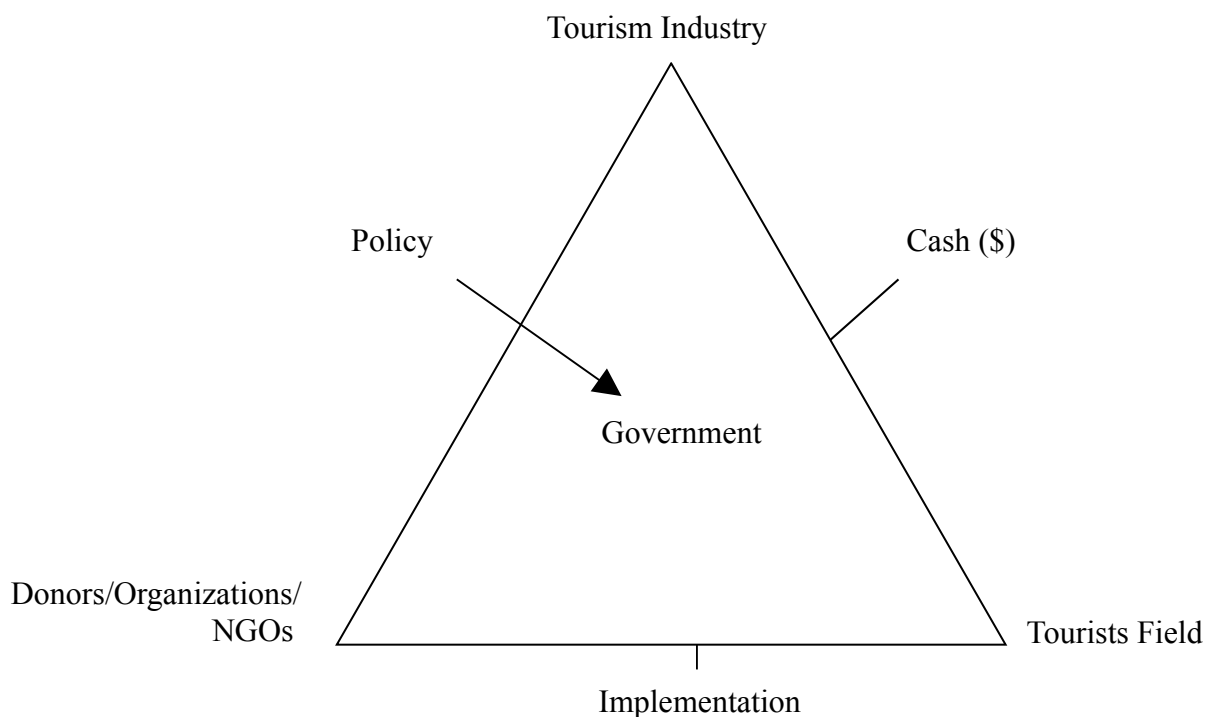
(Source: Adopted from Donald (1991; 163).)

It has been argued that low-impact tourism can be made sustainable by balancing carrying capacities of the host area in all its terms to that of the need of the tourists' satisfaction without injuring the in situ milieu of the host.

3.1.4 Collaborators in LIT:

It is also argued that the low-impact tourism provides a common point for the community development, conservation and the private initiative providing for a balanced role of tourists, tourism industry, donors, public organizations and the NGOs (Donald, 1991; 163).

Fig. 10: Collaborators in Low Impact Tourism Development



(Source: Donald, 1991; 164).

3.1.5 Characteristics of LIT:

The characteristics of LIT could be summarized as:

- Locally managed
- Provides quality tourism products and experiences
- Values culture
- Emphasizes on training
- Dependent on natural and cultural resources, and
- Integrates development and conservation concepts

(Donald 1991; 165)

3.1.6 The Benefits of LIT:

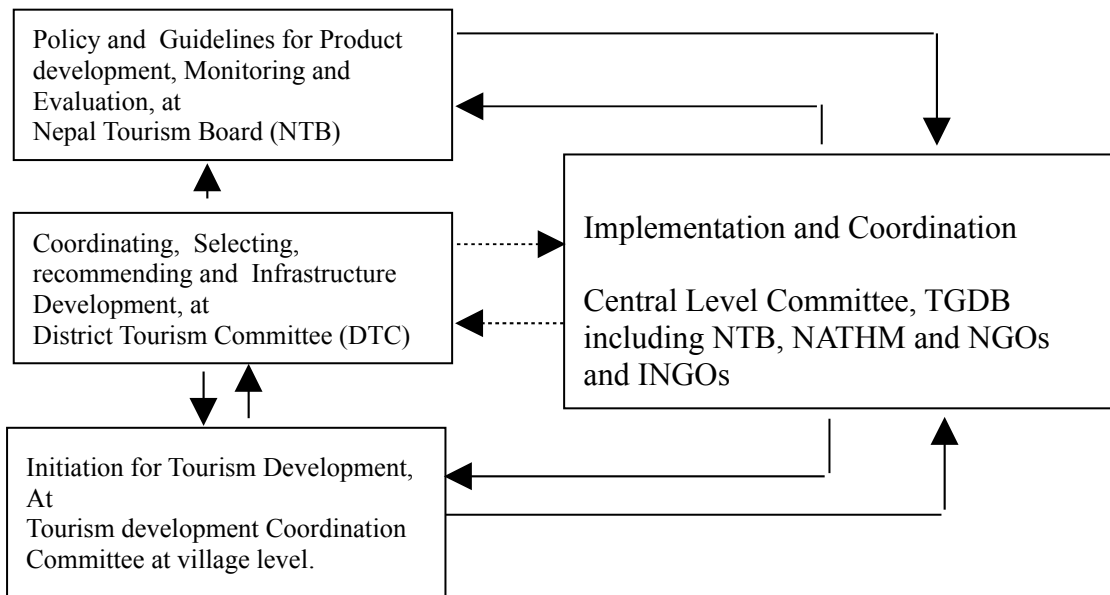
The benefits proposed from LIT are said to be easy control over impacts on the carrying capacity of natural resources and balance in perpetual sustainance for tourism because of the better share distribution of profits to private initiatives and development and training costs at the destination level (Donald, 1991; 165). It is income-generating and at the same time conserving and protecting the bad sides from visitors' increased flow (Donald, 1991; 165). In other words, providing sustainable interaction opportunities to the hosts at present and in the future.

3.1.7 Backward and Forward Linkages:

The handbook published by the Nepal Tourism Board (NTB) explains tourism activity in terms of establishing forward and backward linkages among various institutions at different levels for sustainability. Explaining as having a multifaceted and complex inter-relationship among the government, private sector and the local community, it recommends for a wide cross-section of people and communities being involved in the tourist product development activities (NTB; 2003)

Figure 11: Forward and Backward Linkages for Tourism

Product Development



Source: NTB (2001; 10).

The tourism component of the Ninth Development Plan (1997- 2002) identified to establish backward and forward linkages of tourism activities in the national economic context, in the process of poverty alleviation (Sharma, 2002; 236).

Understandably, tourism has become a development tool for many rural and more isolated regions to supplement traditional industries that are often on a decline (Donald and Jollife, 2003; 307).

3.1.8 *Community-Based Tourism:*

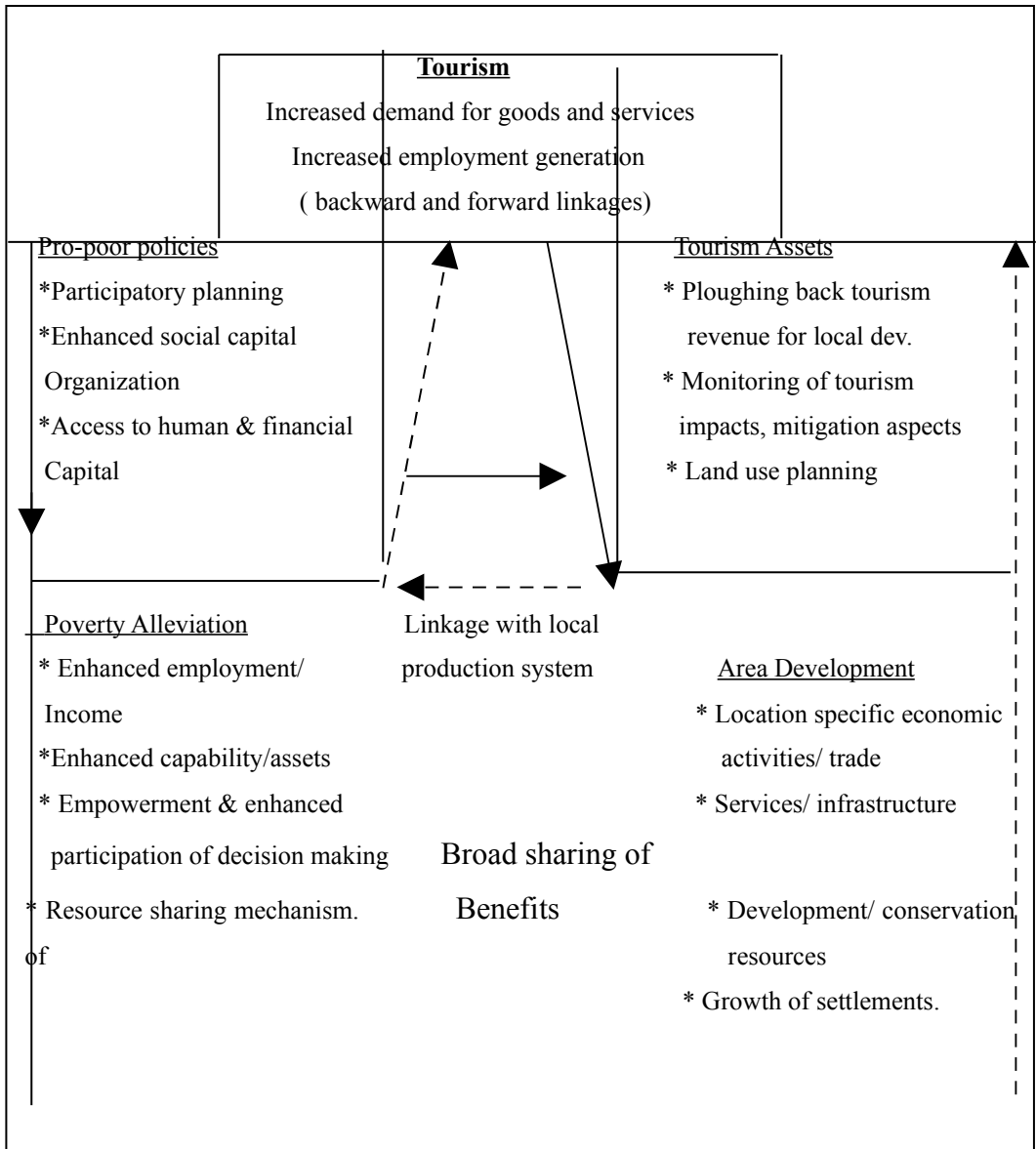
The NTB for a village-level Tourism Development Coordination Committee to understand and interpret the acceptance of the local communities and coordinate this with district tourism committee and through the district-level planning leading further to the coordination of the Nepal Tourism Board (NTB, 2001; 12). The Board outlines five factors as basic functions in materializing the community-based tourism, which are to:

- 7) Establish a local tourism development (coordination) committee,
- 8) Access product market match,

- 9) Enhance and market tourism products,
- 10) Create an awareness among tour operators, and, finally,
- 11) Become proactive.

Researchers explain that traditional industries like farming (in traditional way) seem less sustaining, and tourism is often looked for as another tool in creating jobs and uplift the standard of living (Flescher and Felsenstein, 2000; Hill, 1993). This suggests that the framework of rural culture that is well-preserved is a valuable resource to include community-based partnership such as cooperatives and community volunteers (Donald and Lee, 2000; 307) (and civil societies, associations and local governments) as the driving force. Such regions can develop through the use of local resources and cultural heritages (Lewis, 1999; 101). Also, it is important to note that integration of such alternatives will help to sustain local economies and encourage local development (Prohaska, 1995).

Figure 12: Poverty Alleviation and Area Development



(Source: Sharma, 2002; 226)

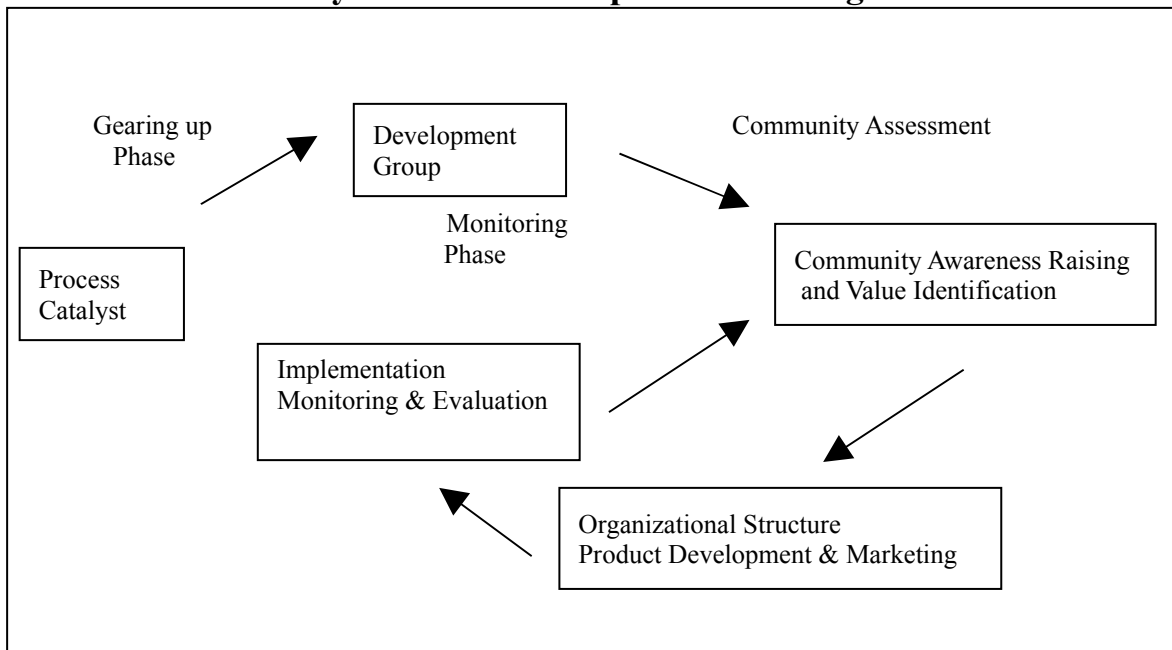
The above figure shows how tourism and proper policies could be integrated through the linkages with local production system, generating both for the poverty alleviation activities on the one hand and benefits on the other. This benefits being shared by the way of local area development.

It is observed that not only the area in concern gets the benefit from tourism but also the socio-economic development in the peripheral communities, which is shown by many studies

(Jollife and Baum, 1999).

The rural tourism requires cooperation among the communities' residents, organizations, and business probably involving partnerships between local and regional groups including national organizations and various local governments (Donald and Jollife, 1999; 310).

Figure 13: Community Tourism Model Development Planning Model:



(Source: Reid, et. al. 2004; 626.)

Studies about rural tourism have indicated clues, the communities volunteers as the driving force of any project undertaken (Jollife and Donald, 2000).

3.2 The Government of Nepal and the Policy Outlines on Tourism:

3.2.1 Tourism and Community Development Review:

Community Projects:

Analyzing the benefits of tourism-related community projects in the mountain region of Nepal, researchers have strongly argued in favor of community approaches that are not only directed toward empowerment of the local community and sustainable development but also

toward an increase of individuals' human capabilities (Sparrowhawk and Holden, 1999; 37).

It is argued that low level of surplus generation by the Nepalese economy makes it difficult for the government to finance socially-oriented and community-driven projects coupled with a decrease in the aid of lending OECD countries (Dahal, 1999), such projects have little choice but to become increasingly dependent on foreign financial sources (about 55 percent of all the development expenditure in case of Nepal) (UNDP, 1998). It is therefore plausible to look for alternative ways to replenish the aid requirement for sustainability of the local level institutions.

Writers are of the view that not only Nepal's foreign indebtedness but also for funding community projects, aiding human development in rural and isolated regions of the nation, tourism industry being the largest foreign currency earner in Nepal, about 33 percent of all foreign exchange (Sparrowhawk and Holden; 1999; 39), can be a good alternative for funding. Although in volume terms, tourism represents only three percent of the country's GDP (HMG/N, Ministry of finance, 1999).

The article cites the example of the 'Visit Nepal '98' program as also having this theme of rural development but cautions forth the negative side of the tourism as it may bring different kinds of environmental pollution including negative socio-cultural impacts and calls for the communities in being proactive in their participation (Sparrowhawk and Holden, 1999; 40).

3.2.2 Tourism and the Development Plans:

Nepal was forbidden and remote with limited access to the outer world until 1950, until almost the First National Development Plan (1955-60) when some infrastructure for tourism development were identified (consequently, for example, The Royal Nepal Airlines Corporation and the Department of Tourism were established) (NTB 2001; 16) in tourism business.

The Second Development Plan period (1962-65) witnessed regularizing tourism activities through legislation, construction of tourist-level hotels and establishing regular database (NTB, 2001; 16).

With the Third Development Plan (1966-70), the government committed itself to making a tourism master plan of 10 years perspective and led promotional activities for the hotels (NTB, 2001; 16).

For the Fourth (1970-75) and the Fifth (1975-80) Development Plans, it was mostly the following up of the recommendations of the tourism master plan relating mostly to air service extension (within and outside of the country), construction of roads, protection of wildlife and national parks, establishment of Hotel Management and Tourism Training Center, creation of the Ministry of Tourism in 1997, including the high-level Tourism Co-ordination Committee for promotion and development and review of the master plan (NTB, 2001; 16,17).

The Sixth (1980-1985) and the Seventh (1985-90) development plans mostly concentrated in the air transport sector links extension with the international destinations of Asia and Europe (NTB, 2001; 17). During this period under the advice of a World Bank expert (Mr. Touch Ross), tourism was extended to Western, Central and Eastern regions of the country (NTB, 2001; 17).

The Eighth Development Plan period (1992-97) witnessed a high-level Tourism Council, chaired by the Prime Minister, and the Everest Pollution Control Board (NTB, 2001; 17). This plan also had in its policy to expand the activities to other areas to ease the over concentration of tourism activities in a few limited areas. It was for the first time spelt out to relate tourism to improving people's standard of living, reducing the level of poverty and increasing the employment opportunities as also to have a close coordination links with other sectors of the national economy (17, 18). It was during this period that the private domestic airlines appeared (18).

Tourism policy in the period of 1995 showed concerns, with the extension of tourism activities to rural areas for employment, foreign currency and regional balance (18).

The Ninth Development Plan (1997- 2002) expressed more of the private sector role and left the government limited to only a catalytic partner for the infrastructure development, but the major policy emphasis was same as it was for the Eighth Development Plan (i.e., on employment, foreign exchange and regional balance) (NTB, 2001; 19). This plan period developed the concept of model Village Tourism (for the five different regions), which hoped to generate income, employment and diversification, and have a direct effect on the local economies without harming the environment (20).

The Tenth Five Year Plan (2002 – 2006) was principally improvised based on the Ninth Plan feedback. It had the following objectives:

- c. To develop tourism sector qualitatively and sustainably.
- d. To conserve, preserve and maintain the historical, cultural, and religious resources and increase its practical use.
- e. To improve, standardize and make air transport services easily accessible and affordable.

The policy on tourism as such related to infrastructure development, upgrading of service qualities, extension of markets, extended involvement of local bodies, tourism extension to newer and rural areas, community participation and tourism product development, being competitive, promotion of internal and neighboring (countries) tourism, tourism security, human resource development, publicity, immigration facilities, and qualitative and uniqueness promotions and so on.

The Tenth Plan identified tourism challenges as the political instability leading to strikes, people's movements, lack of publicity, lack of destinations, pollutions and tourists dealing less foreign currency (Gurung, 2006; 147,148).

3.2.3 Tourism for Poverty Alleviation Project (TRPAP).

Although theoretically discussed before as the forward and backward linkages of the tourism activities, it is worth being acquainted with this concept further.

The TRPAP, started in March 2001, is said to contribute to poverty reduction through policy and strategic planning for sustainable tourism, which will be pro-poor, pro-environment, pro-women and pro-rural communities (TRPAP, 2000).

Three major components, namely a) empowerment, social mobilization b) strengthening backward and forward linkages, and c) creation of sustainable tourism platforms, constitute the components of TRPAP with the focus on poverty alleviation, decentralization and tourism development (Sharma, 2002; 237). It is amply clear that tourism recognizes the role out of local participation and its positive effect on the local capability.

The social mobilization aspect referred to allowing villagers to participate in the contribution (of services) and share in the tourism, the second aspects related to products and services that the communities could provide and sell (a multiplier effect) encouraging social

mobilization, local business planning and skill developments as backward linkages and developing linkages with national and international bodies by way of marketing, as the forward linkages (Sharma, 2002; 237).

Sharma in his concluding remarks does recommend having conditions of increased local-tourists interaction and thus the public policy option of tourism development (239).

3.2.4 Hub and Sub-hub Centers:

The Nepal Tourism Board (NTB) has suggested developing a model as Hub and Sub-hub centers (the focus base of tourists' destination) serving places for easy access to different regions of the country (NTB, 2000; 23). The Nepalese government's recent policy on tourism sees this sector for diversification to other new sectors, addressing issues of rural community participation, private sectors involvement and harnessing of the linkages with other sectors of the economy of the country (NTB, 2001; 22).

3.3 Concluding Remarks:

Understandably, one is concerned primarily with human and the human qualities and the related aspects that tourism would affect. Therefore, all that matters to us are the activities, or explanations, that try to explain the human factor and the human in a working dynamics. It seems plausible that as a social science student one should be considerate to many approaches from the perspective of respective disciplines that like to express human development within it encompassing human resource development as a means and as an end objective. For this reason, the researcher has tried to take modification in the human side of development as part of human resource development in its broadest sense, keeping in mind the contemporary social science development models and explanations of different social disciplines.

Particularly, it is presented with those views that have connection with the participation or involvement in the activity as a part of interaction at the individual (unit) and community, group, and organizational levels. The researcher has also tried to consider social theories, empirical studies and explanations from different social disciplines including tourism that seem concerned and interested in the development of societies/individuals preferably through interaction

(participation at the field level).

Interestingly, even though the study considers tourism as the field of interaction with the local stakeholders, the hypothesis of interaction leading to capacity enhancement (HRD function) could hold true in all the kinds of environments having changed/newer activities. As such any field, be that agriculture, economics, health, HRD or the development projects of any kind, would thus be a valid case.

These are the fields where the government alongside donor agencies seems busy prioritizing one or another projects for investments as part of their development and poverty reduction endeavors. The functions to be discharged call greater ramification in terms of different scarce resources, always putting the government under stress. Context of development if it were to be done in other activities areas than tourism, the government would have to flow comparatively highly larger public funds.

While in interaction, this research needs to find out whether it (automatically) serves to the stakeholders as a way of training component in skill development, educating oneself as one develops to know more leading to wider knowledge and accommodating behavioral changes through alterations in attitude, beliefs, values, and so on.

The researcher also tries to see for the adopting and compatible approaches with different social science concepts and try to sort out common points of their view towards human as the (social) unit which these disciplines individually have tried to express in their own ways for its development within it and without.

Minimum Common Approach

HRD, which can be identified as a common explanation for all the development related concepts/models seen in terms of capability enhancement, which supposedly constituted with the three aspects ... the skill, the understanding (knowledge), and attitudinal changes can be clearly considered as the (minimum) common views. Some directly, others indirectly, and still others promoting or trying to explain the end results. “Capability” enhancement for development remains the commonly accepted concept among the social scientists. The table below may summarize.

Different Schools/ models	Focus	Process	Common Means/ Objective	Final Output
Development models Institution development Empowerment, self help Participatory models etc. Community development Capability development Social capital Human development Human resource development Tourism models and practices	Units at the local level (individual, groups/ organizations/ community units)	(Motivated) Optimum participation at all levels of activities (multiple chain of activities) -Interventions limited to being just a catalytic agent	Overall capability Development (and to realize opportunities), through a) Skill development b) Knowledge expansion c) Attitudinal adoptability (Behavioral change)	- Self esteem - Higher output - Sustenance

It is understandable that social science research may not produce the results that are like physical sciences in the strict sense. As such many social science researches lead us to some generalized results that may not be like watertight compartments and therefore should be understood as probably happening in the way the research aggregates. It is in this light that the present thesis in some way needs to be analyzed. The researcher here tries to compromise for the minimum common concept among the many social science theories developed in today's contemporary world. In other words, the above table gives a kind of concluding remarks over the review chapter above and explores whether this conclusion is findable from the field data analysis.

It is rightly remarked by Galagan for the human resource development “an omnivorous

discipline, incorporating over the years almost any theory or practice that would serve the goal of learning in the context of work. Like an amoeba, it has ingested and taken nourishment from whatever it deemed expedient in the social and behavioral sciences, in learning theory and business” (1986; 4).

It is commonly explained as minimum accepted in the sense that such an approach will keep away itself from the scholarly debates of interference in the respective domain.

CHAPTER IV

THE STUDY AREA

4.1 Background

The location of the present study, popularly known as the Annapurna Sanctuary area trekking route, has in it the prominent villages of Ghandruk, Ghorepani, Landruk and Birethanti as the major settlements. However, there are also other smaller villages and cluster establishments along the trekking route, which include Chipledhunga, Tadapani, Kimrong, Chomrong, Bamboo, Himalaya, Deurali, Machhapuchre Base Camp, Annapurna Base Camp, New Bridge, Potana, Dampus, Australian Camp, Banthanti and Saulibazar.

The study area is situated northwest from the city of Pokhara. Even though there are several points of departure for trekkers to start their journey, Phedi and Nayapul, about twenty minutes and forty five minutes drive West from Pokhara respectively, are the most popular ones. The number of hotels/restaurants in the whole area has been estimated to be 213 in total for the study purpose.

The number of tourists visiting the Annapurna Area being the highest compared with other regions, the easier accessibility to the area because of relatively shorter distance and availability of mode of transportation for frequent visits were the major reasons for choosing the present study area. Apart from these, the researcher also has quite some experience of this area from his frequent visits with foreign nationals for a number of years.

4.2 Population Mix

In general, the area east of the Ghorepni settlement mostly consists of the Gurung ethnic group. Ghorepani and its west areas mostly consist of the Magar communities. Other communities are equally settled around with also major settlements especially towards the lower Southern fields.

4.3 Common Occupation

The basis of almost all the people from all the communities in terms of occupation is agriculture and they are therefore engaged mostly in livestock and agricultural activities. However, around the route of trekking of the Nayapul/Ghorepani and Nayapul/Ghandruk and that towards the Annapurna Sanctuary (Annapurna Base Camp) and towards Landruk to Dampus and Phedi area, a number of establishments like tourist hotels/lodges and restaurants for the trekkers have been established. Alongside are also introduced supply shops and other curio items. These establishments to some seem supplementary family jobs while to others full time management engagements employing paid staff in various numbers.

4.4 The Tourism Scenario

The 2006 year recorded a total of 383,926 tourists who entered Nepal on various purposes. This was an increase of 2.3 percent over the previous year.

The majority of tourists visiting Nepal were from Japan (5.8%), UK (5.9%), USA (5.2%), People's Republic of China (4.4%), France (3.7%) and Germany (3.7%). The overseas tourists recorded a four percent rise over 2005.

Out of the above figure, a total of 66,931 trekkers registered for the programme. Out of this, a total of 37,900, that is 56.6 percent, more than half of the total trekkers all over the country, visited the Annapurna area. This is quite significant in terms of numbers as the cases built would have sufficient data compared to Everest region, which accounted for only 30.9 percent.

4.5 Purpose and Length of Stay of the Tourists:

The largest numbers – 38 percent – were for recreational purpose. The trekking tourists (adventure tourists) stayed the longest on average in the country, 10.2 days.

If we go through the statistics of tourists' arrival by months, we find that the season between the months of September and November saw the most number of tourists among all other months and seasons, which is why the primary data collection for this study in 2006 was conducted during these months.

4.6 English as Major Language

The study conducted included English language proficiency as one measuring unit of skill development component. This was done because majority of the foreign nationals visiting the area required English as the major lingua franca.

4.7 The ACAP

Annapurna Conservation Area Project (ACAP) of the then King Mahendra Trust for Nature Conservation (now, Trust for Nature Conservation) is the most engaged non-governmental agency with the responsibility of different socio-economic activities in line with nature conservation. It was formed in 1986. It occupies the relief of more than 7,600 square km (NTB bulletin, 2006), much more beyond the limits of the present study area. It also regulates the tourists' activities and provides trekking permits in the whole area.

4.8 The Best Trail

In fact, this conservation area, which includes the different sectors of the massif range of the Mount Annapurna, has one of the world's best trekking trails and covers the districts of Kaski, Mustang, Manang and Lamjung. It starts from a mere 750 meters (the level of rice fields) to a gigantic altitude of more than 8,000 meters (NTB bulletin, 2006) (passing through shrubs of alpine regions to mere snows), and in some trail to plateau deserts.

CHAPTER V

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

5.1 General Design

The general design of the present study is descriptive. It aims to access the opinions and characters of the given population and try to illustrate the situation at present. It tries to establish relation between interaction and capability in terms of skill, knowledge and attitudinal modifications. It is qualitative as well as quantitative.

5.2 Nature and type of Data

The study used both secondary and primary data. Secondary data has been extensively looked for from different sources to arrive at reliable conclusions for the study. Office records of related organizations, published, unpublished information, planning documents and other relevant information sources have also been looked for. Primary data have been collected from the field survey, observation and life history to minimize the error factors and maximize the reliability of descriptions and testing. The beneficiaries, different center/ local government and non-government organizations, their officials, private sector personnel and policy level executives, intellectuals, scholars particularly those specializing in the study related field have also been expected as the primary information source.

The quality of data and its reliability have been especially taken care of as the researcher himself did the interviews, filling the questionnaire forms and other related activities while in the field. The quantity and quality of information collections are in their best manifesting. The primary and secondary source of the secondary data have been clearly presented to authenticate the source. Secondary sources mainly included research publications, books/journals and articles and so on from different scholars, the government and its departments, societies/boards like Annapurna Area Conservation, Tourism Development Board from time to time have also been indicated.

Other sources included consultations with and opinion of people/experts from varied walks of life and so on including the long time experience of the researcher himself in the tourism field.

Selection of the Study Area

For the study, the region of Ghandruk, comprising of the three villages namely: 1. Ghandruk 2. Lhandruk and 3. Chomrong villages in the Kaski District of Gandaki Zone had been considered initially. Those destinations had been considered in terms of the flow of tourists and the composition of the village population (see Study Location in Book Review chapter). Considerations have also been made on the basis of similarities in the type of visitors, regularity (non-interruption) in their flow, accessibility to data collections, representative sample size and comparative analysis and so on. Basic factor in the study, in fact, is the interaction as against non-interaction in terms of changes in local institutions' capability.

The study area used is termed as the Ghandruk/Ghorepani area. It consists of the establishments along side the route from Nayapul to Birethanti towards Chiple Dhunga to Ghorepani. From Ghorepani via Banthanti and Tadapani towards Chomrong village to the Annapurna Base Camp. Back, from Chomrong towards Ghandruk village via Kimrong Khola. Also, from Chomrong towards Landruk via Newbridge. Towards Ghandruk route would include all the establishments up to Birethanti. The bifurcated route to Landruk leading towards Potana and Deurali, to Dampus and Phedi. From Deurali also towards Lumle via Australian camp (a route map will be included for all).

5.3 Description of Population

The study population includes both the genders within any working staff category or field workers. As the population for the research included hotel owners, hotel workers and trekking field staff, counting of all the hotels in the field area which included all the hotels, restaurants and lodges of the area of Ghandruk (especially related to Annapurna Sanctuary trekking route area within Annapurna Conservation Area administration of the then King Mahendra Trust for Nature Conservation. Thus the respondents included the hotel (establishments) owners, hotel

workers in one category and the field trekking staff in the other. The field study time frame has been established as mid-September to mid-December, 2006.

The total number of units of such hotel-like establishments stood as 213 when counted by the researcher and reconfirmed by the Annapurna Area Conservation informally, including many hotel and trekking staff en route. This establishes the population of the hotel owners too, one of the three respondents categories, as 213. For the present study purpose, however, this figure has been considered 200 only for easy computations. Out of this number, 25 percent (that is 53 establishments) have been considered for the research sample size in case of the hotel owners.

Two persons on average are considered as the minimum bottom number in an establishment, even though some of the units of immobile of greater capacity had much higher numbers of staff (around 10) while some others had none as paid staff. Likewise, the hotel workers population would be 426 (on the basis of 213), considered 400 only for the present study (on the basis of 200 establishments).

In case of trekking staff, however, the population was difficult to establish. This figure is always changing and depends on, for example, numbers, types, and size of tourists packages.

A total of 120 trekking staff were formally approached to respond to the set of questions, some others informally observed and discussed while they were dealing with the activities concerned and en route walking. The sample size of the trekking staff thus considered were those that the researcher possibly could engage with them in any establishment and en route.

5.4 Area-wise hotels/lodges

During the field trip, the researcher physically counted the clusters of hotel/ lodges or the establishments meant for basically the tourists at different area centers. The figures was later tallied in discussions with local people and trekking staff and also the information received from some secondary sources.

Birethanti - 15

Tikhedunga - 13

Ulleri - 7
Up to Ghorepani - 35
Up to Tadapani - 20
Up to Chomrung - 16
Up to Bamboo - 12
Up to Dovan - 4
Up to Deurali - 5
MBC and ABC - 6
Bhaise Kharka / Kimrung Khola/
Kimrung Danda - 13
Around Ghandrung - 20
Up to Landrung - 10
Up to Tolka/ Deurali - 13
Up to Potana/ Dampus - 10
Australian Camp - 4
Jhinuwa around – 9
(A total of approximately 213)

5.5 Sampling Design:

The population of the study area initially stipulated (which was in and around Ghandruk village) could not provide enough size; it had to be elaborated to include a much wider section as explained in the research field area above.

The sampling designs used in case of the hotel owners could be termed as clustered sampling initially and then systematic sampling.

Also, for the hotel workers it was initially like above clustered sampling and then systematic sampling.

In case of field trekking staff, it was difficult to get respondents at one place and they had to be generally contacted only in the evening retiring time when not in activities. Thus the sampling design chosen here was rather accidental (as who ever was met) and convenient sampling method.

5.6 Sampling Technique/Process:

In case of hotel owners, the size of the population considered is 213, as mentioned earlier. Out of this, 25 percent were included in the sample, which would make their number 53. This number was considered the sample size for the interview for the primary data.

In case of the hotel staff, it was taken as a minimum of two senior workers on an average per hotel and the like establishments. Sometimes it had to be only one if there was only one worker besides the owner himself and in yet other times, there were none of the paid workers but the family members only.

As the hotel staff for the 200 (and 13) hotels in all stood as 400, 25 percent of this figure, 100, remained as the research sample size.

The case for the trekking staff remained limited to those who could be contacted and interviewed during the field study visit period. A total of 120 trekking staff could be met and interviewed.

The questionnaire was administered to the trekking staff in the establishments while retiring for the day and on the trail with those who walked and rested alongside the researcher. The process provided the respondents as well as the researcher a convenient way to avail responses. The census thus represents those trekking staff who were in the field during the field trip.

However, in case of hotel owners and hotel workers, the data collection (through questionnaire and discussion) was done in and around the establishments they belonged to. The

session with each respondent took on average 35 to 45 minutes.

5.7 Field Sample Selection:

The selection of the sample of the respective respondents group was carried out in the following manners.

The Field Trekking Staff:

The questionnaire was administered to the trekking staff while on the trails, seeking responses with those who walked and rested in lodges along with the researcher. The process provided them as well as the researcher a convenient way to avail responses in a usual chatting manner. The census thus represents those trekking staff who were trekking towards the field area during the field duration of three months (August through November). Thus the sample included in the research could be considered accidental or convenient sampling. The sampling method adopted in general was non-random.

Hotel owner:

The respondents in this case were selected on the basis of cluster sampling and then systematic sampling. A total of 213 hotels in the study area were counted. Twenty five percent of this number were considered as the sample size, making it about 53 in total. This category was randomly sampled.

Hotel workers:

On an average, most of the hotels/lodges were calculated to have given employment to two paid workers at the minimum. But where workers numbered fewer than two, only one was considered for the response. Thus the average came down from count 426 to 400. In noticeable cases, there were only owners (ladies being active) working with no paid assistants. In some comparatively bigger hotels, there were as many as eight working staff. Responses were sought from senior staff as far as possible to seek the reliability in the data. Twenty-five percent of the total sample size of 400 would make it count 100 as the sample respondents and the method of selection thus was cluster and systematic sampling as before.

5.8 Sample Size:

The sample size for the hotel owners is considered as 25 percent of the total estimated 213, which turns out to be 53.

The sample size for those working in the hotels are also computed as 200 (and 13) multiplied by two persons on average per establishment; thus, numbering 400. Twenty-five percent of this figure, 100, were considered for the sample size.

The sample size for the trekking staff stands at 120. In all the cases, the sample specimen includes both the male and female genders.

For Survey:

Respondents	Population	Sample Size
Trekking Staff	Not counted	120
Hotel Owner	213	53
Hotel Worker	400	100
Total	$(120 + 613) = 733$	273

For Case Study:

Case History	Observations	Discussions
2	8	9

5.9 Respondents' Profile:

The table below provides for the type and nature of the three categories of the respondents, which include hotel owners, hotel workers and the field trekking staff, all-inclusive.

Table 1 : Respondents' Classification

1. Age group	18 - 22	22 - 26	26 - 30	30 +
	33, 12%	98, 36%	101, 37%	41, 15%
2. Education	1 - 3	4 - 7	8 - 10	11 +
	16, 6%	22, 8%	186, 68%	49, 18%
3. No. of years in tourism	1 - 3	3 - 6	6 - 9	9 +
	41, 15%	120, 44%	60, 22%	52, 19%
4. Orientation prior to job	Rural	Semi - urban	Urban	
	213, 78%	42, 15%	18, 7%	
5. Motivating factor	Voluntary	Involuntary		
	259, 94%	14, 6%		
6. Sex/ Gender	Male	Female		
	220, 81%	53, 19%		

5.10 Data Collection Method:

The data collection methods used 1) the Survey method, and 2) The Case Study method. The survey used the structured interview method with use of interview schedule as the tool of data collection.

In the case study method, in-depth interviews, participant observation and discussion methods were used as the process for collecting data.

5.11 Data Analysis Process:

The collected data were categorized into the following headings:

- a) Interaction and Skill Change
- b) Interaction and Knowledge Change
- c) Interaction and Attitude Change

In the first category, there were six questions relating to job handling skill. In the second category, there were 12 questions relating to knowledge development from job interaction. The third category, which related to interaction and attitudinal change, had eight questions. All those questions have varied elaborations.

The collected data (descriptive) were then tabulated, analyzed and interpreted. Thus tables, figures, graphs, statistical methods like percentages, ratios and so on have been appropriately used for analysis and deductions. Computer software and calculators have also been used where needed.

CHAPTER VI

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

6.1 Background

The questionnaire was developed to seek the views of the respondents of the study area mainly on three key topics, which were i) job handling skill, mainly to assess and analyze the views on the changes being brought about by being introduced to tourism jobs, ii) changes in knowledge/understanding about the job and its related aspects, and iii) changes in attitudinal aspects encouraged by the field of tourism as a cause.

Questions one to six in the questionnaire dealt with issues of skill aspects for change. Questions seven to 18 pertained to knowledge/understanding aspects and 18 onwards till 26 related to attitudinal changes. The questions may not have been necessarily exclusive. It is important to note that while one question amongst many is related to one research question, many others may relate to more of others. Thus the answers may present overlapping interpretations, but nonetheless valid.

In almost all the cases, the data presented in the table show significant differences that make it easy to interpret them even without the use of the advanced statistical tools. These are supported, of course, also by statistical calculations to bring out authentic pictures. Some observations, case studies, discussions and experiences of the researcher are also presented to support the validation of data. This will have a separate section as Chapter VII.

Interaction and Skill:

6.2 Job Handling Skill:

Questions were asked to 53 hotel owners about how they rated the job performance now after being introduced into tourism activities as opposed to before on a scale of one to 10. The questions were on the jobs they handled as the owner of the hotel (e.g. overall supervision, food

management, room management and sanitation/hygiene).

6.2.1. Comparative Performance Rating by Local Hotel Owners.

Respondents' views (as shown in Table 2) shows a significant change brought about by their entrance into the tourism field. The mean score before the job column shows number 1.73, which means that they did not have enough skill on the job handling before they took up tourism. A mean score of 8.4 for the post-tourism condition shows a significant difference of 6.67 in skill handling after entering tourism. The big rating difference between the condition before and now shows that indeed the interaction do show the difference.

Table 2: Comparative Performance Rating by Local Hotel Owners.

Job titles	Average score (rating- 1 to 10), n = 53		Difference
	Before Job	At Present	
1) Overall supervision	1.50	9.01	7.51
2) Food mgmnt.	1.32	8.10	6.79
3) Room mgmnt	2.08	8.70	6.62
4) Sanitation/ hygiene	2.00	7.79	5.79
5) Mean Score	1.73	8.4	6.67

The Case 3 below for the hotel workers, shown in Table 3, also shows the comparative views of the respondents of this category before entering the tourism job and at present. It shows that the skill level was at 2.28 at the beginning, and after working in the job in tourism it improved greatly to a point level of 8.1. A difference of 6.82 is quite significant and suggest that the interaction in a given job situation plays an effective role.

6.2.1 Comparative Performance Rating by Local Hotel Workers.

Table 3 Comparative Performance Rating by Local Hotel Workers

Job titles	Average score (rating- 1 to 10), n= 100		Difference
	Before Job	At Present	
Overall activities of their line	2.28	8.10	6.82

Note: n = sample size (= 100)

6.2.3 Comparative Performance Rating by Field Trekking Staff.

The Case 4, related to the field trekking staff, similar to above results, shows tourism job resulted in a skill rating increase of 5.82 (Table 4 below). This difference is quite significant in terms of interaction because of the job.

Table 4: Comparative Performance Rating by Field Trekking Staff.

Job titles	Average score (rating- 1 to 5), n= 120		Difference
	Before Job	At Present	
Overall activities of their line	2.98	7.90	5.82

Averaging Table 2, 3 and 4 in this last table, shows that the average rating difference between before tourism job and now is 5.8, which again shows the significance of interaction.

6.2.4 Combined Case Analysis

Table 5: Combined Case Analysis

	Before the job average	After the job	Difference
Average rating	2.33	8.13	5.8

Responses to question one to five show overwhelming support to the basic objectives of interaction leading to capability change. Questions three and six are especially related to the promotion of interaction in the tourism job in the skill enhancement.

A difference of the count 5.8 in the average score table of question number one confirms such an interpretation of the effect on local capability.

6.2.5 *The Extent of Change in Job Handling:*

The second stage in job handling was to see the changes as very high, high or low categories of opinions of the respondents. There were columns of very low and no change, but these were omitted as they did not receive any responses.

The table six shows that out of 273 total respondents from among 53 hotel owners, 100 hotel workers and 120 trekking (field) staff, an overwhelming majority of the respondents 193 (71 percent) responded in the very high column, followed by 23 percent in the high and only seven percent in the low columns. This makes the picture amply clear that the extent of change due to job handling is directly related to the involvement in the activities. That is to say, the more the interaction with the job activities, the more the skill development. If we combine the former two columns, the extent of change in the skill will be staggeringly high, 94 percent mark.

Table 6: Extent of Change in job handling.

Respondents	Extent of change			Total
	V. high	High	Low	
Hotel owners	35 (66%)	12(22%)	6 (12%)	53
Hotel workers	75(75%)	20(20%)	5 (5%)	100
Trekking staff	83(69%)	32(27%)	5 (4%)	120
Total	193(71%)	64(23%)	16 (7%)	273

Some hotel owners felt that the interaction with tourists has not contributed so much in job handling (12 percent against five percent and four percent). The people who answered in such a way could probably have worked for a long period with his/her owner parents or seniors from their early years and thus could not see the interaction changes as the people in the other two categories. The not-much-change scenario does not pose any significance in the overall situation.

What can be inferred is that there is a realization of very high extent of change in skill development due to work in the tourism field as against no change reported by the respondents. Interaction's effects for skill changes are amply verified.

6.2.6 Conditions for Improving Job Performances:

To see whether or not independent interaction produced a different level of changes against controlled or sufficiently regulated control, a set of questions was developed to measure changes under strict control, general control and autonomy for all the three categories of respondents, as shown in Table 7 below.

Table 7: Conditions for Improving Job Performances:

Respondents	Job situation			Total
	Strict control	General control	Autonomy	
Hotel owners	13 (25%)	18 (34%)	22 (42%)	53
Hotel workers	9 (9%)	41 (41%)	50 (50 %)	100
Trekking staff	10 (8%)	32 (27%)	78 (65%)	120

The average score for all the three respondents marked in the strict control category 12 percent (with the exception of hotel owners having 25 percent, against the other two with nine percent and eight percent), general control 33 percent and autonomy category with 55 percent. The general interpretations of the table does explain that strict control situation for learning and better job doing is much less preferred than the other two categories. The most preferred is the autonomy situation. Some hotel owners (25 percent) did prefer strict control for the job learning. This is probably because they preferred strict control to be adhered to by the paid staff. Interestingly, within the hotel workers and trekking staff, strict control pictured somewhat similar, but in the other two categories trekking staff preferred more autonomy situation than the hotel staff, 65 percent against 50 percent. This seeming difference is probably due to the nature of the job they handled.

In relation to promoting interaction in the job situation, it shows that autonomy in the job handling as highly important against strict control. This among others shows that more people like to work freely (55 percent), given the responsibility they would like to use their talents in the job activities. General control is also favored by respondents (about 33 percent), strict control only liked by a few (12 percent). This provides us the idea that in promotion of interaction, free

working environment, or less interference, would be preferred.

6.2.7 Necessity of Foreign Language in the Job Situation.

An overwhelming majority of the respondents (81 percent) of all the three categories marked foreign language in the job situation in the highly necessary category. Only 16 percent and three percent stood in the necessary and slightly necessary categories. None of the respondents said foreign language was not necessary in the job situation; therefore, the column was removed.

Table 8: Necessity of foreign (English) language in the job situation.

Respondents	Necessary situation			Total
	Highly necessary	Necessary	Slightly necessary	
Hotel owners	45 (85%)	7 (13%)	2 (4%)	53
Hotel workers	88 (88%)	8 (8%)	4 (4%)	100
Trekking staff	89 (74%)	29 (24%)	2 (2%)	120
Total	222(81%)	44 (16%)	8 (3%)	273

Foreign language, especially English, is considered an integral part of a job in the tourism sector and as such a question was developed to see whether the respondents had a different opinion about this.

This result, as presented in the table, supports the idea that a communication skill through foreign (English) language is highly important in the conduct of business. The fact that more the command of the language, the higher the interaction and, therefore, the higher the capacity enhancement, has been amply illustrated.

6.2.8 Language Improvement due to Job Condition:

As a supplement, the opinions of respondents were sought about the need to improve foreign language for the job situation in tourism. It was to see the change, if any, due to interaction. Among the categories of highly improved, improved and slightly improved (not improved being struck off as it had no response), a big majority, 78 percent, of overall

respondents said highly improved. Only 18 percent and four percent of the respondents said improved and slightly improved, respectively. This shows that interaction in tourism within the respondents' job situation involving a variety of activities does produce high results. Considering the two categories, hotel workers and trekking staff, the former has slightly higher (83 percent) in highly improved category as against 71 percent of the latter. Twenty six percent of the trekking staff said language improved compared with 12 percent of the hotel workers.

Table 9: Language Improvement due to Job Condition.

Respondents	Language Improvement Level			Total
	Highly improved	Improved	Slightly improved	
Hotel owners	44 (83%)	6 (11%)	3 (6%)	53
Hotel workers	83 (83%)	12 (12%)	5 (5%)	100
Trekking staff	85 (71%)	31 (26%)	4 (3%)	120
Total	212 (78%)	49 (18%)	12 (4%)	273

6.2.9 Mode Leading to Foreign Language Proficiency:

In addition to the questions 4 and 5, a question was asked to all respondents about what in their situation have lead to language proficiency. The situation referred three modes of learning - joining a language school, having an audio-visual aid and, third, interacting with tourists.

Nine and six percents (out of a total of 273) of the respondents said that they preferred to join a school and have audio-visual aid as a better method to learn language, respectively, against an overwhelming 85 percent choosing increased interaction with the tourists.

Table 10: Mode Leading to Foreign Language Proficiency

Respondents	Conditions rating (Rating - 1 to 5)			Total
	Join Language school	Increased interaction with tourists	Audio/visual aid	
Hotel owners	3	48 (90%)	2	53

Hotel workers	7	88 (88%)	5	100
Trekking staff	15	97 (81%)	8	120
Total	25 (9%)	233 (85%)	15 (6%)	273

The majority of the respondents (85 percent) confirmed that their language proficiency was highly improved through the interactions in their job-related business. None said not improved. The practice also interprets that people would render efforts to improve language in the profession as it is related to their handling of competitive job. It worked in two ways that is to say interact more to learn more and then to interact still more for higher career. Table 6 clearly shows the interaction with tourists has higher effect on language improvement than schooling and audiovisual aids. The majority of the respondents belonged to the rural areas having had their poor quality schooling background, or, more so, never gone to a language school, so they depended mostly on their job situations for learning.

6.3 Interaction and Knowledge/ Understanding

6.3.1 Changed Status of Knowledge due to Tourism Job:

In the category of the knowledge and understanding modification due to interaction in tourism, an attempt was made to find out whether the respondents themselves saw marked changes brought about in their knowledge/understanding of the jobs/activities they handled in the tourism sector, compared with when they were not into tourism.

Table 11 on the above account shows that out of 273 total respondents about 66 percent reported substantial changes in the status of knowledge/understanding due to interaction in tourism. Only 11 percent and 23 percent told that it brought very little and little changes, respectively. There are interestingly similar responses from all the three categories of respondents in the substantial changes column that it brought about (by tourism) in knowledge aspects. In fact, similarities also are seen in the other columns.

The category 'before' (the tourism job) was not required because for a comparative analysis the second category of 'Now' sufficed to see the marked changes due to interaction in the job.

Table 11: Changed Status of Knowledge due to Tourism Job

Respondents	Status of knowledge/ understanding			Total
	Now			
Hotel owners	V. little 6 (11%)	Little 12(23%)	Substantial 35 (66%)	53
Hotel workers	12(12%)	19(19%)	69 (69%)	100
Trekking staff	12(10%)	32(27%)	76 (63%)	120
Total	30(11%)	63(23%)	180 (66%)	273

A comparative view presented by respondents about the status of their knowledge now against before the job shows a substantial number of them (66 percent) indicated tourism as the source of change. That the respondents' contacts with the tourists and the related jobs provided them with the opportunities for such an expansion of knowledge.

6.3.2 Responses about Importance of Various Issues of Knowledge in Relation to Job.

A set of questions was developed to seek the opinion from target respondents about comparative and absolute terms to see whether interaction with tourism activities helped them achieve such knowledge. Their interpretation on various questions are as under respectively to the individual and combined status.

6.3.3 Knowledge about the Labor Laws, Unions and Complain Units:

The three categories of the respondents (hotel owners, hotel workers, and trekking staff) were asked whether they felt knowledge about labor laws, trade unions and complain units related to their jobs as important matters to understand and they should have knowledge about them. A majority of about 59 percent of the total respondents said very important. This was followed by 30 percent responding as important. All the three categories of respondents had similar markings on the importance of such subjects to them, giving impressions of high awareness level. Twenty six percent of respondents said it was less important and only three percent said it was not important to know about the three things.

Table 12: Knowledge about the labor laws, unions and complain units

Respondents	Level of Importance				Total
	Very imp.	Important	Less Imp.	Not Imp.	
Hotel owners	31 (58%)	17 (32%)	4	1	53
Hotel workers	61 (61%)	25 (25%)	12	2	100
Trekking staff	69 (58%)	41 (34%)	10	0	120
Total	161 (59%)	83 (30%)	26 (9%)	3 (1%)	273
Total: 89%					

(We are only treated as mountain guides, but we know many things like counseling for mountain sickness and other emergency aids' -- a mountain guide).

6.3.4 Knowledge About the Topics of Tourists' Interests.

This question was meant to seek opinions from the respondents of the three categories to see whether knowing tourists' interests (psychology, likings, habits and so on) was important information. A substantial segment of the respondents did have affirmative responses. Seventy seven percent of all respondents marked the very important column and 20 percent marked the important column. Less important column had to be struck off as it received no response. The table below shows awareness level as very high because the two columns add up to a staggering 97 percent.

Table 13: Knowledge About Topics of Tourists' Interests

Respondents	Level of Importance			Total
	Very imp.	Important	Less Imp.	
Hotel owners	40 (75%)	11 (11%)	2 (4%)	53
Hotel workers	79 (79%)	18 (18%)	3 (3%)	100
Trekking staff	93 (78%)	25 (21%)	2 (2%)	120
Total	212(77%)	54 (20%)	7 (3%)	273
Total: 97%				

6.3.5 Knowledge About the Competitors:

This questionnaire intended to see whether the respondents needed to know about what is happening outside their perimeters, especially their competitors, the awareness level marked high as 54 percent of the respondents marking the very important column and 34 percent marking the important column. Less important was marked by 10 percent of the respondents. Interestingly, though, very few, about two percent of the total respondents, said that such knowledge was 'not important'. (Comparing this table with the other two above (8a and 8b), interestingly it permeates an impression that all the three categories of respondents attached higher importance to the tourists' interests and language vis-à-vis competitors. This gives the researcher an impression that the flow of the numbers of tourists seemed satisfactory to those asked at the time of the interview.)

Table 14: Knowledge about the Competitors.

Respondents	Level of importance				Total
	Very Imp.	Important	Less Imp.	Not Imp.	
Hotel owners	27 (51%)	20 (38%)	4 (9%)	1 (2%)	53
Hotel workers	52 (52%)	36 (36%)	10 (10%)	2 (2%)	100
Trekking staff	69 (58%)	36 (34%)	12 (10%)	3 (2%)	120
Total	148(54%)	92 (34%)	26 (10%)	6 (2%)	273

6.3.6 Knowledge About Foreign Language:

The researcher wanted to know whether the respondents were serious about foreign language, especially English, that developing knowledge about it was important to them. An overwhelming 88 percent of the total respondents marked that as very important. This was followed by 11 percent answering that as important and only about one percent (and in one case, none) not important. This shows that a big majority of the respondents saw developing language as highly important in their job situation. Not important column had to be struck off as there was no response in it.

Table 15: Knowledge About Foreign Language

Respondents	Level of Importance			Total
	Very Imp.	Important	Less Imp.	
Hotel owners	48 (90%)	4 (8%)	1	53
Hotel workers	88 (88%)	10 (10%)	2	100
Trekking staff	105(88%)	15 (13%)	0	120
Total	241(88%)	29 (11%)S	3 (1%)	273

Knowledge about different issues related to the jobs notices that the issue of knowledge/ understanding are very importantly established among the respondents and that one should not limit it. An overwhelming percentage (about 93 percent) responded affirmative about importance of knowledge on issues like laws, unions, complain units, tourists' interests, competitors and languages. Their knowledge about these issues they confirmed by a very high percentage, that it was due to the working conditions in tourism. In other words, it was the interaction in the job environment which played the vital role.

6.3.7 Knowledge Importance Typical to Job

This question was to seek independent views of all the respondents about what knowledge was important in carrying out their jobs. As the question was open-ended, a variety of responses were received, including an insignificant number of respondents remaining silent. As the responses were of varied nature, a definitive pattern of similar answers did not emerge but were mixed up. Nonetheless, hotels owners and hotel workers generally referred to food types, hygiene, friendly behavior and customer satisfaction. The trekking staff mostly maintained to have good knowledge of mountains, culture and religion, knowledge about tourists' nature, knowledge about mountain sickness and finally good command of language. The state of art here is that they all seem to be concerned with advancing all round knowledge about tourism.

Such features lead one to know that the engagement with the jobs kept the respondents updated with a wide range of issues important in their job situation. In terms of capacity enhancement, such a situation supports the fact that the sample respondents were concerned about and are showing their willingness in different aspects of knowledge development.

6.3.8 Situation Suited to Knowledge Development:

The tables below have been separately made for individual categories of respondents. Responses were sought on a scale of one to five, with the latter standing for "highest preferred". These tables show four different situations, that is, experience in freedom, strict control, through books/media and friends.

Case a. Hotel Owners as Respondents

The column with books/media in the table 16a. received a maximum of points (53 percent in one and 40 percent in two ratings of importance level) showing the most less preferred medium. Following this was 34 percent as highest in two rating for through friends column. Strict control column shows 53 percent of respondents only preferring to two points rank level suggesting that even this category was also not in the priority. Experience in freedom did receive 47 percent in the five rank level followed by 28 percent in the fourth rank, suggesting the mode of upgrading knowledge/understanding was indeed in freedom situation.

6.3.9. Hotel Owners as Respondents:

Table 16a: Hotel Owners as Respondents

Respondents		Learning situation			
n = 53	Ranking	Experience in freedom	Strict control	Through friends	Through books/media
Hotel owners	1	-	5	15	28 (53%)
	2	3	28 (53%)	18 (34%)	21 (40%)
	3	10	7	13	4
	4	15 (28%)	5	8	-
	5	25 (47%)	5	-	-
Total		53	53	53	53

Case b. Hotel workers as Respondents

This case with hotel workers also shows having highest preference to the situation of working in freedom, followed by through friends, then by strict control and of all least preferred was through books and media. If we consider two high (5 and 4 ranks) and two lower (1 and 2 ranks) it would be something like experience in freedom would have 88 percent in the former combination and strict control 90 percent with the later combination. Through friends 51 percent in one and two ranks and 26 percent in rank four in case of Through Friends. It is a combined 96 percent in case of through Books/Media for the one and two ranks.

6.3.10 Hotel Workers as Respondents:

Table 17: Hotel Workers as Respondents

Respondents		Learning situation			
n = 100	Ranking	Experience in freedom	Strict control	Through friends	Through books/media
Hotel workers	1	-	43 (43%)	21 (21%)	53 (53%)
	2	-	47 (47%)	30 (30%)	43 (43%)
	3	12	7	23 (23%)	4
	4	27 (27%)	3	26 (26%)	-
	5	61 (61%)	5	-	-
Total		100	100	100	100

Case c. Field Trekking Staff as Respondents:

This case of trekking staff respondent category nevertheless shows similar picture with 57 percent and 28 percent in rank five and four, respectively. Books/media being preferred lowest with 70 percent and 26 percent in rank one and two respectively, proceeded by strict control with 58 percent and 32 percent in rank one and two, respectively. The second preferred situation with trekking staff is seen as learning though friends with higher 42 percent in rank three, 29 percent in rank two and 23 percent in rank one, out of 120 respondents.

6.3.11 Field Trekking Staff as Respondents

Table: 18 Field Trekking Staff as Respondents

Respondents		Learning situation			
n = 120	Ranking	Experience in freedom	Strict control	Through friends	Through books/media
Trekking staff	1	-	70 (58%)	27 (23%)	84 (70%)
	2	2	38 (32%)	35 (29%)	31 (26%)
	3	16	12	50 (42%)	5
	4	34 (28%)	-	5	-
	5	68 (57%)	-	3	-

Total		120	120	120	120
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6.3.12: Combined Case Analysis

Table 19: Combined Case Analysis. (Comparative analysis of a, b, c cases)

		1	2	3	4
a	Hotel owner	Freedom working	Strict control	Through friends	Through books/media
b	Hotel worker	Freedom working	Through friends	Strict control	Through books/media
c	Trekking Staff	Freedom working	Through friends	Strict control	Through books/media

Most preferred situation (1 to 4, 4 being the lowest)

This comparative table shows that while all the categories of respondents view working with freedom would certainly be almost preferred situation in the learning process, hotel owners prefer for strict control situation for better learning in the second preferred situation.

Books and media are given the least marking, probably because they don't have reading access and media programmes.

Self-motivated participation with freedom (autonomy) renders the highest opportunity in the knowledge part of the capacity enhancement to the incumbents is amply expressed in the each of the table meant for the hotel owners, hotel workers and the trekking staff. All these respondents favored experience in freedom in developing knowledge. This case can be supported by the question three of the questionnaire, where in case of skill improvement too a good majority of the respondents favored working in freedom as against strict control and general control. It could easily be concluded in such cases that interaction with autonomy far supersedes the learning from friends and books/media and strict control. This relates to interaction promotion and capacity enhancement in autonomy.

6.3.13 Is Additional Knowledge Important for the Current Job?

The above questionnaire was developed to see whether the respondents visioned higher knowledge on the job they handled as an important factor amidst many others thing to do. This was to understand whether they were not non-progressive and preferred advancement by broadening the understanding about the business.

The respondents were provided three classifications as very important, important and less important (to acquire additional information). A substantial percentage 68 percent marked the very important column followed by 28 percent marking the important column and only four percent showed up in the less important column. The table shows that more or less similar views among the three categories of respondents showing progressive nature in the profession development.

Table 20: Is Additional Knowledge Important for the Current Job?

Respondents	Importance of additional information			Total
	Very important	Important	Less important	
Hotel owners	38 (72%)	12 (23%)	3 (6%)	53
Hotel workers	67 (67%)	29 (29%)	4 (4%)	100
Trekking staff	82 (68%)	36 (30%)	2 (1%)	120
Total	187 (68%)	77 (28%)	9 (4%)	273

Respondents were well aware that to improve their career in the given job situation, they had to improve and broaden their present stock of knowledge. An abundant majority of 96 percent expressed additional information very important and that they needed it to update their jobs. This case shows that the respondents not only concerned about knowledge improvement but also about their career development, the opportunity side (Human development).

6.3.14: Respondents' Opinion about Knowledge Development due to Tourism:

Set of questionnaire had been developed along the line of relevant activities for the job to see whether the respondents felt that they had really felt improvement in the understanding by the way of interaction during their service job periods. The classification has been done in three

levels of high, moderate and low.

(a) Food Habits of Tourists:

All these three categories of respondents had somewhat similar responses ranging from 57 percent to 73 (average 68 percent) in the High column and from 23 percent to 26 percent (average 24 percent) in the Moderate column. This showed that the respondents did feel that the knowledge about food habits of the tourists was due to their work in tourism. An average of only four percent responded that they did not have much change. This table showed that interaction leads to better understanding.

Table 21: Food Habits of Tourists:

Respondents	Extent of improvement (change)			Total
	High	Moderate	Low	
Hotel owners	30 (57%)	14 (26%)	9 (2%)	53
Hotel workers	70 (70%)	25 (25%)	5 (5%)	100
Trekking staff	87 (73%)	27 (23%)	6 (5%)	120
Total	187 (68%)	66 (24%)	20 (4%)	273

(b) Service Habits of Tourists:

This table also shows that about 71 percent among all the three types of respondents have marked on the high improvement column followed by 25 percent and only four percent in the moderate and low change columns, respectively.

Table 22: Service Habits of Tourists

Respondents	Extent of improvement			Total
	High	Moderate	Low	
Hotel owners	31 (58%)	19 (36%)	3 (6%)	53
Hotel workers	75 (75%)	20 (20%)	5 (5%)	100
Trekking staff	89 (74%)	30 (25%)	1 (1%)	120
Total	195 (71%)	69 (25%)	9 (4%)	273

This shows that improvement of knowledge about tourists with different origins seeking services are in fact highly developed by interaction skill in tourism.

In all of these, it is important to know the low percentage in the last column. Thus, low percentage indicates that this knowledge improvement was also from other media like radio, societies (elaborate) NGOs etc.

(c) Bargaining Habits of Tourists:

Similar but slightly lower percentages (about 57 percent) has been recorded in this table for the high knowledge change column followed by 27 percent in moderate and only 13 percent recording in low improvement column. The table provides a slight different picture among hotel owners, who have 55 percent and 51 percent in high and moderate column, to that expressed by hotel workers and trekking staff (71 percent and 53 percent, respectively) to 19 percent and 29 percent in the moderate column.

Table 23: Bargaining Habits of Tourists

Respondents	Extent of improvement			Total
	High	Moderate	Low	
Hotel owners	29 (55%)	21 (51%)	3 (6%)	53
Hotel workers	71 (71%)	19 (19%)	10 (10%)	100
Trekking staff	63 (53%)	35 (29%)	22 (18%)	120
Total	155 (57%)	75 (27%)	35 (13%)	273

(d) Being Friendly:

Following the same pattern, this table is for the issue of developing knowledge/ understanding of ways of presenting oneself as being friendly and amicable in their job. The results shows that about 79 percent among all respondents marked in the high improvement column followed by 17 percent and four percent respectively in moderate and low change columns:

Table 24: Being Friendly

Respondents	Extent of improvement			Total
	High	Moderate	Low	
Hotel owners	39 (74%)	12 (23%)	2 (4%)	53
Hotel workers	82 (82%)	14 (14%)	4 (4%)	100
Trekking staff	96 (80%)	21 (18%)	3 (3%)	120
Total	217 (79%)	47 (17%)	7 (4%)	273

(e) Deforestation Consciousness:

About 68 percent on average of all respondents reported that they indeed developed high consciousness because of their job in tourism compared with what they thought they would before this job. This is followed by 25 percent and 71 percent for the moderate and low column, respectively.

Table 25: Deforestation Consciousness

Respondents	Extent of improvement			Total
	High	Moderate	Low	
Hotel owners	37 (70%)	15 (28%)	1 (2%)	53
Hotel workers	59 (59%)	29 (29%)	12 (12%)	100
Trekking staff	91 (76%)	24 (20%)	5 (4%)	120
Total	187 (68%)	68 (25%)	18 (7%)	273

(f) Fire Wood Use Consciousness:

Interestingly, this table shows that trekking staff showed more changes brought about by

the profession in the high change column, about 85 percent, compared with the other two groups. A High change in the level of consciousness because of tourism is overall higher, about 71 percent on average. The moderate and low columns received 20 percent and nine percent, respectively. (Issue e & f, have far reaching consequences especially in tourism and its sustainability and the issues therefore hold high values for those in walking in this sector).

Table 26: Firewood use consciousness

Respondents	Extent of improvement			Total
	High	Moderate	Low	
Hotel owners	32 (60%)	13 (25%)	8 (15%)	53
Hotel workers	59 (59%)	28 (28%)	13 (13%)	100
Trekking staff	102 (85%)	14 (12%)	4 (3%)	120
Total	193 (71%)	55 (20%)	25 (9%)	273

(g) Waste Disposal Consciousness:

This issue too shows higher value of 70 percent average for all the respondents in the high change column, with the trekking staff showing more influence from the tourism sector (about 85 percent compared with 60 percent and 55 percent for hotel owners and hotel workers, respectively). Twenty five percent and nine percent are registered in the moderate and low change columns:

Table 27: Waste Disposal Consciousness

Respondents	Extent of improvement			Total
	High	Moderate	Low	
Hotel owners	32 (60%)	18 (34%)	3 (6%)	53
Hotel workers	55 (55%)	38 (38%)	7 (7%)	100
Trekking staff	103 (85%)	13 (11%)	4 (3%)	120
Total	190 (70%)	69 (25%)	14 (9%)	273

(h) Smoking/Alcoholism Consciousness:

This table shows a slightly different but a similar picture to what we saw before. It is different in the sense that only 51 percent on average are in High and about the same 43 percent in Moderate column. This shows that they did not assign very significant improvement by being in tourism. However, a very high percentage shows up if one combines high and moderate columns, about 94 percent.

Table 28: Smoking/Alcoholism Consciousness.

Respondents	Extent of improvement			Total
	High	Moderate	Low	
Hotel owners	29 (55%)	21 (40%)	3 (6%)	53
Hotel workers	51 (51%)	43 (43%)	6 (6%)	100
Trekking staff	60 (50%)	53 (44%)	7 (6%)	120
Total	140 (51%)	117 (43%)	16 (6%)	273

(i) Gender Equality Consciousness:

Sixty percent of the three categories of respondents on average registered in high improvement column followed by 31 percent and eight percent in the moderate and low improvement columns. It shows that issues related to gender have highly improved because of interactions at the present tourism job.

Table 29: Gender Equality Consciousness

Respondents	Extent of improvement			Total
	High	Moderate	Low	
Hotel owners	38 (72%)	12 (23%)	3 (6%)	53
Hotel workers	53 (53%)	34 (34%)	13 (13%)	100
Trekking staff	72 (60%)	41 (34%)	7 (6%)	120
Total	163 (60%)	87 (31%)	23 (8%)	273

Table 30: Combined Case Analysis:

	High	Moderate	Low
Hotel Owner	62 %	32 %	6 %
Hotel Worker	64 %	28 %	8 %
Trekking Staff	70 %	24 %	6 %

Considering nine different issues to see whether or not being in tourism gave opportunity to expand the knowledge about those issues, the respondents confirmed that it did, as shown by high percentages in the high and moderate columns. Tourism does provide knowledge through interaction process on the job, a case the findings above reconfirm.

Asking questions about each and every activity remains obviously impossible, as there could be hundreds of other activities. But those nine ones above are quite pertinent issues to deal with.

6.3.15 Views about Upgrading of Qualification:

Supporting question was asked whether the respondents thought they needed to upgrade their qualification they had at the beginning of service, and an overwhelming 96 percent on average responded affirmatively. Only four percent responded not required. This shows that interaction does encourage earning qualification, according to the study.

Qualification, many pointed it, as future related and permanent.

Table 31: Views about Up Grading of Qualification:

Respondents	Responses		Total
	Yes	No	
Hotel owners	50 (94%)	3 (6%)	53
Hotel workers	98 (98%)	2 (2%)	100
Trekking staff	113 (94%)	7 (6%)	120
Total	261 (96%)	12 (4%)	273

The question about upgrading the respondents' qualifications provides the researcher with the responses that supports their independent perspective of the situation that they should be upgrading. Ninety six percent favored higher qualification, a case that shows the broadened, modern, open and concerned quality developed of the respondents due to the job condition. This signifies all round development concerns.

6.3.16 Preference among the Skill, Knowledge and Attitudes:

A question was developed to see the respondent's opinion about what subject, such as skill knowledge and attitudinal adaptation, were preferred in relation to their value in the job market. The respondents on average 50 percent went for skill, 20 percent for knowledge and 30 percent for attitudinal aspects.

Table 32: Preference among the Skill, Knowledge and Attitudes:

Respondents	Comparative preference			Total
	Skill	Knowledge/ understanding	Attitudinal adaptation	
Hotel owners	23 (43%)	12 (23%)	18 (34%)	53
Hotel workers	51 (51%)	16 (16%)	33 (33%)	100
Trekking staff	62 (52%)	26 (22%)	32 (27%)	120
Total	136 (50%)	54 (20%)	83 (30%)	273

This section provides us with the discerning know-how of the respondents of the part of the capacity enhancement. Although their preference favored skill development to knowledge/understanding and attitudinal adaptation, they nonetheless saw all the three factors as important. In fact, from the answers they provided, it does show their difficulty to isolate one from the other (as all comprise the three aspects of capacity enhancement in the study) because the three together are important in producing the results. Such outcomes are supported clearly by many such concepts/write-ups dealt in the book review chapter.

6.3.17 Contribution of Job Interaction to Present Stock of Knowledge:

This question seeks to know respondents' feeling about the share of contribution of tourism interaction to their present stock of knowledge/understanding and environment of the activities they handled. An average of 92 percent share of knowledge was accounted to tourism reported of the contribution of being in the job followed by six percent on average as contributed by sources other than tourism activities and less than two percent couldn't differentiate.

Table 33: Contribution of Job Interaction to Present Stock of Knowledge

Respondents	Knowledge contribution ranking (1 to 10)			Total
	Yes	No, other	No response	
Hotel owners	49 (92%)	3 (7%)	-	53
Hotel workers	92 (92%)	6 (6%)	2	100
Trekking staff	111 (93%)	7 (6%)	2	120
Total	252 (92%)	16 (6%)	4 (2%)	273

Continued from the above, the respondents presented a simple but clearer message that the stock of knowledge that they garner in them at that moment shares a very high (about 92 percent) contribution on the tourism environment. Interaction leads to capacity enhancement is yet in another point supported. Learning by doing, or the more the interaction, the more the knowing.

6.3.18 Respondents' Concerns about Bookings and Cancellations:

This question of knowledge section deals with whether respondents concerned themselves with the inflow programs and their cancellations of advance bookings. There were three sets as very much concerned, moderately concerned and least concerned.

Table 34: Respondents' Concerns on Bookings and Cancellations

Respondents	Extent of concern			Total
	Very much	Moderate	Least	
Hotel owners	48 (91%)	3 (7%)	2 (4%)	53
Hotel workers	51 (61%)	36 (36%)	3 (3%)	100
Trekking staff	102 (85%)	16 (13%)	2 (2%)	120
Total	201 (77%)	55 (20%)	7 (3%)	273

Hotel owners referring to the very much concerned recorded 91 percent whereas 61 percent were in the case of the hotel workers, showing less stronger concern than the hotel owners about the tourists inflow. Nevertheless, the hotel workers were up by 36 percent to seven percent of the hotel owners in the moderately concerned section. This shows that although they are very much interested to know the flow of tourists, the workers are not as much keen as the owners. The trekking staff marked 85 percent on very much column to 13 percent in the moderate three percent on average showed up in the column of least concerned.

The respondents did show their concern about the tourists' inflows and the cancellations and not merely remain docile to the situation. They very well expressed (about 77 percent of them) that they are highly concerned about it. This knowledge they interpreted as very important to their survival and sustenance.

Preemptive of their role is a vital aspect in so far as the capacity of sustenance and management is concerned. (This researcher had observed that Landruk during the war periods (between the government of Nepal and the Maoists) almost ran almost empty of trekking route hotels, as observed by the researcher himself but it could resume sooner than later after the war ceased. Obviously a capacity had already developed among the locals because of earlier interactions with the organization of tourism). Respondents' preemptive concerns and about

analyzing the major problems and advantages in tourism field explains their eminent presence and all time engagement in the field.

6.3.19 Interaction and Attitudinal Aspects

In this part of the questionnaire, attempts were made to know the respondents' views about a number of issues related to tourism and contemporary Nepalese social value systems. Special care was taken to find out the attitudinal changes because of their involvement in the tourism sector.

The researcher, while going through the field exercises during the course of seeking responses, finds that the status of understanding and modernization in the concepts were prevalent in most situations as will also be amply indicated by the interview tables. These cases would be quite interesting because most of the respondents hail from villages where they have generally different values than the cities.

6.3.20 Exploration of Views about Different Contemporary Issues:

These issues referred to as under:

- (a) Preferring boys to girls
- (b) Cast should prevail
- (c) Faith healers as medical aid
- (d) One's religion as superior
- (e) Ethnocentrism
- (f) Father's identity for citizenship certificate

(a) Preferring Boys to Girls:

The table on preferring boys to girls shows a similar view from all the three categories respondents. On average, 66 percent of respondents opined that their view on the issue had very much changed than before, followed by 28 percent saying little change only. Six percent suggested they didn't think tourism changed their views. This percentage also includes

respondents who held modern views (boys & girls having equal status) from the very beginning and those who said that they never garnered such a thought in the very first place.

Table 35: Preferring boys to girls.

Respondents	Extent of change			Total
	No change	Little change	Very much changed	
Hotel owners	2 (4%)	21 (40%)	30 (57%)	53
Hotel workers	5 (5%)	32 (32%)	63 (63%)	100
Trekking staff	10 (8%)	24 (20%)	86 (72%)	120
Total	17 (6%)	77 (30%)	179 (64%)	273

(b) Casteism should prevail

Casteism means a view of discrimination among different castes. Seventy five percent of all respondents averaged in the very much changed column having the highest difference of 219 among hotel workers and trekking staff, showing the latter slightly more influenced by the tourism job in behavioral aspect in this respect. Following this is 18 percent on average little change and seven percent saying no change.

Table 36: Casteism should prevail

Respondents	Extent of change			Total
	No change	Little change	Very much changed	
Hotel owners	4 (8%)	8 (15%)	41 (77%)	53
Hotel workers	11 (11%)	26 (26%)	63 (63%)	100
Trekking staff	3 (3%)	16 (13%)	101 (84%)	120
Total	18 (7%)	50 (18%)	205 (75%)	273

(c) Faith Healers as Medical Aid:

This question relates to whether the respondents still preferred to use faith healers for medical reasons or otherwise think they have been changed due to tourism. The table in this case suggests that about 65 percent of the total respondents did say they held very much changed views against about 25 percent saying little change and 11 percent no change.

Table 37 Faith Healers as Medical Aid

Respondents	Extent of change			Total
	No change	Little change	Very much changed	
Hotel owners	9 (17%)	11 (21%)	33 (62%)	53
Hotel workers	7 (7%)	25 (25%)	68 (68%)	100
Trekking staff	11 (9%)	31 (26%)	78 (65%)	120
Total	27 (11%)	67 (25%)	179 (65%)	273

(d) One's Religion as Superior:

This question relates to religion superiority over the others. Many of them showed up in very much changed column. On average 80 percent of the respondents marked very much changed view than before, followed by 17 percent averaging for little change.

Table 38: One's Religion as Superior

Respondents	Extent of change			Total
	No change	Little change	Very much changed	
Hotel owners	-	10 (19%)	43 (81%)	53
Hotel workers	2 (2%)	21 (21%)	77 (77%)	100
Trekking staff	7 (6%)	15 (13%)	99 (83%)	120
Total	9 (3%)	46 (17%)	219 (80%)	273

(A staggering 60% of trekking, 36% of hotel workers (and 10 % of hotel owners) respectively responded that they had no thought at all of the above discriminating concepts in their minds in the first place.)

(e) Ethnocentrism:

The question measured ethnocentrism, or one's ethnic superiority, and whether the view had changed by being involved in tourism. Sixty two percent held a view that their view has very much changed, while 29 percent said little change and nine percent said no change. Here too some had reported that they did not have such ethnocentric views even before they were into tourism. Their numbers being insignificant are not accounted for here.

Table 39: Treating One's Ethnic Clan Superior

Respondents	Extent of change			Total
	No change	Some change	Very much changed	
Hotel owners	5 (9%)	15 (28%)	33 (62%)	53
Hotel workers	14 (14%)	27 (27%)	59 (59%)	100
Trekking staff	6 (5%)	37 (31%)	77 (64%)	120
Total	29 (9%)	79 (29%)	169 (62%)	273

(f) Fathers Identity for Citizenship:

A generally held concept in society about the source of citizenship and also of identity to be from father rather the mother was presented to the respondents seeking to know whether their opinion had changed on the issue. An average of 69 percent held a very much changed view and did not held the old view of only father being the source of identity. They also equally suggested for mother. In the data, 19 percent said they saw little change and only 12 percent marked no change.

Table 40: Fathers Identity for Citizenship

Respondents	Extent of change			Total
	No change	Little change	Very much changed	
Hotel owners	3 (6%)	11 (21%)	39 (73%)	53
Hotel workers	11 (11%)	21 (21%)	68 (68%)	100
Trekking staff	18 (15%)	19 (16%)	83 (69%)	120
Total	32 (10%)	51 (20%)	190 (70%)	273

Table 41: Combined Case Analysis (a to f)

n= 273.

Respondents	No change	Little change	Very much changed
All types	8%	23%	69%

Six traditional value-based issues were dealt with, a whopping majority (about 69 percent) confirmed their attitude changed compared with what they thought before the job. This

case shows that due to interaction in tourism job, they accepted changes being brought about by it. This supports the third case of attitudinal part of the capacity enhancement. Issue wise, cases do have some fluctuations in the data suggesting minor differences on respondents' opinion, but overall cases confirmed that high attitudinal changes took place because of interactions in the job.

Many such questions, in fact, are fast becoming less and less relevant in Nepal, which is undergoing paradigm changes in the social values day by day. Nevertheless, the religion superiority (seemingly less relevant in today's context) concept does give us the general status of thought in the present day tourism environment scenario. In fact a good many of respondents had in most issues of this questionnaire reported that they never harbored such views of discrimination in the very first place.

Q.20 Adapting to changed values by embracing jobs in tourism

Questions were developed in some prominent sample issues related to jobs seeking the changed qualities demanded by the service of tourism. Opinions concerning issues like politeness, courtesies, open to talk, ready to serve, be present, be confident in the job and accept challenges were used as under.

Issues: (a) Politeness:

Table 20 (a) presents that 78 percent reported to have high changes in their quality of politeness compared with before they entered the tourism field. Following this was 18 percent saying moderate change and only three percent saying low change on an average among the respondents.

Table a: Politeness:

Respondents	Level of adoption			Total
	High	Moderate	Low	
Hotel owners	41 (77%)	11 (21%)	1 (2%)	53
Hotel workers	71 (71%)	26 (26%)	3 (3%)	100
Trekking staff	102 (85%)	13 (11%)	5 (4%)	120
Total	214 (78%)	50 (18%)	9 (70%)	273

(b) Courtesies:

Here table 20(b) presents a similar case with 78 percent of respondents in the high degree of change column against what they had before being involved in his or her tourism job. Following this was Moderate with 18 percent respondents and then low change with four percent of the respondents.

Table b: Courtesies

Respondents	Level of adoption			Total
	High	Moderate	Low	
Hotel owners	41 (77%)	11 (21%)	1 (2%)	53
Hotel workers	72 (72%)	23 (23%)	5 (5%)	100
Trekking staff	100 (83%)	14 (12%)	6 (5%)	120
Total	213 (78%)	48 (18%)	12 (4%)	273

(c) Open to Talk:

The table below shows that 76 percent of respondents said tourism brought about high level of change in them with regards to openness to talk, while 19 percent and five percent said they had moderate and low change on average, respectively. A staff commented that the girl staff were generally shy in this matter when it came to talking with the clientele.

Table c: Open to talk:

Respondents	Level of adoption			Total
	High	Moderate	Low	
Hotel owners	43 (81%)	9 (17%)	1 (2%)	53
Hotel workers	63 (63%)	25 (25%)	12 (12%)	100
Trekking staff	102 (85%)	16 (13%)	2 (2%)	120
Total	208 (76%)	50 (19%)	15 (5%)	273

(d) Ready to Serve:

Table here shows 75 percent of the respondents have found in themselves the quality of being ready to serve changed very highly compared to before. Following this were 18 percent and seven percent in columns of moderate and low change respectively.

Table d: Ready to Serve:

Respondents	Level of adoption			Total
	High	Moderate	Low	
Hotel owners	44 (83%)	9 (17%)	-	53

Hotel workers	59 (59%)	25 (25%)	16 (16%)	100
Trekking staff	103 (86%)	16 (13%)	3 (2%)	120
Total	206 (75%)	50 (18%)	19 (7%)	273

(e) Be Present:

An average of 68 percent showed up in the column of high change meaning this quality of alertness has been highly enhanced among the sample of respondents. Following this were 24 percent and eight percent in the moderate and low columns, respectively.

Table e: Be Present:

Respondents	Level of Adoption			Total
	High	Moderate	Low	
Hotel owners	36 (68%)	12 (22%)	5 (9%)	53
Hotel workers	54 (54%)	32 (32%)	14 (14%)	100
Trekking staff	97 (81%)	21 (18%)	2 (2%)	120
Total	187 (68%)	65 (24%)	21 (8%)	273

(f) Be Confident in the Job:

This case too presents high points, 64 percent, on high change column, showing high rate of change among the three kinds of respondents because of interaction in the tourism job. This is followed by 29 percent and seven percent in the moderate and low columns, respectively.

Table f: Be Confident in the Job:

Respondents	Level of Adoption			Total
	High	Moderate	Low	
Hotel owners	31 (58%)	18 (34%)	4 (8%)	53
Hotel workers	62 (62%)	31 (31%)	7 (7%)	100
Trekking staff	82 (68%)	30 (25%)	8 (7%)	120
Total	175 (64%)	79 (29%)	19 (7%)	273

(g) Accept Challenge:

Fifty nine percent, 34 percent and seven of all the respondents are seen to represent respectively for column high, moderate and low. This also suggests that a significant portion of the respondents feel job interaction has changed their confidence level in accepting challenges. Thirty four percent of respondents felt moderate change.

Table g: Accept challenge:

Respondents	Level of adoption			Total
	High	Moderate	Low	
Hotel owners	29 (55%)	20 (38%)	4 (7%)	53
Hotel workers	51 (51%)	43 (43%)	6 (6%)	100
Trekking staff	79 (66%)	31 (26%)	10 (8%)	120
Total	159 (59%)	94 (34%)	20 (7%)	273

These all issues in respect to respondents' changed perspectives in their overall terms show that over 90 percent (add high and moderate) of the respondents felt significant changes on the issues mentioned.

The respondents confirmed changed status because of job interaction on different value-based issues in this hospitality service (such as politeness, courtesies, open to talk, ready to serve, be present, be confident in the job and accept challenge). Analysis of the data finds that a big majority of 71 percent reported that they noticed changed status in their present nature compared with before being in the job. Nobody reported having no change. The least mentioned was low change by some six percent of the people. In going through the tables, typical characteristics are observed. In case of trekking staff, changes took place relatively higher than the other two and that on the hotel workers remained lowest in the same category. This probably is because the interaction level that a trekking staff (generally sirdars/guides) has longer (days) duration of interactions, take extensive responsibility of the tourists groups than generally waiters/kitchen staff at the hotel/local level. It could also partly be that generally on observation the hotel workers at these routes are less academically qualified than the trekking staff. But this is a

subject for further exploration. Whatever the case may be, one does come to the conclusion that interactions do generate attitudinal changes (required to accomplish the job in the competitive milieu).

Q.21 Respondents' Changed Views about Women Working in Tourism Against Men:

The table shows high differences in their thinking before and now. This question has a mixed kind of respondents in a sense that a respondent – say 'A' - is asked about his view for the columns 'Before' and then again asked for the column 'Now' for all the three cases, for example, ‘Should be equally involved’, 'Should be less involved’ and ‘Should be more involved’.

The first column shows a significant change in the conceptual level of the respondents where 'before' only 30 percent on average of the total respondents held the view but now 88 percent have this view. This view suggests a big majority of people working in tourism keep the opinion that both the genders should be equally involved in tourism.

The second column 'should be less involved' shows that this concept was harbored by 62 percent of the respondents before the job which now only has five percent (but still), which is a significant change brought about by being in the field.

The third column, which suggests for women's more involvement in the tourism job, a similar situation seems to exist before and now with low 78 percent only with the respondents suggesting not very popular slogan.

The respondents were first asked to answer for the column ‘Before’ for all the three cases and then only the column ‘Now’.

Table 44: Respondents' changed views over women working in tourism as against men

Respondents	Changed views						Total
	Should be equally involved		Should be less involved		Should be more involved		
	Before	Now	Before	Now	Before	Now	
Hotel owners	21(40%)	51(96%)	27(51%)	-	5 (9%)	2 (4%)	53
Hotel workers	22(22%)	81(81%)	67(67%)	4 (4%)	11(11%)	15(15%)	100
Trekking staff	34(28%)	107(89%)	83(69%)	11(9%)	3 (3%)	2 (2%)	120

Total	77(30%)	239(88%)	177(62%)	15(5%)	19 (8%)	19 (7%)	273
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Views about women to work in tourism too received changed concepts from many respondents. Comparative analysis of respondents' views show that what they thought before the job (about 62 percent thinking women should be less involved in tourism job) has since highly changed after taking up the tourism job (about 88 percent reporting to changed opinion of 'should be equally involved'). A very few respondents did think that female should be more in the tourism job than men. This view was rather expressed by a few hotel owners on discussions for internal management. Whatever the case, respondents did report changes in the opinions due to having worked in the hospitality service.

6.3.21 Respondents' Opinion on Education to Women.

A concept of more education, equal education and less education to women were proposed to the respondents. This question was developed to see the responses to the old and traditional held views in the Nepalese societies that girls do not need education as boys. This was initially asked for 'before' the job and then 'now'.

The table presented below shows that out of the total of 273 respondents, 87 percent on average changed their views in favor of equal education to women, eight percent averaged for less education required than men and stuck to traditional views, five percent uniquely preferred more education required for women. In all, 11 percent of hotel owners preferred girls for higher educational needs than men as compared with the other two with five and three percents. It is possible that the hotel owners preferred girls to boys in the internal matters of the establishment. But 87 percent overall is obviously a big number to reckon with with regards to those who favored equal status to both the genders.

Table 45: Respondents Opinion on Education to Women

Respondents	Change in views			Total
	More education to women	Equal education to women	Less education to women	

Hotel owners	6 (11%)	43 (81%)	4 (8%)	53
Hotel workers	5 (5%)	87 (87%)	8 (8%)	100
Trekking staff	3 (3%)	108 (90%)	9 (7%)	120
Total average	14 (5%)	238 (87%)	21 (8%)	273

Thus the respondents held views that girls and boys should have equal opportunities in the field of education (about 87 percent), against the traditionally held views that women do not need qualification as men do. This (change in view) according to the majority of them was by far because of the tourism environment as per the analysis of the data. Some respondents however said that they had always held a view that women should have equal education as men.

6.3.22 Respondents' Confidence Level Change Compared with Before:

Classification (Much Higher, Higher, Same as Before, and Lower) were provided to the respondents to express the change they felt in their level of confidence in the job than before. The last one was struck out as the researcher received no response in that column. Here 76 percent on average reported that they felt 'much higher' level of confidence growth followed by 19 percent stating 'higher' change. Stagnancy was reported by only five percent of respondents.

Table 46: Respondents' Confidence Level Change Compared to Before

Respondents	Level of confidence change			Total
	Much higher	Higher	Same as before	
Hotel owners	38 (72%)	11 (21%)	4 (7%)	53
Hotel workers	69 (69%)	26 (26%)	5 (5%)	100
Trekking staff	101 (84%)	14 (12%)	5 (5%)	120
Total average	208 (76%)	51 (19%)	14 (5%)	273

The confidence level, as reported by the respondents, changed 'much higher' for 76 percent (76 percent + 19 percent for 'higher' category = 95 percent) suggesting that by working in the tourism field, confidence in the job handling in normal and handling of out-of-routine conditions increased because of interactions in the jobs. These findings support the study in terms of attitudinal changes of capacity enhancement because of interaction. This shows that interaction in the job has really played very positive role so far as the job confidence among the

respondents is concerned. A very few did say that they could not see any confidence change but this stands very insignificant in comparison to the others.

6.3.23 Respondents' Reason for Change in Confidence Level.

To understand the respondents' interpretation of the reasons behind the spike in their confidence level, they were asked to choose from categories of age situation, work interaction and others, if any. Age situation was almost nil except for the hotel owners, who comprised only four percent of the total of 53 respondents in their group. Work interaction situation received an overwhelming 90 percent average points. The category of 'others' as a source of confidence received only nine percent of the responses on average. It showed that the work interaction situation had very high influence over the level of confidence amongst the respondents.

Table 47: Respondents' Reasons for Change in Confidence Level.

Respondents	Reasons for change in confidence			Total
	Age situation	Work interaction	Others if any	
Hotel owners	2 (4%)	43 (81%)	8 (15%)	53
Hotel workers	-	93 (93%)	7 (7%)	100
Trekking staff	-	110 (92%)	10 (8%)	120
Total average	2 (1%)	246 (90%)	25 (9%)	273

Ninety percent of the respondents reasoned that their confidence levels had risen because of their working condition compared with only one percent and 10 percent saying that the change came because of their age situation and other factors, respectively. This attitudinal change refers to an important part in the career prospect of the incumbent respondent. To sustain oneself in the current job, one has to tackle the challenges that come his or her way. And one also should have this skill oneself to tap the available opportunities in the field (an explanation also incorporated in the human development definition referred by UNDP).

6.3.24 Respondents Comparative Views about Mixing with Communities/Groups than Before.

The comparative interpretation of views in the table presented that about 90 percent of the respondents find it easier now to mix with other members of the community and groups than before. A low two percent on average find it still difficult to get along with the

community/groups. About eight percent of the respondents reported that the situation for them was same as before. Ninety percent is a big number and does give us the significant attitudinal change that has taken place in those respondents so far as community/groups mixing characteristics is concerned. Mixing with the community is a very important aspect of social capital and community/group approaches.

Table 48: Respondents Comparative Views on Mixing with Communities/Groups Now than Before

Responds	Comparative views on mixing			Total
	Difficult to mix	More easily mix	Same as before	
Hotel owners	1 (2%)	48 (91%)	41 (7%)	53
Hotel workers	3 (3%)	91 (91%)	6 (6%)	100
Trekking staff	2 (2%)	107 (89%)	1 (9%)	120
Total	6 (2)	246 (90%)	21 (8%)	273

Mixing with the community and group, including qualities of leadership development, are among many aspects of today's world. This provides opportunities and strengths that are often referred to as social capital (see...). The findings above gives this picture that the respondents now as against before the job have very highly developed qualities of easy mixing in communities and groups, even though there are more divergent views (according to some respondents' comments, these days there are divergent views and value system with societies and therefore arriving at a concerted and focused opinion becomes difficult.)

Q26. Respondents' Opinion about Factors of Change of Their Concepts:

The opinions of the respondents on some value-based issues were sought to see whether tourism was the cause resource in changing their views from sort of traditional to today's (modern). Questions were divided into two categories. These four sets of two categories were Friendly vs. Dominating, Freely vs. Restrictive, Modern vs. Traditional and Changed vs. No Change. The issues related to, for example, dealing with family, smoking, alcohol, appliances

and agriculture tools preference, information system adaptation, back-up economic activities, farming technology and, lastly, seeking new memberships.

The table presents two sources of change from respondents' perspectives. One, that the opinion changed due to tourism and the other, due to other factors like radio/TV, friends and societies. The respondents were also asked to provide in preference the numbers from one to 10, the latter being the highest. These numbers have been later categorized as low (2- 4), moderate (5- 7) and high (8- 10) for both the sources.

Table 49 : Respondents' Opinion on Factors of Change of Their Concepts

Issues:	Activity mode	Due to tourism			Due to other factors (Radio/ TV, Friends/ societies..)		
		2- 4	5- 7	8- 10	2- 4	5- 7	8- 10
Dealing family	Friendly	-	68, 25%	164, 60%	27, 10%	14, 5%	-
	Dominating	-	-	-	-	--	-
Dealing neighbor	Friendly	-	63, 23%	161, 59%	30, 11%	8, 3%	5,2%
	Dominating	6, 2%	-	-	-	-	-
Dealing smoking	Freely	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Restrictive	6, 2%	76, 28%	142, 52%	22, 8%	16, 6%	11,4%
Dealing alcohol	Freely	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Restrictive	8, 3%	76, 28%	137, 50%	19, 7%	19, 7%	14, 5%
Prefer home appliance	Modern	6, 2%	27, 10%	131, 48%	41, 15%	38,14%	16, 6%
	Traditional	11, 4%	3, 1%	-	-	-	-
Prefer agr. tools	Modern	-	93, 34%	115, 42%	14, 5%	8, 3%	19, 7%
	Traditional	-	8, 3%	3, 1%	-	5, 2%	8, 3%
Prefer info. system	Modern	14, 5%	44, 16%	138, 51%	25, 9%	33,12%	19,7%
	Traditional	-	-	-	-	-	-
Backup eco. activity	Changed	8, 3%	46, 17%	98, 36%	19, 7%	14, 5%	22, 8%
	No change	8, 3%	8, 3%	3, 1%	3, 1%	8, 3%	3,1%
Farming with new technology	Changed	8, 3%	41, 15%	93, 34%	14, 5%	49,18%	33,12%
	No change	3, 1%	8, 3%	3, 1%	8, 3%	-	8, 3%
Concept in saving	Changed	10, 4%	60, 22%	126, 46%	10, 4%	33,12%	33,12%
	No change	-	-	-	-	-	-
New membership	Changed	33,12 %	57, 21%	87, 32%	22, 8%	25, 9%	8, 3%
	No change	-	-	-	5, 2%,	14, 5%	22, 8%

Total n = 273

The boxes that supposedly represent the “modern” views (being friendly to family and neighbors, disciplined use of smoking and alcohol, use of modern appliances, use of savings, participating through newer memberships) have received high values on comparative scale in case of tourism as a source of change. Here, for example, highest figure in High (8 - 10) column is 60 percent and the lowest in the same column is 32 percent, showing relatively (quite) high effects of tourism in attitudinal change in relation to the aforesaid issues. If we compute the High, Moderate (5 - 7) and the Low (2 - 5) together, the percentage will indicate very high, the highest figure being 85 percent and the smallest being 52 percent.

Similar figures in what we termed in traditional status received very low of which highest figure stood at seven percent and the lowest figure being two percent only, showing very few number of respondents actually favored those sort of conditions in tourism as a source of change.

Similar comparisons in case of changes in views taken place because of other factors apart from tourism (radio/TV/friends and societies), in the High column, the highest is 12 percent and the lowest is one percent, showing not that high support. Some columns did not even receive one. If we combine the High and Moderate columns, the highest figure would be 20 percent and the lowest four percent. This shows that those people working in tourism do receive modernizing effects from factors other than tourism, but it is tourism in principal that makes the larger difference. The highest total for changed view from traditional to modern from non-tourism sector is 35 percent and the lowest 15 percent. Still, adopting to traditional and unchanged views have received very insignificant figures.

The columns referring to source 'other factors' do have responses on the three Low, Moderate and High columns, but very low percentage, with the highest being 12 percent for medium, maximum 18 percent, and low with only 15 percent at the maximum.

- The first issue dealing with family friendly or dominating, received 60 percent and 25 percent in High and Moderate (both constituting 85 percent) classification of friendly category with tourism as the mode of change. Counter to this are 10 percent and five percent in low and medium (constituting 15 percent) of other source of change than tourism.

- Dealing with neighbor under friendly and dominating mode, friendly receives 59 percent and 23 percent in High and Moderate (both constituting 82 percent) of the tourism as the source of change as against two percent, three percent and 11 percent in High, Medium and Low columns of the 'other source' category. The role of tourism in this issue too is overwhelming.
- Should a person smoke freely or restrictively, 52 percent, 28 percent and two percent (a total of 84 percent) marked in High, Medium and Low columns in tourism as the source of change as counter to four percent, six percent and eight percent (total 18 percent) on High, Medium and Low categories of source as other factors.
- Alcoholic consumption, should it be freely or restrictively consumed, this section also received three percent, 28 percent and 50 percent (a total of 81 percent) in Low, Medium and High columns giving impression of value substantially changed by being in a tourism job. The other factors side received seven, seven and five percents to low, medium and high classification columns respectively.
- To a question whether they would prefer modern or traditional appliances at home, 60 percent of the respondents favored modern appliances (two percent, one percent and 48 percent to Low, Medium and High columns, respectively) where the source of conceptual adaptation was marked because of being in tourism. These figures on the other side record 15 percent, 14 percent and six percent in Low, Medium and High columns respectively, suggesting in a way that audiovisuals, friend circles or communities too have marked influence on the use of appliances at home. About five percent did, however, prefer traditional tools (presumably among traditional view) in the section of tourism as a source of change.

Findings – 8

- Likewise, the views presented by the respondents on agricultural tools preference, if one does so, 76 percent (42 percent and 34 percent respectively to High and Medium, none in low) preferred modern. About four percent also marked in traditional section of Medium and High. This much for tourism as a source of attitudinal change as against 15 percent

(five percent, three percent and seven percent for Low, Medium and High columns, respectively) for the source of change due to other factors. Here too five percent has been marked in the traditional application category.

- When asked whether one would have modern or traditional information system, only modern category appeared with very high share of about 72 percent (five percent, 16 percent and 51 percent in Low, Medium and High columns, respectively) in section of tourism as a source of conceptual change. This is countered by 28 percent (nine percent, 12 percent and seven percent in Low, Medium and High columns, respectively) as a source other than tourism.
- A question was prepared to know whether the respondents (especially hotel workers and trekking staff) had started already or thinking about engaging in other activities to provide a backup economy for their families. The category 'no change' marked about seven percent and 'changed' (that is done something for backup) marked about 56 percent in the tourism as factor of change category, suggesting that a substantial portion of people working in tourism do work or think for a backup economy. This in the other sources of change marks about 20 percent (seven percent, five percent and eight percent to Low, Medium and High, respectively). This suggest that a portion of people do see factors other than tourism that influence one's attitude in modernizing. Here too, four percent marked as unchanged.
- To see whether the respondents preferred to use new technologies, 52 percent (three percent, 15 percent and 34 percent in the Low, Medium and High columns, respectively) against five percent only still preferring no change to traditional system in tourism as 'other source' of change showed up with 35 percent (five percent, 18 percent and 12 percent in Low, Medium and High columns, respectively). This means that in modernizing farming, sources other than tourism too have a significant influence in the minds of those also working in the tourism field. Here too, about six percent said no change.
- When asked whether the respondents felt that saving was an important aspect today

(against no change in their thought), a substantial 70 percent (four percent, 22 percent and 46 percent in Low, Medium and High categories, respectively) responded that they favored saving concept and the source of inspiration came from the tourism sector. Twenty eight percent (four percent, 12 percent and 12 percent for Low, Medium and High categories, respectively) did say the source of change is other than tourism. The concept of only consumption did not receive any response.

- The last issue in the attitudinal change was related to whether they entered into or intended to get new memberships in any society (body), a substantial 65 percent (12 percent, 24 percent and 32 percent respectively in Low, Medium and High classifications) favored changed status, a situation they termed was as a result of having tourism jobs, as against none responding in 'no change' category. In sources other than tourism, about 20 percent were in changed status (eight percent, nine percent and three percent in Low, Medium and High columns, respectively) against 15 percent in 'no change' category.

The Combined Case Analysis:

The deductible table below from the above data overwhelmingly supports the tourism sector when it comes to the factors helping change the respondents' opinions. In all the columns, the big percentages points difference (70 to 25) sided with Tourism as a source of modern concepts. This means that because of interaction in tourism, the local role players had a lot of changes in their behaviors.

Table 50 : The Combined Case Analysis (Factors of Change)

N = 273

Issues →	Dealing with Family	Dealing with Neighbor	Dealing with Smoking	Dealing with Alcohol	Modern Home Appliance	Modern Agr. Tools	Modern Info. System	Back-up Eco. Activity	Modern Farming	Saving	New Membership	Average
	Change Factors											
Due to Tourism	85%	82%	82%	81%	60%	76%	72%	65%	52%	72%	65%	71%
Due to Other Factors	15%	16%	18%	19%	35%	15%	28%	20%	35%	28%	20%	23%
Pts. Difference	70	66	64	62	25	61	44	36	18	44	45	52

Also, the total figures percentile (combining all the three categories) on average respective to two sources of change, the difference we compute will be about 66 percent in tourism as the source of value change. This figure is about 23 percent for the other sources. These figures, however, should not be seen in absolute terms but as weightage catalyst to change and as such there could also be overlapping having the same person marking in both the sources of change. Traditional views i.e., unchanged concepts show a very low percentage.

Table 51: The Concluding Combined Case Analysis (Factors of Change)

Views	Tourism source	Other sources
Changed attitudes	66%	23%
Unchanged attitudes	2%	3%

A simple objective was to see from the perspectives of the respondents themselves that the changes brought them from sort of traditional attitude to the so called today's value-based situations.

From the perspective of the respondents, reasons were sought whether or not they felt

some extent of change in their respective issue-wise behaviors. Then the source of such change, for example, whether it was because of tourism, or other factors (audiovisuals, friends or, communities). The answers were put into three categories, such as Low, Moderate and High. The responses here in the table also encompass their preference to adopt changes if he/she wherever capacitated in the future and not only on the grounds of what they were at present.

Well, on all the eleven issues, an overwhelming majority pointed out in favor of tourism as the source of change with high percentage markings on High and Moderate categories of the columns in the questionnaire. The combined table makes it amply clear that tourism remains the major source of change in attitudes, confirming the field outcome to interaction and capability change in terms of attitudinal aspects.

CHAPTER: VII

CASE STUDIES/ OBSERVATIONS

The following cases are presented here so that the observations from the primary and the secondary sources are matched for compatibility and authentication. The cases are the product of the present study field visits as well as from the experiences of the researcher himself in many years of experience in the tourism field. There could be as many cases of observations and remarks noted by this researcher but only a few of them have been presented. They are in the forms of case studies, observations and discussions and relate to the present topics of capability enhancement in Skill, Knowledge and Attitudinal aspects. Self-motivated engagements in the job are also fairly noted. They will be overlapping in the type sub-headings simply because it would be rather difficult to isolate just one or the other aspect at a time as all the concerned three aspects in the present study generally exhibit simultaneously as the total quality in an institution.

7.1 Case History:

12) Presently a director of Shambhala Trekking Co., Mr. X. Ghale narrated how he progressed in tourism. With zero schooling background, he was a common porter and later a transport driver outside of Kathmandu. He even transported ghee and butter to the government dairy in Kathmandu before joining tourism later around in 2023 BS.

Mr. Ghale started his tourism job after he took the training of a trekking guide in Kathmandu and started to work as a trekking guide and at times even as a trekking porter. He says he slowly developed confidence due to job association and started to handle more jobs entrusted to him by trekking companies. A sort of self-confidence was generated in him for taking newer risks as he developed job skills and knowledge of handling.

Motivation, he says, was automatic because there was, as he saw it, the economy, the confidence and, above all, a full future prospect. In the course of working, that is, interaction with the tourists, he adds, he developed language conversation skill alongside many other skills and knowledge. He said he became more open to the situation and learning. Presently he speaks English and French language fluently. During the conversation with the researcher, he valued equally the three aspects - skill, knowledge and the attitudinal adaptation. "It was all due to my self motivation that I'm at this

stage", he concludes. Self motivation was one of the respondents' main responses in entering the field of tourism.

He worked 12 years in a trekking company and started his own trekking equipment shop and later his own trekking company in collaboration with some friends. He received trekking advanced course from France, selected through Nepal Mountaineering Association (1983). Follow up courses were done in Nepal and later in France. French institution called United International Association of Alpinism gave him a title of Mountaineering Instructor.

He is familiar with ski, parachuting, rock climbing, mountain rescue and other trekking technicalities apart from regular trekking jobs. He is in the process of being recognized as an International Mountain Guide along with few other Nepalese mountaineering folks.

If an unschooled Ghale could start from a scratch to such a height in his career with now a very high capability, obviously interaction with self-motivated activities/jobs has to be appreciated and recognized.

2. A Gurung boy of 22 years from Ghandruk village completed schooling up to class seven with a relative's support in Chomrong. Initially, he worked in a kitchen as an apprentice at a local company set up some seven years ago. He said that he learned cooking by practice without having any formal training. He now commands the entire menu recipes of the tourists' requirements in the area. He converses fairly well with the tourists who come for the reception, as described by the boy himself. On asking how he could develop such skills and understandings of the job, he said that he learned them all by working (interaction) with the tourists. He told the researcher that he wished to have his own similar complex in the future. In fact, the researcher noticed that he alone was handling all kinds of activities including food service, house keeping and so on, including as a receptionist to the tourists.

In his absence, however, the hotel owner (educated up to class ten), the hotel lady and their 12 year-old-daughter would do the needful. Interaction as an effective schooling is amply illustrated here.

7.2 Observations:

1. It was late evening time in one of the tourist hotels in Birethanti, when most of the courses of routine works seemed over, the lady owner of the hotel was instructing the girl worker (a Tharu girl from a Tarai village in this case) about how to appear and approach before a foreign guest. The researcher was also present in the same room. She was letting her know that her gesture should be

welcoming and smiling while presenting her for a service. She was also explaining her that she should keep herself clean, tidy, be present and courteous (The case here relates more to the attitudinal aspects).

13) Even the elderly women (old ladies at their 70's) attended the receptions for guests and tried to market their products/services. The researcher bought cold drinks from them. This shows, among others, the sustainability at a much marginalized part of society. Finding a niche for the very marginalized for the culmination of skill and adoptability is quite interesting. Capability enhancement has no age limit if it is supported by self-motivation.

14) Local people, whose primary occupation remained agriculture, seemed enthusiastic to take advantage of the fluid tourism opportunities by starting up at least a minimum of cold drinks and general stores, and making provisions for providing dal/bhat (cooked rice and lentil soup). They make additional incomes to their already subsistence farming and in the process build up their management capabilities in multifaceted ways, as have been explained in this thesis on a variety of occasions.

15) This researcher noticed a SLC-level trekking guide (in a restaurant premise en route to the Annapurna Base Camp) being very fluent and conversant with his foreign client trekker. In a talk with him later, it was found that he had just entered the mountain guide job, about two years ago. Skills alongside knowledge and attitudinal changes take place fast if the participation is self-propelled and looks prosperous and sustaining to the stakeholder.

16) On a number of occasions this researcher observed (at Ekal Bhatti and Muktinath) that young workers and especially the girls from far and wide villages of the country being engaged as staffers in a majority of the hotels. This is obviously a good sign in so far as there are opportunities of skill, knowledge and attitudinal changes to gain through job related opportunities of interactions for the disadvantaged and marginalized.

17) This observation relates to, among others, the self-motivation and the language skill and behavioral sides. Even though this case is not directly related, as it is not from the research field area observation, it seemed to me an important support to the present study. This researcher had been to Lhasa, the capital of the Autonomous Region of Tibet, China. It was relatively late that night when this researcher returned to the hotel, generally meant for Chinese guests. The local Tibetan girl who was a room keeper approached the researcher with a cup of tea as a hospitality gesture and requested being taught English language (English being important in the job situations) with a book in her hand.

This situation is being retold here just to cite an example of how self-volunteered interactions are encouraged if the stakeholder sees the activities of his/her choice and prospects. A very important

case of skill development and attitudinal change due to self motivation and owning indeed.

18) Language improvement as part of skill development at the level of conversation can easily be observed in case of hawkers in the tourists' areas in the lanes and the Durbar squares of Kathmandu, Pokhara and most tourists' visit centers. These people including kids are seen conversant some times in more than one foreign language. This is a very clear-cut example of language part of job skill development and learning the tourists' behaviors, among others.

19) Tourism and its multiplier influence can be observed at the tourists' movement routes where different activities commence alongside. This researcher observed vegetables and cold drinks vendors, utilities repairers, and other petty traders with various kinds from Terai (the plains) and other districts doing trade with hotels in the trekking routes around the Ghandruk region.

7.3 Discussions:

1. The same Tharu girl worker (Observation case 1) when she was approached later by this researcher for a talk, she applauded her progress made so far in understanding the job she handled and developing English language conversation skills. She was in her first year of service.

2. Even though this young Gurung owner was academically master's in geography from Pokhara University, he very openly adopted the tourism hotel/lodge business in the Syaulibazar trekking route to Ghandruk town, having admired the prospects associated with the job, in a discussion with this researcher. He explained how he has been more self-motivated in the tourism field and more seriously concerned about the environment, community participation and about behaving with the clients. When this researcher met him, he was already involved in many community activities.

3. In a discussion in one of the restaurants in Syaulibazar, this researcher was told that business management team in most of the lodge/restaurants consisted of family members with equal numbers from male and female genders. In terms of developing management skills, knowledge and even the attitudinal behaviors, such volunteer participation of especially the family members is highly encouraged in terms of human (resource) development at the grassroots units which otherwise would have been idle, untrained, unemployed and finally non-resourceful, in a simple term. And this applies to many such cases if one considers the country as a whole.

In fact, the researcher at different occasions observed that female seemed more involved and active in hotel/restaurants, male members of the family being involved in jobs outside the town (a

double income system). Such cases thus relate to gender equality, attitude, and productive engagements.

f. An elderly entrepreneur from a Dalit (underprivileged) community in the Kimche village area en route to Ghandruk village narrated at length how he had to face a lot of resistance by the alien community in accepting the opening of a tourist lodge/restaurant in the area. As he represented a low caste family, he said things did not go well on a daily basis with the restaurant business during the initial phases. However, the prospects and pride of a self-owned business in tourism did not let him feel down. He rather felt more committed and continued the business despite resistance. He is quite satisfied with the job. The researcher had tea during the chat.

g. The proprietor of a tourist hotel in Ghandruk narrated to the researcher how a worker has to be trained and trimmed for his job. He said that a complete guidance and supervision is required to get a job done as per the tourists' requirement (a view substantially unappreciated by the worker respondents, who preferred freedom than strictness, see table 3/skill). This owner's view is interesting for one to know how the owner is keen in presenting his hotel jobs in a better manner by 'owning' the process of service. A sense of serious involvement/interaction with the job, self-motivation and owning.

h. During another discussion, the same hotel owner from Ghandruk narrated to the researcher how a worker from villages did not like to remain longer days with their families when they take leave from the hotel. It was interesting to note his comments when he said that these employees at home did not get as good a food as in the hotel, lodging and environment with the same cleanliness and taste as in tourist-class hotels, and as such they like to come back sooner.

This case presents us with two explanations. First, that workers also learn the qualitative aspects that has to be followed in life and, second, that they learn to follow practically and not only the intellectual part of it. This case presents us also with how the real interaction in the job/activities situations would have direct and multiplier effects rather than simpler and prescribed participation, a case to reckon with.

In fact, in an instant during the study trip, one of the hotel workers even resorted to saying that if they were to stay at their home in the villages, they would not know many things that they learn from the Europeans.

7. This case relates to a barely literate Tharu girl from the plains of Nepal at a tourist hotel en route to Annapurna Base Camp. In a discussion with the researcher she said that she made a significant progress in knowing the foreign language, cooking all kinds of food offered on the menu, maintaining

the required hygiene and even maintaining the inventories. She also admitted that she has more things to learn during the course of time, further letting us to conclude that she understands well the prospects of skill, knowledge developments and attitudinal adaptations.

8. American tourists generally show individual position and insist on ordering from the menu. They like to ask for food but do not show that they really liked it. They order more items from the menu but generally leave lots of waste, which is not very encouraging for the people around. It makes them think that the food may have a bad taste. Whereas Europeans like French, Germans and Britishers try to show that they liked the food and are tidy in completing the course ordered. They order what they want and eat it showing their liking to the taste. Owners, workers and other tourism field staff generally come across many such occasions where they avail to understand the different nature of guests and thus become polished in the service and knowing nature and behaviors.

9. This researcher repeatedly observed a group of U.S. tourists also at different occasions in relation to the food behavior. The observations on most occasions were similar to what was remarked by the hotelier above. Such observations are also noted in researches on tourism motivation on a number of occasions as reported by Chlwon Kin, Texas A&M University, USA.

10. In the route towards the Annapurna Base Camp, in the winter and in the rainy season when the tourists' flow slows down and is at the ebb, there is a rotational compromise and arrangements within the tourists' hotel service. As there would be no full flow of tourists to occupy most of the hotels in the area, only one hotel runs in the route past Bamboo. This is done on a yearly basis alternatively with the hotels of the area on a rotational basis. One hotelier of a particular area offers the service for a dry season, as it would not be wise to open all the hotel capacity for a few seasonal tourists. However, the keys of other hotels are at their disposal as a backup to accommodate tourists in case of a big group's arrival.

CHAPTER – VIII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

Nepal being a poor country with a poor human development record has since its development plan periods (1954) been experimenting through different development models to uplift the economy. While most of the models involving people remained unsatisfactory in the overall development terms, they all seemed to be in common about the need for stakeholders' involvement in various possible ways. More and more being emphasized on the quality of participation of local people at all levels of decision-making.

Successful economies are seen to embrace the mobilization of domestic resources and not the foreign aid in the pursuit of capacity building (Pandey, 2002; 12). It is important to use the local level people and the locally supported other resources as far as possible. It is to avoid the imported ones by replacing the locals to the interactions, instead.

Nepal, identified as having varied tourists' attractions, recognizes tourism also as one of the valid resource of employment and the local economy generation. It is in this situation that this research tries to adopt the niche of tourism and local units interaction that exemplifies the upgrading of the capability of the local institutions (a person, group, community and formal institution), which this research explored through human resource development concept. This concept incorporates the human capability development through skill development, knowledge expansion and attitudinal change. This has also been explained by De Cenzo and Robbins Stephen. Learning or social learning, the writers note that learning is enhanced when the learner is motivated (De Cenzo and Robbins 1998; 242).

As one goes through the secondary information of the review of this research, one finds that the theories and the practices both point to the interaction of the stakeholders as of the prime concern, be it development, empowerment, institution development, capacity enhancement or the human development, as per different writers' perspectives. The more one finds the newer theories introduced the more human side is being emphasized for the interaction (usually in terms of participation) at various and extensive levels. It is therefore in the quality of participation and condition of participation that most of the theories of development, local self government, INGOs/NGOS, decentralization concepts, basic needs models, social capital, community approaches, institution developments, human development concepts and so on, rely the overall capability development of the stakeholders.

This, on the researcher's part, has tried to see through broader sense of human resource

development comprising of skill development, knowledge/understanding expansion and attitudinal changes (behavioral changes), which are equated with capability development. Human Resource Development sometimes is interpreted in a rather narrower sense by some writers especially in the context of a business establishment only.

That interaction culminates in capability enhancement, more so when it originates from the self-motivation under freedom from the interacting agents themselves. More the self-motivation and freedom involved, more the quality of participation in action and more the productivity and the realization and the continuity of the chain.

This researcher finds that the theories so far discussed in the secondary data and in other chapters of this research have thus far been presenting skill, knowledge and behavioral concerns of the human side and its capacity development as a means as well as the very end in itself. The theme of the broader term of human resource development as per this researcher could easily be concluded.

The local capability building, which refer to individual and institutional capacity building (Saburo, 1999; 30), must be given special attention for making the two capable such that one will be capacitated for voluntary participation, self help, and income generation and institutionally for facilitating collectively autonomous functioning for local administration, social mobilization, leadership development and self-sustaining economy generation (Saburo, 1999; 29, 30).

As people self-engaged in the interaction with the acclaimed tourism job in their destination, it becomes imperative for the local institutions to guard the extra and unlawful depletion of their socio-economic and natural milieu, but develop products to the likings of the tourists in a sustainable way.

The researcher finds that due to interaction between the hotel owners, hotel workers and the trekking staff with tourists and the related role activities, skill develops in terms of doing the job providing research support to the hypothesis presented.

That the above interactions have shown significant changes (development) in the state of knowledge/understanding among the local/field stakeholders; thus, they support the cause for the hypothesis.

That the interactions have brought significant changes in the attitudinal condition of the participants, providing a base for the verification for behavioral changes.

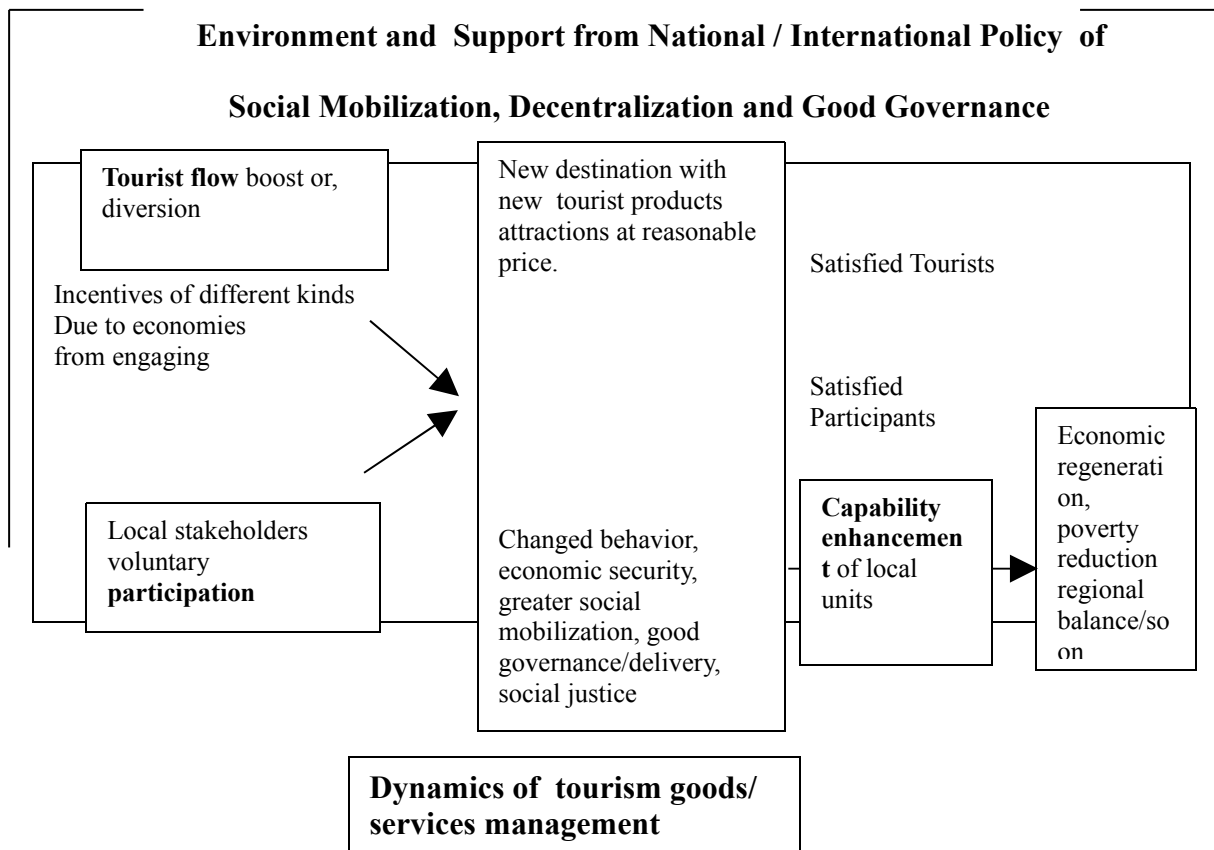
One can establish that skill, knowledge and attitudinal aspects combined to be human resource development aspects are enhanced through tourism interactions. That the maximum output is expected

in the condition of self-motivation and free interaction.

Under the given circumstances of low education background of the majority among the local stakeholders, it is the interaction that is the most effective tool of developing language and leadership, activating community participation, modernizing concepts and values and norms.

Ironically, one could conclude that the present hypothesis is not only valid in case of tourism, but also any other socio-political and economic programs (which is also amply supported by the secondary data of this research). In other words, the way this study concludes for the field of tourism and the resultant effects of the interactions between different actors and activities related with it, the same way these findings would hold equal validity in other sectors of the public and private activities as well and that it remains compatible with all the human-centered concepts gone through in the secondary information reviews. Volunteer participation (willingness to participate) that finds prospects for the stakeholders, guarantees sustenance and provides for motivation.

The conceptual framework by researcher makes it easy to understand the process as has been analyzed so far. The figure below explains how in the overall terms public policy environment, the tourism and the local stakeholder converge in the interplay dynamics (interactions of give and take) to result to the capacity enhancement of local institutions. This is shown as further leading to economic regeneration (as savings and investments start to work), and poverty reduction and thus the regional balance in the final result.



The local institutions gear up for economic prosperity and in their way tourists get motivated due to new destination products and price, and other incentive packages. The dynamics of tourists and self-motivated local stakeholders render in (both) the changed behavior, economic security, social mobilization, good delivery, and social justice (the latter two being the government's worries towards its citizens).

Interaction automatically serves to the stakeholders as a way of training and retraining component in skill development, educating one during the process and as one develops leading to wide and accommodating behavioral changes through alterations in attitude, beliefs, values, and so on. People learn more as skill develops and educate one more because there is a voluntary motivating (economic) aspect within, which generally other kinds of prescribed or imposed way of participation (interaction) lack. In the process, the role of 'owning' in the interaction remains lacking in such forced or prescribed interaction. In the self-motivated participation, one can assume that this owning factor has a role to play resulting in the overall capability (skill, education and behavior change) enhancement

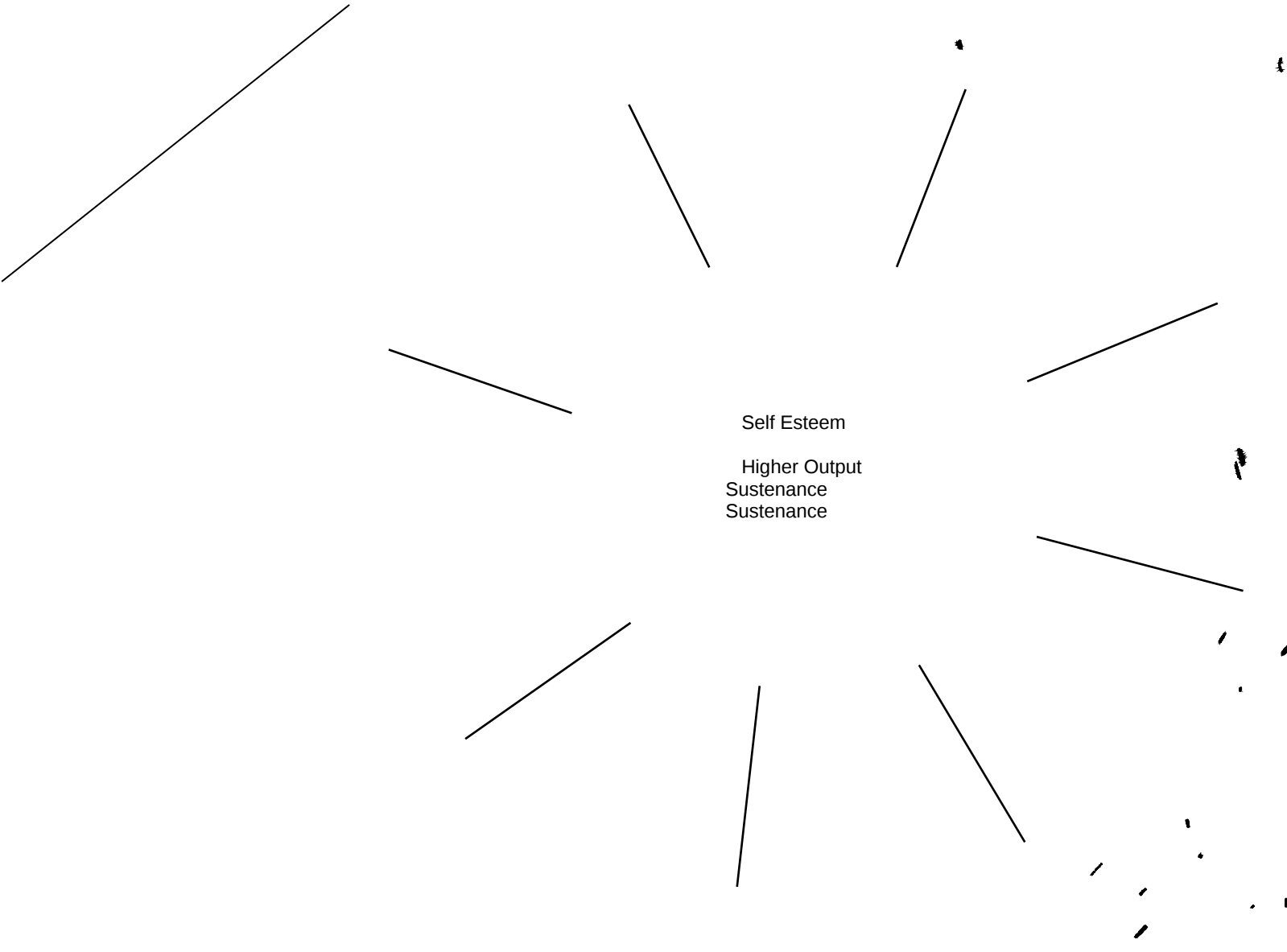
leading to human resource development in a broader sense.

Communication ability is best enhanced by sustained interaction among different groups. Interaction in the job with its actors renders more confidence in the job situation and elsewhere in life. The self-motivated participation helps beget a sense of belonging, vigor and zeal in the job performed. It also helps to strengthen commitment. It promotes learning fast and provides a sense of sustenance and growth. Self-esteem, confidence building and the final output in different situations of challenges are enhanced. It is self-motivation culmination and with it develops responsibility towards the job. (Kalpana Arora also shares such experience in her writings in the June 8, 2008 issue of the Himalayan Times).

Just like the different socio-economic approaches to development refer the participation (interaction) to cause the changes in skill, knowledge and attitudinal aspects for the capability enhancement, likewise retrospectively one needs to understand that capability enhancement as an end to explain the different development approaches including the social capital, human development, institution buildings and so on and so forth, up to human resource development.

Care should be taken to create a sense of volunteering in the participation where self-motivation is of prime concern. One gets into self-culmination of capability and hence the human resource development. This happens when one anticipates the prospects of sustenance and benefits for a long run. Care should also be taken to minimize as far as possible for the prescribed or instructed, outlined or dependent type of participation where interactions are less owned.

HUMAN MODELS IN HARMONY

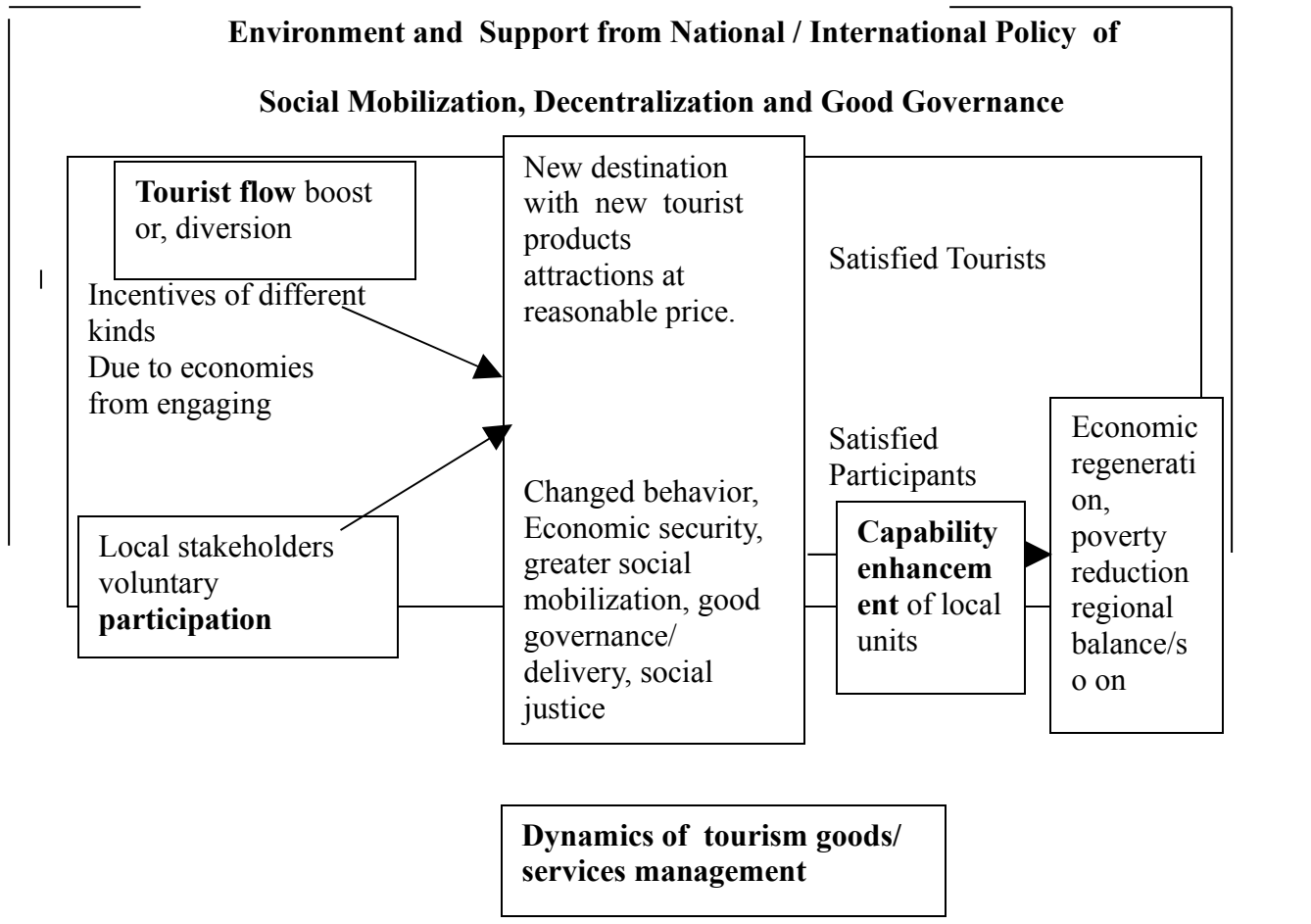


Source: Harsh N. Bhandari
Text of the fig. above.

The conceptual frame work simplified by researcher through the following figure:

Interaction and Capacity Enhancement

Fig:



Suggestions:

An ancient Chinese proverb reads: “If you give people fish you feed them for a day, but if you teach them how to fish, they can feed themselves for a lifetime” (Ellerman, 2002; 43).

There has been a paradigm shift in the approach and engagement of the different development and human-centered approaches but the outcomes have not been significant in relation to capacities and economic status of the targeted communities, remarks Chapagain in his PhD thesis (2004, 2). His views are that those problem focused approaches and the methodologies used in fact impeded the deliberations ignoring to what actually the society needed. These were generation of not only the economy, finance and physics, but more importantly so, the realm of human skills, knowledge,

attitudes, feelings, perceptions and perspectives (3).

The local capability building, which refer to individual and institutional capacity building (Saburo 1999; 30), must be given special attention for making the two compatible such that one will be capacitated for voluntary participation, self help, and income generation and institutionally for facilitating collectively autonomous functioning for local administration, social mobilization, leadership development and self sustaining economy generation (29, 30).

It could be in a way concluded that for the bad performances of development models at the local level as lacking the genuine participation (the projects being supply driven) and lack of transparency (lacking minimum public accountability) (Gurung, 1998; 18), thus supporting for the programs where genuine participation is extended in a variety of ways. Thus under the pretext that self-motivated interaction (genuine participation) expands the capability of the local institutions, the following suggestions could be forwarded.

- To extend interaction activities in all the sectors of society including agriculture, health, education, administration and even the political stratum including community works. These areas should be given extra care as these sectors hold structural parameters of the country's socio-economy and could be very significant in positive or negative ways in national terms. Any small policy change in these areas will result in a phenomenal difference.

In case of tourism, for example, sectors involving less population like bungee jumping, paragliding and so on could remain sub-ordinate to sectors such as trekking, expeditions, hotel service and visits to exclusive areas like Mustang, Dolpo and heritage cites.

- Decentralized concept of (tourism) interaction (polycentric participation) providing maximum stretch of interaction at the local level and providing the local institutions, the regulation and financial conduction to the cause of development at the local level.
- To take a good attention of the negative changes that could be developed including negative social capital formation at the very outset when interaction is promoted (for example negative activities like brothels, gambling, gay club activities and drug uses/misuses) and streamline it at the local level.
- As seen through the research, interaction promotes capability of the stakeholders, so special care should be taken to motivate people to interact by luring the actors (the tourists and the local institutions) to the destinations by developing and reinventing the media for interactions

(tourists' products).

- The motivating factors may include tax and visa rebates, reasonable pricing, advertisements, medium products development, safety and so on, whatever is deemed appropriate. The theme should be to increase interaction at all levels for capacity enhancement, especial deliberations in poorer regions of the nation.

Experts suggest encouraging tourism activities in Far and Mid Western Development Regions of the country such that that will divert flow of visitors from the already heavy-traffic tourist destinations, which moreover have already shown signs of negative impacts (Hawk and Holden, 1994; 41).

- Thus the flow of the visitors could be motivated to these areas by way of introducing some sort of special incentive scheme. As one such region gets its institutions independently sustainable in their capabilities to handle activities on its own – say after a stipulated period of three years – the modus could be applied to other preferred regions of the country in the same fashion. A rolling model.
- To provide for specialization and refining/updating trainings at the local levels including helping to establish connections with the national and international bodies related to the cause (in this case, tourism).
- To encourage activities that involve more of the local/domestic working members compared with something involving less working members, for example, camp trekking vis-à-vis tea house/individual trekking. The basic idea would be to have optimum (interaction) contact opportunities for the workers, which will provide for human development as well as the economy, for an individual and the country as a whole.
- The government should provide the policy and the required infra-structural support as a catalyst and leave the rest of the total management activities to the institutions at the local level.

Saburo cites instance of the UN body identifying development with participation as synonym, and thus he says that capacity building covers all aspects of human well being in terms of a) technical skill b) organizational and management skills (this researcher thinks that this qualifies as educational part of the research) and the behavioral and negotiating skills (behavioral part of the research) (Saburo, 1999; 43). This concept of the UN will qualify us to see HRD in terms of overall development (participation) in the real sense.

- It may also be suggested to open up as needed. For example, instead of charging tourists more for the remoteness of places, charge them less or nothing at all to boost the possible interactions between visitors and the local units at a broader base. This might help realize the socio-economic capacity enhancement through multiplier chains of impacts.
- It can be seen that there could be a number of areas where one could venture for future research. It is such a vast area that mentioning only a few would be unfair. All the areas are open. However, some pertinent and relevant areas for further research could be about increasing the tourists' flows, type of activities for more interaction opportunities between parties and devolution of power for conducting business at the destinations. Many more areas could be explored.

A number of development theories have been through with the focus on poor and the poverty reduction, but none of these models seem to have the all-acceptable paradigms (Bongart and Dahal, 1999; 52). This leads us to understand that concepts and practices of one form or the other are nevertheless a continuous process of nearing more and more towards effecting and modifying the unit of the process (stakeholder).

However, in the field of tourism, the government could be silent in fund release, meaning that the government is not required to pump significant public funds, so scarce for countries like Nepal. The tourists would be the resource generators, who avail of the hospitality and various products designed for them. The public policy will be like a catalyst, with its supportive, promotional and protective role.

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