Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development Through Intangible Cultural Heritage: An Empirical Study

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT FOR THE

DEGREE OF

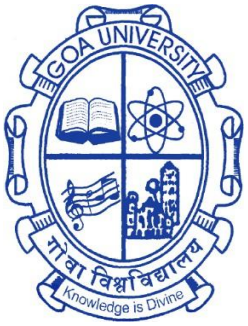
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

IN

COMMERCE

IN THE GOA BUSINESS SCHOOL

GOA UNIVERSITY



By

Mr. Sadanand Prakash Gaonkar

Research Centre in Commerce at Sant Sohirobanath Ambiye,

Government College of Arts and Commerce, Virnoda, Pernem, Goa

Goa University, Goa

February 2025

DECLARATION

I, Mr. Sadanand Prakash Gaonkar, hereby declare that this thesis represents work which I have carried out and that it has not been submitted, either in part or in full, to any other University or Institution for the award of any research degree.

Place: Taleigao, Plateau.
Date: 07th February 2025

Mr. Sadanand Prakash Gaonkar

CERTIFICATE

I hereby certify that the above Declaration of the candidate, Mr. Sadanand Prakash Gaonkar, is true, and the work was carried out under my supervision.

Dr. Sitaram. V. Sukthankar

Associate Professor
Vice Principal (PG Programmes)
Government College of Arts, Science and Commerce, Khandola, Marcela, Goa

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

A thesis report is a golden opportunity for learning and self-development for me. It is a golden addition to my syllabus, which allowed me to use my practical skills and knowledge to study a particular subject. It gives me great pleasure to bring out this thesis titled **"Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development Through Intangible Cultural Heritage: An Empirical Study".**

"Success is the result of perfection and hard work". This hard work can reap its fruits only under proper guidance and cooperation. Keeping this in mind, first and foremost, I praise the **Almighty God** for blessing me with the opportunity to work on this thesis and guiding me through this journey. With his countless blessings, I could fulfil this challenging task and overcome any obstacles that came my way.

I sincerely thank my supervisor and research guide, **Dr. Sitaram V. Sukthankar,** Associate Professor, Vice Principal (PG Programmes) of Government College of Arts, Science and Commerce, Khandola, Marcela-Goa, for his invaluable guidance, unwavering support, and insightful feedback throughout this research endeavour. His expertise and encouragement have been instrumental in shaping the direction and quality of this thesis.

My special thanks to the Department Research Committee (DRC) members, **Prof. Subhash K. B.,** Professor, Goa Business School, Goa University, and **Prof. Filipe Rodrigues e Melo,** Former Principal, Sant Sohirobanath Ambiye Government College of Arts and Commerce, Pernem-Goa, for their valuable suggestions and constructive criticisms. Their advice during the DRC meetings guided me in the right direction in my research work.

I thank **Goa Business School, Goa University** and **Research Centre in Sant Sohirobanath Ambiye, Government College of Arts and Commerce, Virnoda Pernem-Goa,** and **Government College of Arts, Science and Commerce, Khandola, Marcela-Goa,** for providing the necessary resources and facilities for conducting this research.

I am also profoundly thankful to the organisations and authorities of the **Goa Tourism Development Corporation (GTDC), the Department of Tourism (DoT), Goa, and the Directorate of Art and Culture** for their constructive criticism, valuable suggestions, and commitment to excellence. Their expertise and dedication have significantly enriched this

work. Furthermore, I express my heartfelt gratitude to all the **participants** who generously contributed their time and insights to this study, without whom this research would not have been possible.

Special thanks are also to my brothers and sisters, **Mr. Ravindra Gaunker, Mr. Manish Gaonkar, Ms. Priti Gaonkar,** and **Ms. Siya Velip,** for the constant help in data collection and feeding. I am also thankful to my research colleagues, **Ms. Relita Fernandes, Mr. Satish Rane, Ms. Sarvesha Dhaimodkar,** and **Ms. Shilpa Korde,** for their continuous encouragement, understanding, and motivation during challenging times.

I sincerely thank the **Office Staff of MBA (I) in Hospitality and Tourism** for their invaluable support throughout my research journey. Their prompt with clerical and administrative tasks helped me navigate the complexities of my research work.

Lastly, I am indebted to **my parents, Mr. Prakash Gaonkar and Ms. Pratibha Gaonkar,** for their unconditional love, encouragement, and sacrifices that have sustained me throughout this academic journey. Their unwavering support has been my pillar of strength. This thesis culminates many individuals' collective efforts and support, and I am truly grateful for their contributions.

To those who have helped in different ways, directly or indirectly, and I might have missed mention unknowingly, my heartiest thanks for all the prayers, encouragement, and suggestions towards this thesis.

Mr. Sadanand Prakash Gaonkar

This thesis is dedicated to my beloved parents for their unconditional love, unwavering support, and endless encouragement. I am deeply grateful for your sacrifices and everything you have done to help me reach this milestone.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Table of Contents I
List of Tables IX
List of Figures XII
Abstract XIII
List of Abbreviations XVII

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Defining Tourism 1
1.2 Defining Culture 2
1.3 Defining Cultural Tourism 4
1.4 Significance of Cultural Tourism 7
1.5 Concept of Cultural Heritage 10
1.6 Sustainability and Culture 11
1.7 Cultural Tourism in Goa, India 13
1.7.1 Historical and Colonial Influence 14
1.7.2 Architecture 15
1.7.3 Music and Dance 15
1.7.4 Festivals and Celebrations 16
1.7.5 Cuisine 17
1.7.6 Art and Handicrafts 18
1.7.7 Traditional Goan Attire 19
1.7.8 Traditional Goan Occupation 19
1.7.9 Language and Literature 20
1.8 Statement of Research Problem 20
1.8.1 Dynamic Tourists' Influx 20
1.8.2 Challenges for the Protection of Cultural Sustainability 21
1.8.3 Economic Potential of ICH 23
1.9 Research Questions 24
1.10 Objectives of the Study 25
1.10.1 Objective I: To assess the cultural tourism potential demand and supply through intangible cultural heritage resources 25
1.10.2 Objective II: To examine the structural dimensions influencing tourists' satisfaction, their behavioural intentions to revisit, and their actual behaviour towards intangible cultural heritage resources 26
1.10.3 Objective III: To investigate the factors influencing the residents' perceived cultural impact, attitudes, and support for cultural tourism through intangible cultural heritage resources 26

1.10.4 Objective IV: To design a sustainable cultural tourism development model through intangible cultural heritage resources 26
1.11 Significance of the Study 27
1.12 Scope of the Study 27

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction 29
2.2 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria 30
2.3 Keywords for Database Search 31
2.4 Initial Data Statistics 31
2.5 Review Analysis 33
2.5.1 Concept-Wise Distribution of Articles 33
2.5.1.1 Cultural Tourism 33
2.5.1.2 Tourism Potentialities 36
2.5.1.3 Behavioural Intention 40
2.5.1.4 Tourist Motivation 41
2.5.1.5 Tourists' Destination Image 43
2.5.1.6 Tourist's Memorable Experience 44
2.5.1.7 Tourists' Satisfaction 45
2.5.1.8 Community Attachment and Community Involvement 47
2.5.1.9 Resident's Perceived Impact 49
2.5.1.10 Resident Attitude 51
2.5.1.11 Cultural Sustainability 52
2.5.1.12 Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development 55
2.5.2 Source-wise Articles Distribution 57
2.5.3 Article Publication Timeline 59
2.5.4 Corresponding Authors' Countries 60
2.5.5 Network Analysis 62
2.5.5.1 Co-authorship by Authors 62
2.5.5.2 Author's Keyword Co-occurrences 64
2.5.6 Distribution of Articles Based on the Research Methodology 66
2.5.6.1 Type of Research Study 66
2.5.6.2 Type of Data Collected 67
2.5.6.3 Nature of Data Collection 67
2.5.6.4 Sampling Unit 68
2.5.6.5 Sampling Method 69
2.5.6.6 Sample Size 70

2.5.6.7 Statistical Techniques 70
2.6 Identification of Research Gap 72
2.6.1 Knowledge Gap 72
2.6.2 Theoretical Gap 72
2.6.3 Empirical Gap 76
2.6.4 Methodological Gap 77
2.6.5 Geographical Gap 77

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction 78
3.2 Research Design 78
3.2.1 Step 1. Preliminary Study and Initial Item/Variable Generation 80
3.2.1.1 Observation Method 80
3.2.1.2 Defining Research Problem 80
3.2.1.3 Study the Literature Review and Existing Theories 81
3.2.1.4 Identification of Research Gap, Formulating Research Questions, Research Objectives and Research Hypotheses 81
3.2.2 Step 2: Variables and Instrument Development 81
3.2.2.1 Questionnaire Designing 81
3.2.2.1.a Questionnaire for Tourists 82
3.2.2.1.b Questionnaire for Residents' 83
3.2.2.2 Content Validity 83
3.2.2.3 Constructs Measurement 84
3.2.3 Step 3: Pilot Testing- Refinement and Finalisation of the Instrument 85
3.2.3.1 Face Validity 86
3.2.3.2 Universe of Study 86
3.2.3.3 Period of the Study 88
3.2.3.4 Unit of Analysis 88
3.2.3.5 Sample Design 89
3.2.3.5.a Sample Technique 89
3.2.3.5.b Sample Size 90
3.2.3.6 Sources of Data Collection 91
3.2.3.6.a Primary Data 91
3.2.3.6.b Secondary Data 92
3.2.3.7 Survey Method of Data Collection 92
3.2.3.8 Pilot Test Results 92

3.2.4 Step 4: Final Data Collection 96
3.2.5 Step 5: Validity Assessment 97
3.2.5.1 Normality Test 97
3.2.5.2 Multicollinearity Test 97
3.2.5.3 Common Method Bias using the Harman Single Factor Method 97
3.2.5.4 Construct Reliability Test 98
3.2.5.4.a Cronbach Alpha 98
3.2.5.4.b Composite Reliability 99
3.2.5.5 Constructs Validity Test 99
3.2.5.5.a Convergent Validity 99
3.2.5.5.b Discriminant Validity 100
3.2.5.6 Data Analysis Tools and Techniques 102
3.2.5.6.a Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Analysis 102
3.2.5.6.b Modified Du Cros Matrix 102
3.2.5.6.c Correlation Matrix 102
3.2.5.6.d Exploratory Factor Analysis 103
3.2.5.6.e Partial Least Squares-Structural Equation Modelling 103
3.2.5.6.f Mediation Analysis 104
3.2.5.6.g Moderation Analysis 105
3.3 Typology of Cultural Tourism 106
3.4 Typology of Cultural Tourists 108
3.5 Operational Definitions of the Study 109
3.6 Chapterisation of the Scheme 113

Chapter 4: Assessing the Potential Demand and Supply of Cultural Tourism through ICH Resources

4.1 Introduction 116
4.2 Theoretical Framework 116
4.2.1 Du Cros Model of Tourism Potentialities 117
4.2.1.1 Introduction to the Du Cros Model 117
4.2.1.2 Application of Du Cros Model 120
4.3 Modified Du Cros Model of Cultural Tourism Potentialities 121
4.4 Results and Interpretation 126
4.4.1 Data Distribution and Normality 126
4.4.2 Testing of Biasness in the Data 127
4.4.3 Reliability and Validity of Measurement Model 128
4.4.4 Tourists Valorisation 131

Chapter 5: Factors Influencing Tourists' Behavioural Intentions to Revisit ICH Resources

5.1 Introduction 134
5.2 Theoretical Framework 134
5.2.1 Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) 135
5.2.1.1 Introduction to TPB 135
5.2.1.2 Application of TPB Model 138
5.3 Extended TPB Model 139
5.3.1 The Influence of Tourists' Attitudes on Their Satisfaction and Behavioural Intentions to Revisit 141
5.3.2 The Influence of Tourists' Subjective Norms on Their Satisfaction and Behavioural Intentions to Revisit 142
5.3.3 The Influence of Tourists' Perceived Behavioural Control on Their Satisfaction and Behavioural Intentions to Revisit 143
5.3.4 The Influence of Tourists' Motivation on Their Satisfaction and Behavioural Intentions to Revisit 145
5.3.5 The Influence of Tourists' Destination Image on Their Satisfaction and Behavioural Intentions to Revisit 146
5.3.6 The Influence of Tourists' Memorable Experience on Their Satisfaction and Behavioural Intentions to Revisit 147
5.3.7 The Influence of Tourists' Satisfaction on Their Behavioural Intentions to Revisit 149
5.3.8 The Influence of Tourists' Behavioural Intention to Revisit ICH Resources on Their Actual Behaviour 150
5.3.9 Simple Mediating Effect of Tourists' Satisfaction 151
5.4 Results and Interpretation 156
5.4.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents 156
5.4.2 Data Distribution and Normality 157
5.4.3 Testing of Biasness in the Data 158
5.4.4 Reliability and Validity of Measurement Model 159
5.4.5 Structural Model of Extended TPB 164
5.4.6 Testing of Hypotheses 165
5.4.6.1 Direct Relationships 165
5.4.6.2 Indirect Relationships 167
5.4.6.2.a Simple Mediation Analysis 167

Chapter 6: Factors Influencing Residents' Support for Cultural Tourism through ICH Resources

6.1 Introduction 169

6.2 Theoretical Framework 169
6.2.1 Social Exchange Theory (SET) 170
6.2.1.1 Introduction to SET 170
6.2.1.2 Application of SET in Tourism 172
6.3 Revised SET Framework 175
6.3.1 The Influence of Residents' Community Attachment on Their Perceived Cultural Impact and Support for Cultural Tourism 177
6.3.2 The Influence of Residents' Community Involvement on Their Perceived Cultural Impact and Support for Cultural Tourism 178
6.3.3 The Influence of Residents' Perceived Cultural Impact on Their Attitude and Support for Cultural Tourism 178
6.3.4 The Influence of Residents' Attitude towards Cultural Tourism on Their Support for Cultural Tourism 180
6.3.5 The Influence of Residents' Attitude toward Cultural Tourists on Their Support for Cultural Tourism 180
6.3.6 Simple Mediating Effect of Residents' Perceived Cultural Impact 181
6.3.7 Parallel Mediation Effect of Residents' Attitude towards Cultural Tourism and Tourists 182
6.3.8 Serial Mediation Effect of Residents' Perceived Cultural Impact, their Attitude towards Cultural Tourism and Tourists 183
6.4 Results and Interpretation 186
6.4.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents 186
6.4.2 Data Distribution and Normality 188
6.4.3 Testing of Biasness in the Data 189
6.4.4 Reliability and Validity of Measurement Model 189
6.4.5 Structural Model of SET Framework 193
6.4.6 Testing of Hypotheses 194
6.4.6.1 Direct Relationships 194
6.4.6.2 Indirect Relationships 195
6.4.6.2.a Simple Mediation Analysis 195
6.4.6.2.b Parallel Mediation Analysis 196
6.4.6.2.c Serial Mediation Analysis 197

Chapter 7: Designing a Model for Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development through ICH Resources

7.1 Introduction 199
7.2 Scale Development of CSI and SCTD 199
7.2.1 Results and Interpretation 201

7.2.1.1 Correlation Matrix 201
7.2.1.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) 203
7.3 Examining the Influence of Cultural Sustainability Indicators on SCTD 205
7.3.1 Proposed SCTD Model 205
7.3.2 Results and Interpretation 210
7.3.2.1 Data Distribution and Normality 210
7.3.2.2 Testing of Biasness in the Data 212
7.3.2.3 Reliability and Validity of Measurement Model 213
7.3.3 Structural Model of SCTD 217
7.3.4 Testing of Hypotheses 218
7.3.4.1 Direct Relationships 218
7.4 Moderating Role of Demographic Characteristics 219
7.4.1 Proposed Model of SCTD with Moderating Effect of Demographic Characteristics 219
7.4.2 Results and Interpretation 224
7.4.2.1 Demographic Profile of the Respondents 224
7.4.2.2 Moderating Effect of Gender 225
7.4.2.3 Moderating Effect of Age 227
7.4.2.4 Moderating Effect of Occupation 229
7.4.2.5 Moderating Effect of Marital Status 231
7.4.2.6 Moderating Effect of Education Qualification 234
7.4.2.7 Moderating Effect of Annual Individual Income 236

Chapter 8: Findings, Discussions, Conclusions, Managerial and Practical Implications, and Scope for Future Research

8.1 Introduction 239
8.2 Inferences Based on the Demographics Profile 239
8.3 Findings and Discussions 240
8.3.1 Assessing the Potential Demand and Supply of Cultural Tourism through ICH Resources 240
8.3.2 Factors Influencing Tourists' Behavioural Intentions to Revisit ICH Resources 242
8.3.3 Factors Influencing Residents' Support for Cultural Tourism through ICH Resources 248
8.3.4 Designing a Model for Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development through ICH Resources 252
8.4 Conclusion 260
8.5 Theoretical Contribution 263
8.6 Managerial and Practical Implications 265

8.6.1 Potentialities of Cultural Tourism Demand and Supply through ICH Resources 266
8.6.2 Factors Influencing Tourists' Behavioural Intentions to Revisit ICH Resources 267
8.6.3 Factors Influencing Residents' Support for Cultural Tourism through ICH Resources 269
8.6.4 Designing a Model for Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development through ICH Resources 274
8.7 Limitations of the Study 278
8.8 Scope for Future Research 278

Annexure I: Construct Measurements

A. Constructs Measurements of Modified Du Cros Model of Cultural Tourism Potential Demand and Supply 280
B. Constructs Measurement of Extended TPB Model 283
C. Constructs Measurement of Revised SET 286
D. List of Variables Adapted for CSI and SCTD 288

Annexure II: Determining Krejcie and Morgan Sample Size Table

A. Determining Sample Size from a Given Population 291

Annexure III: Survey Instrument for Tourists'

A. Questionnaire for Tourists' 292

Annexure IV: Survey Instrument for Residents'

A. Questionnaire for Residents' 296

Annexure V: Academic Contributions

A. Participation in Workshops and Webinars 300
B. Research Paper Presentation 302
C. Research Paper Publication 303

References

References 304

LIST OF TABLES

Chapter 2

Table 2. 1 Source-wise Articles Distribution 58
Table 2. 2 Type of Research Study..... 66
Table 2. 3 Types of Data Collected 67
Table 2. 4 Nature of Data Collection..... 68
Table 2. 5 Sampling Unit..... 68
Table 2. 6 Sampling Method 69
Table 2. 7 Sample Size 70
Table 2. 8 Statistical Techniques..... 71

Chapter 3

Table 3. 1 Showing Sample Size Distribution according to Districts of Goa 91
Table 3. 2 Shows the Pilot Study Results of the Demographic Profile of the Tourists (n=50) 93
Table 3. 3 Shows the Pilot Study Results of the Demographic Profile of the Residents (n=50)..... 93
Table 3. 4 Showing Pilot Study Result of the Reliability of Dimensions of Tourism Potentialities..... 94
Table 3. 5 Showing Pilot Study Result of the Reliability Test of Extended TPB Constructs 95
Table 3. 6 Showing Pilot Study Result of the Reliability Test of Revised SET Framework 95
Table 3. 7 Showing Pilot Study Result of the EFA of CSI and SCTD 95
Table 3. 8 Shows Operational Definitions of the Study 109

Chapter 4

Table 4. 1 Market Appeal/Robustness Matrix..... 120
Table 4. 2 Factors Influencing Tourism Potentialities: A Review of Previous Research . 121
Table 4. 3 Modified Potential Demand/Supply Matrix 125
Table 4. 4 Shows the Multicollinearity Test Result and Summary Statistics of the Variables 126
Table 4. 5 Shows the Result of Common Method Bias using the Harman Single Factor Method 127
Table 4. 6 Shows the Reliability and Convergent Validity of Cultural Tourism Potentialities Dimensions..... 128
Table 4. 7 Shows the Discriminant Validity- Fornell-Larcker Criterion 129
Table 4. 8 Shows the Discriminant Validity- Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (HTMT) – Matrix 130
Table 4. 9 Shows Cross Loadings 130

Table 4. 10 Analysis of the Touristic Valorisation based on the Modified Du Cros Model 132

Chapter 5

Table 5. 1 Factors Influencing Tourists' Behavioural Intentions to Revisit: A Review of Previous Research 139
Table 5. 2 Shows the Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents (n=482) 156
Table 5. 3 Shows the Multicollinearity Test Result and Summary Statistics of the Variables 157
Table 5. 4 Shows the Result of Common Method Bias using the Harman Single Factor Method 158
Table 5. 5 Shows the Reliability and Convergent Validity of Constructs of Tourists' Perspectives 160
Table 5. 6 Shows the Discriminant Validity- Fornell-Larcker Criterion 161
Table 5. 7 Shows the Discriminant Validity- Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (HTMT) – Matrix 162
Table 5. 8 Shows Cross Loadings 162
Table 5. 9 Shows the Results of the Path Analysis 165
Table 5. 10 Shows the Results of the Simple Mediation Analysis 167

Chapter 6

Table 6. 1 Factors Influencing Residents' Perceptions, Attitudes and Support for Tourism Development: A Review of Previous Research 173
Table 6. 2 Shows the Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents (n=467) 186
Table 6. 3 Shows the Multicollinearity Test Result and Summary Statistics of the Variables 188
Table 6. 4 Shows the Result of Common Method Bias using the Harman Single Factor Method 189
Table 6. 5 Shows the Reliability and Convergent Validity of Resident Perspectives 190
Table 6. 6 Shows the Discriminant Validity- Fornell-Larcker Criterion 191
Table 6. 7 Shows the Discriminant Validity- Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (HTMT) – Matrix 191
Table 6. 8 Shows Cross Loadings 192
Table 6. 9 Shows the Results of the Path Analysis 194
Table 6. 10 Shows the Result of Simple Mediation Analysis 196
Table 6. 11 Shows the Result of Parallel Mediation Analysis 196
Table 6. 12 Shows the Result of Serial Mediation Analysis 198

Chapter 7

Table 7. 1 Shows the Correlation Matrix 202
Table 7. 2 Showing Results of EFA 203
Table 7. 3 Sustainable Cultural Tourism Framework: A Review of Previous Research .. 206

Table 7. 4 Shows the Multicollinearity Test Result and Summary Statistics of the Variables 211
Table 7. 5 Shows the results of Common Method Bias using the Harman Single Factor Method 212
Table 7. 6 Shows the Reliability and Convergent Validity of CSI and SCTD..... 213
Table 7. 7 Shows the Discriminant Validity- Fornell-Larcker Criterion 214
Table 7. 8 Shows the Discriminant Validity- Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (HTMT) – Matrix 215
Table 7. 9 Shows Cross-Loadings 215
Table 7. 10 Shows the Results of the Path Analysis 218
Table 7. 11 Shows the Demographic Profile of the Respondents (n=949) 224
Table 7. 12 Shows the Moderating Effect of Gender 225
Table 7. 13 Shows the Moderating Effect of Age 227
Table 7. 14 Shows the Moderating Effect of Occupation 229
Table 7. 15 Shows the Moderating Effect of Marital Status 231
Table 7. 16 Shows the Moderating Effect of Education Qualification 234
Table 7. 17 Shows the Moderating Effect of Annual Individual Income..... 236

LIST OF FIGURES

Chapter 2

Figure 2. 1 PRISMA Model Flowchart 32
Figure 2. 2 Article Publication Timeline 60
Figure 2. 3 Corresponding Authors' Countries 61
Figure 2. 4 Network Visualisation- Co-authorship by Authors' 63
Figure 2. 5 Network Visualisation – Authors' Keyword Co-occurrences 65

Chapter 3

Figure 3. 1 Framework of Research Study 79

Chapter 4

Figure 4. 1 Matrix indicating the relationship between the continuums of Robusticity and Market Appeal 119

Chapter 5

Figure 5. 1 Original Model of TPB given by Icek Ajzen (1985) 137
Figure 5. 2 Conceptual Research Model- Extended TPB Model 154
Figure 5. 3 Result of PLS-SEM Analysis 164

Chapter 6

Figure 6. 1 Conceptual Research Model- Revised Framework of SET 185
Figure 6. 2 Results of PLS-SEM Analysis 193

Chapter 7

Figure 7. 1 Conceptual Research Model- Proposed SCTD Model 209
Figure 7. 2 Result of PLS-SEM Analysis 217
Figure 7. 3 Conceptual Research Model- Proposed SCTD Model with Moderation Effect of Demographic Characteristics 222
Figure 7. 4 Estimation of the Moderating Effect of Gender 226
Figure 7. 5 Estimation of the Moderating Effect of Age 228
Figure 7. 6 Estimation of the Moderating Effect of Occupation 230
Figure 7. 7 Estimation of the Moderating Effect of Marital Status 233
Figure 7. 8 Estimation of the Moderating Effect of Education Qualification 235
Figure 7. 9 Estimation of the Moderating Effect of Annual Individual Income 237

ABSTRACT

In the past few decades, tourism has significantly impacted the ecological, social, and environmental dimensions, making sustainability facilitation more vital. These aspects are also regarded as the primary pillars of sustainable tourism development. Culture has received very little attention despite being the deeply rooted and reliable framework for human existence that is widely understood to be the cornerstone of spatial analysis. It has frequently been criticised for being the most susceptible to the detrimental effects of tourism. Culture is the cornerstone for accomplishing sustainable tourism research and practice goals in many domains. Intangible Cultural Heritage (ICH) as a part of cultural tourism has become increasingly important in policy consideration in broadening tourist destinations' appeal and offerings. The premise is that cultural tourism is a considerable and expanding market segment. However, empirical support for these claims still needs to be improved. Given the intense competition among tourist destinations, it appears advantageous if the ICH destinations have distinct characteristics that allow for a different and unique experience. As a result, embracing cultural tourism may increase the overall value of the tourism product in such a destination. In this regard, this research aims to:

I. To assess the cultural tourism potential demand and supply through intangible cultural heritage resources.
II. To examine the structural dimensions influencing tourists' satisfaction, their behavioural intentions to revisit, and their actual behaviour towards intangible cultural heritage resources.
III. To investigate the factors influencing the residents' perceived cultural impact, attitudes, and support for cultural tourism through intangible cultural heritage resources.
IV. To design a sustainable cultural tourism development model through intangible cultural heritage resources.

a. To develop and measure a new scale for cultural sustainability indicators and sustainable cultural tourism development.

b. To examine the influence of cultural sustainability indicators on sustainable cultural tourism development.

c. To examine the moderating role of demographic characteristics in the relationships between cultural sustainability indicators and sustainable cultural tourism development.

In this sense, data were gathered from different tourism stakeholders, including tourists and residents, using self-administered questionnaires. A total of 1000 respondents completed the questionnaire using a proportionate stratified random sampling method; 949 of those responses were deemed legitimate. The data were analysed using Du Cros matrix to assess ICH resource evaluation, followed by Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM), including moderation and mediation analyses, with SmartPLS 4.0, and Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted using SPSS version 20. Each objective was analysed using a statistical and theoretical model, which are extended and modified such as Objective 1 uses a modified Du Cros model of tourism potentialities; Objective 2 uses the extended model of Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB); Objective 3 focuses on revised Social Exchange Theory (SET) framework and Objective 4 deals with firstly; the development of the new scale of Cultural Sustainability Indicators (CSI) and Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development (SCTD); secondly the influence of CSI on SCTD; and thirdly the examine the moderating role of demographic characteristics between the relationships. The findings of the study are:

Objective 1:

- M (2,2) – moderate potential supply and demand of intangible cultural heritage.

Objective 2:

- Tourists' attitudes, tourists' motivations, tourists' destination image, and tourists' memorable experiences have a direct influence on Tourists' satisfaction.
- Tourists' attitudes, tourists' destination image, tourists' memorable experiences, and tourists' satisfaction have a direct influence on tourists' behavioural intentions to revisit.
- Tourists' behavioural intention to revisit directly influences actual behaviour.

- Tourists' satisfaction has mediated the relationship between tourists' attitudes, tourist motivation, destination image, memorable experiences, and behavioural intention to revisit.

Objective 3:

- Community attachment, community involvement, attitude towards cultural tourism, and attitude towards cultural tourists have directly influenced resident support for cultural tourism.

- Community attachment and community involvement have directly influenced residents' perceived cultural impact.

- Resident perceived cultural impact has directly influenced attitude towards cultural tourism and attitude towards cultural tourists.

- Resident attitudes towards cultural tourism and tourists have mediated the relationship between residents' perceived cultural impact and support for cultural tourism.

- Community attachment and support for cultural tourism are mediated by perceived cultural impact and attitude toward cultural tourism.

- Community attachment and support for cultural tourism are mediated by perceived cultural impact and attitude toward cultural tourists.

- Community involvement and support for cultural tourism are mediated by perceived cultural impact and attitude toward cultural tourism.

- Community involvement and support for cultural tourism are mediated by perceived cultural impact and attitude toward cultural tourists.

Objective 4:

- The new scale development identified the seven most important CSI— Authenticity, Awareness, Commodification and Transformation, Empowerment, Parallel Development, Promotion, and Sustainability Practices, and one indicator of SCTD growth—SCTD.

- The study results showed that all five indicators significantly and positively affect SCTD, except promotion and parallel development.

- It was also found that age and annual individual income have significantly moderated the relationship between Commodification and Transformation -> Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development. Furthermore, only the age factor was found to significantly moderate the relationship between Empowerment -> Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development and Sustainable Practices -> Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development.

The study concludes that culture is one of the most important aspects of developing a sustainable tourism industry and may be used to assess the sustainability of tourist destinations. The primary contribution of this work is an expansion of theories and a scale development that depicts current perspectives and solutions for the cultural tourism sector as perceived by different stakeholders.

Keywords: *Cultural tourism potentialities; intangible cultural heritage; residents' support for cultural tourism; sustainable cultural tourism development; tourist revisit behavioural intentions.*

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Short Form	Full Form
AB	Tourists' Actual Behaviour
ACT	Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural Tourism
ATCT	Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural Tourists
AU	Authenticity
AW	Awareness
BIR	Tourists' Behavioural Intention to Revisit
CA	Cronbach Alpha
CA	Residents' Community Attachment
CI	Residents' Community Involvement
CSI	Cultural Sustainability Indicators
CT	Commodification and Transformation
DE	Direct Effect
DOT	Department of Tourism
DV	Discriminant Validity
GTDC	Goa Tourism Development Corporation
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EM	Empowerment
HVE	Heritage Visitor Experience
ICH	Intangible Cultural Heritage
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
PBC	Tourists' Perceived Behavioural Control
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
PCI	Residents' Perceived Cultural Impact
PD	Parallel Development
PDE	Potential Demand
PM	Promotion
PSU	Potential Supply
SCTD	Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development

Short Form	Full Form
SD	Standard Deviation
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SFCT	Support For Cultural Tourism
SIE	Specific Indirect Effect
SL	Standardised Loadings
SN	Tourists' Subjective Norms
SP	Sustainable Practices
TA	Tourists' Attitude
TDI	Tourist Destination Image
TE	Total Effect
TM	Tourists' Motivation
TME	Tourists' Memorable Experience
TPB	Theory of Planned Behaviour
TS	Tourists' Satisfaction
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
VAF	Variance Accounted For
Var	Variable
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor
W	With Mediation
W/O	Without Mediation
WOM	Word of Mouth
WTO	World Tourism Organisation

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Defining Tourism

The word ***"Tourism",*** although accepted and recognised in common parlance, is nevertheless a term subject to a diversity of meanings and interpretations. It is typically used to designate various concepts, partly because tourism studies include a range of disciplines: geography, economics, business and marketing, sociology, anthropology, history, and psychology (Kumar Das & Biswas, 2019). Each definition of tourism has yet to gain universal acceptance. Many people believe that tourism is a service industry that takes care of visitors when they are away from home. Some restrict the definition of tourism by the number of miles away from home, overnight stays in paid accommodations, or travel for travel or leisure. It is tough to define precisely the words 'tourist' and 'tourism' since they have different meanings to different people. Numerous attempts have been made to define 'tourism', and 'travel' and 'tourism' are often used interchangeably. There are almost as many definitions of tourism as studies of the phenomenon.

Tourism has been defined in several ways, each with its rationale and application. In 1936, the League of Nations defined a foreign tourist as "someone travelling abroad for at least twenty-four hours". Hunziker and Krapf (1942) defined tourism as "the sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the travel and stay of non-residents, insofar as they do not lead to permanent residence and are not connected with any earning activity". In 1976, the Tourism Society of England defined tourism as "the temporary, short-term movement of people to destinations other than where they normally live and work, and their activities during their stay at each destination". Tourism includes movements for various purposes. Theobald (1998) suggested that etymologically, the word tour is derived from the Latin 'tornare' and the Greek 'tornos', meaning a lathe or circle, the movement around a central point or axis. This meaning changed in modern English to represent 'one's turn'.

The International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism 1981 defined tourism as "specific activities chosen and undertaken outside the home". It includes all the goods and services a tourist pays for personally or on their behalf. The technical definitions given by

the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO, 1995) were found to be the most common and universally accepted definition, which is "people travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business, and other purposes". According to Walton (2000), tourism involves "the act and process of spending time away from home for recreation, relaxation, and pleasure using the commercial provision of services".

1.2 Defining Culture

The term ***"culture"*** has its origin in the Latin word ***"cultura",*** which is a derivative of the verb ***"colo"*** (infinitive colere), meaning ***"to tend", "to cultivate",*** and ***"to till",*** among other things. It can also be taken as objects such as ***"ager"*** and ***"agriculture",*** whose literal meaning is "field filling". Another possible object of the verb ***"colo"*** is ***"animus"*** (character). In that case, the expression could refer to cultivating the human personality. Consequently, the Latin noun ***"cultura"*** can be associated with education and refinement. The concept of culture is more complex (Tomlinson, 1991). Hundreds of definitions of culture suggest considerable confusion, or that culture is so large an all-embracing concept that it can accommodate all these definitions. The solution proposed by Tomlinson and others is to seek an all-embracing definition of what culture is rather than to concentrate on how the term is used.

Williams (1983) identifies three broad categories of the modern usage of the term: (i) as a general process of intellectual, spiritual, and aesthetic development; (ii) as indicative of a particular way of life; and (iii) as the works and practices of intellectual and artistic activity. Over time, there has been a shift in the meanings attached to the word in general usage, away from the former and towards the latter two categories. Therefore, two primary uses of the term 'culture' can be identified in the academic literature: culture as a process and culture as a product. Culture as the process is an approach derived from anthropology and sociology, which regards culture mainly as codes of conduct embedded in a specific social group.

The boundaries of social groups, and therefore cultures, are variable and can cover a nation, tribe, corporation, or those pursuing specific activities. We may, therefore, talk about the culture of a particular country or the culture of mass tourism (Urry, 1990). The culture as product approach derives particularly from literary criticism. Culture is regarded as the product of individual or group activities to which specific meanings are attached. Thus,

'high culture' might be used by some to refer to the products of famous artists, whereas ***'low culture'*** might refer to TV soap programs. The product and process approach to culture rarely overlaps. However, tourism has had a certain degree of integration between the two terms.

Culture as a process is the goal of tourists seeking authenticity (Cohen, 1979; MacCannell, 1976). However, tourists' presence leads to cultural manifestations specifically for tourist consumption (Cohen, 1988). In other words, culture is transformed through tourism and other social mechanisms into culture as a product. The resulting cultural products need not be meaningless due to their isolation from their original social context. Cohen (1988) argues that some cultural products developed for tourists may attain 'emergent authenticity' and be accepted as 'authentic' by both tourists and cultural producers over time.

In addition to recognising its holistic qualities, Geertz (1974) extended the definition of culture to include material culture, cultivated landscapes, social structures, knowledge, and meaning. This suggests that culture includes not only the past and traditions, such as history and heritage, artistic expression, such as works of art and performances, and creative expression, but also people's methods of living, customs, and habits. Along with their interest in historical sites, landmarks, museums, and art galleries, tourists are increasingly interested in other cultures. Therefore, in 2002, The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) also defined culture as "the set of distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual and emotional features of society or a social group, and that it encompasses, in addition to art and literature, lifestyles, ways of living together, value systems, traditions, and beliefs". It defined ***'society'*** as the arrangement of social relationships in a group and ***'culture'*** as the group's shared beliefs and symbols (UNESCO, 2003).

In summary, culture refers to the cumulative deposit of knowledge, experience, beliefs, values, attitudes, meanings, hierarchies, religion, notions of time, roles, and spatial relations. Culture, as we know it today, is the result of an ongoing dialectic among numerous stakeholder voices, including, and certainly not limited to, political parties, religious organisations, economic interest, global media, local elites, educational institutions, and of course, the tourism industry and visitors, and through the everyday behaviour of people living their lives. This culture-forming process applies equally to our interpretations of the

past (historic sites) and treatment of nature (wilderness areas) as it does to the cultures of contemporary societies.

1.3 Defining Cultural Tourism

Defining ***'culture'*** and ***'tourism'*** seems complicated, making it more difficult to challenge what constitutes cultural tourism. Williams (1983) has cautioned that culture is "one of the two or three most complicated words in the English language". It is said that cultural tourism is a problematic concept, as it consists of 'culture' and 'tourism'; thus, when both terms are put together, the problem of definition multiplies (Richards, 1996). Despite all such difficulties, various authors and institutions have contributed to investigating this matter and thus have provided multiple meanings and interpretations of cultural tourism.

The concepts of culture and tourism have undergone significant changes, with their meanings evolving. MacCannell (1976) refers to ***'cultural productions',*** a term that refers not only to the process of culture but also to the products resulting from that process. He recognised that tourism is the ideal arena to investigate the nature of such cultural production, and the notion of cultural tourism takes this idea to its logical conclusion. However, the range of cultural products alone is vast.

The term ***'cultural tourism'*** has been used to describe tourists' consumption of art, heritage, folklore, and other cultural manifestations. Urry (1990) believes that ***'tourism is culture';*** on the other hand, MacCannell (1976) stated that ***"all tourism is a cultural experience".*** These assumptions led scholars to believe that cultural tourism is something new or a postmodern phenomenon. The definition given by Wood (1984) sees "the role of culture as contextual, where its role is to shape the tourist's experience of a situation in general, without focusing on the uniqueness of a specific cultural identity". In contrast, ethnic tourism has "a direct focus on people living out a cultural identity whose uniqueness is being marked for tourists". McIntosh and Goeldner (1986) mentioned "all aspects of travel, whereby travellers learn about the history and heritage of others or their contemporary ways of life or thought".

Bonink (1992), referring to existing literature, has identified two basic approaches. The first is "the site and monuments approach," which describes the type of attractions visited by cultural tourists and is related to product-based tourism. The second comprises "all aspects

of travel where travellers learn about the history and heritages of others or their contemporary way of life or thought".

Silberberg (1995) defines cultural tourism as "the visiting places of historical, artistic or scientific interest, or interest in a particular community, region, group or institution's way of life. This definition is balanced as it suggests that not all visitors are solely motivated by a cultural offering; many visitors may be interested in certain elements of culture. On the other hand, Ashworth (1995) categorised the three definitions of tourism-related culture. The first definition is aesthetic productivity. Regarded as ***"Art Tourism",*** the simplest form of culture to be commodified for tourism, is generally associated with art and artistic products and performances, such as theatre, ballet, concerts, festivals, museums, and opera performances. The second definition of culture is ***"Heritage Tourism",*** manifested in a mix of preserved buildings, conserved cityscapes, morphological patterns, and places associated with historical events and personalities. The last and the most general of the three definitions of culture is ***"Place-specific Tourism",*** meaning that culture can be defined as the common set of values, attitudes, and, thus, the behaviour of a social group.

Richards (1996) stated that "there is a range of possible uses of the term and that no single widely accepted definition of cultural tourism has yet emerged" and has proposed the conceptual and technical definitions of cultural tourism for his research for the Association for Tourism and Leisure Education (ATLAS). The conceptual definition says, "The movement of persons to cultural attractions away from their normal place of residence, to gather new information and experiences to satisfy their cultural needs". On the other hand, the technical definition is "All movements of persons to specific cultural attractions, such as heritage sites, artistic and cultural manifestations, arts and drama outside their normal residence".

Nevertheless, in most cases, the definition is dissociated from purely tremendous interest and includes cultural activities and experiences other than visiting monuments and historical and artistic sites. Therefore, in 1999, during its General Assembly in Mexico, ICOMOS (1976) itself revised the concept that it had introduced in the Cultural Tourism Charter in 1976, amplifying the definition and integrating new aspects of cultural tourism and defined it as "any activity that allows visitors the experience of discovering other people's ways of life, allowing them to experience on the one hand their customs, traditions, physical

environment or ideas, and on the other, access to places of architectural, historical, archaeological or any other type of cultural value".

McKercher and Du Cros (2002), in their book defined cultural tourism in several ways, such as "a form of special interest tourism where culture forms the basis of either attracting tourists or motivating people to travel" and from a business perspective as "involving the development and marketing of various tourist' sites and attractions". From a motivational perspective, "visitors travel due to their interest in cultural activities". As an experiential activity where "engagement with culture can be unique and intense, and tourists and educated as well as entertained", and finally, from an operational perspective where "tourists participate in a large array of actives or experiences, e.g., heritage, arts, festivals, local cultures".

The World Tourism Organisation (WTO, 1985) has provided a narrow definition that includes "movements of persons for essentially cultural motivations such as study tours, performing arts and cultural tours, travel to festivals and other cultural events, visits to sites and monuments, travel to study nature, folklore or art, and pilgrimages".. In contrast, the wide definition, in contrast, covers "all movements of persons because they satisfy the human need for diversity, tending to raise the cultural level of the individual and giving rise to new knowledge, experience, and encounters". and define cultural tourism as "passive, active, and interactive engagement with culture and communities, whereby the visitor gains new experiences of an educational, creative, and entertaining nature". The definition reflects the shift towards more active and interactive cultural tourism, such as creative or experience tourism. It also suggests that education and entertainment are not mutually exclusive and that tourists are involved with multiple cultures and communities, sometimes simultaneously.

The UNWTO (2017) in the General Assembly has again adopted the definition of cultural tourism at its 22nd session, which implies "a type of tourism activity in which the visitor's essential motivation is to learn, discover, experience, and consume the tangible and intangible attractions/products in a tourism destination". These attractions/products are related to a set of distinctive material, intellectual, spiritual, and emotional features of a society that encompasses arts and architecture, historical and cultural heritage, culinary heritage, literature, music, creative industries, and the living cultures with their lifestyles, value systems, beliefs, and traditions.

Culture is one of the most critical components of tourist attractions, and it has been widely spread due to its uniqueness and historical importance. Culture is said to be a tourism resource and is one of the essential motivators for every tourist. It focuses on the rich past of people or areas as preserved and portrayed in monuments, historical sites, architecture, and artefacts. It is recognised as a potent force for preservation, maintaining, and conserving the aboriginality of a place. Hence, cultural tourism in this context can be a tremendous force for cultural conservation and a viable means for promoting the socio-economic development of host communities and sustainably promoting tourism.

Cultural tourism development is community-based, participatory, and designed to improve residents' economic and social well-being in addition to the concerned institutional and physical environments. Also, it promotes international understanding, friendship, and universal brotherhood through cultural exchange among nations, regions, and communities. It is often seen to maintain the past and improve a community's quality of life, help promote handicrafts and local arts, and support local artisans and artisans. Cultural tourism is changing, both in terms of how tourists consume culture and in the way in which culture is presented for tourist consumption. Culture is now becoming an essential element in tourism policies at all levels. However, what is new about this wave of cultural tourism development is that culture is now primarily promoted for economic rather than cultural ends.

1.4 Significance of Cultural Tourism

In his speeches, Nehru (1954) famously stated, ***"Culture is the widening of the mind and the spirit".*** In the selected works of Mahatma Gandhi: The Voice of Truth, Gandhi (1968) observed, ***"A nation's culture resides in the hearts and souls of its people".*** These quotes highlight the fundamental truth that we live in a multicultural society and strive to embrace diverse ideas and traditions. We celebrate the richness of our heritage and experiences, welcoming newcomers and making room for others. Our beliefs form the foundation of our culture, shaping what we consider safe and comfortable. From an early age, we learn these beliefs through family, friends, and personal experiences, often absorbing unwritten rules. While the constitution provides a framework for values, individual experiences can teach us different lessons about right and wrong, shaping our beliefs through practical experience rather than passive learning. Thus, culture is not a tangible object with an objective existence

but is based on natural phenomena that we subjectively perceive and interpret (Caswell, 2017).

Culture has long been a major draw for tourism, motivating many travellers, especially the elite, even in preindustrial times (Smith & Robinson, 2005). Without culture, every destination would feel the same. Cultural tourism fosters enrichment for travellers and the tourism industry by facilitating cultural exchanges. As Richards and Munsters (2010) note, cultural tourism is not a new trend; people have historically travelled to experience different cultures. The Grand Tour of the English aristocracy in the 17th and 18th centuries marked the start of cultural travel, with visits to European countries' historic sites, buildings, and artworks (Cohen, 1988), laying the foundation for the cultural tourism demand seen today (Yang & Wall, 2009). Modern cultural tourism offers authentic learning experiences through public and private institutions (Besculides et al., 2002).

Tourism and culture are intertwined, with destinations rich in cultural and historical heritage attracting many visitors (Richards, 1996). The tourism industry benefits significantly from cultural tourism, as some travellers seek to experience new cultures while others encounter local customs incidentally. Cultural tourism involves engaging with local cultures, such as attending events, visiting museums, or sampling local cuisine. It is a standard part of the travel experience, where people immerse themselves in the local community and way of life (Richards, 2006b). The WTO (1985) defines cultural tourism as trips that fulfill the desire for diversity and enhance cultural understanding.

The growing integration of economies and cultures has boosted cultural tourism globally. As cultural resources become more mobile through travelling exhibits and performances, tourists can experience cultural attractions without travelling far. Cultural globalisation is a key driver of economic globalisation. It promotes localisation and leads communities to create new identities while preserving their heritage, which is crucial for developing a reputable tourism industry (Nijman, 1999). Efforts are being made to build tourist offerings that capture the "sense of place" or "authentic essence" of a location. The subjective, personal perceptions of visitors and locals are essential in transforming a place into a tourist destination (Cooper & Hall, 2008), making everyday life a unique tourist experience (Richards, 2006b).

The interdependence of tourists and the local community means that the community's spiritual and economic growth influences tourists' pursuit of authentic experiences. Technological advancements have significantly impacted cultural tourism, enabling tourists to access information about cultural attractions and create personalised travel packages online without relying on specialised tour operators (Richards, 2007). As technology evolves, tourists' consumption patterns change; cultural sites once experienced collectively are often explored individually, aided by devices like audio guides and camcorders (Richards, 2002). Cultural tourism has important social impacts, such as strengthening identity, enhancing intercultural understanding, and preserving heritage. It also brings economic benefits by creating job opportunities in various sectors like hospitality and transportation. As a growing market segment, cultural tourists are seen as high spenders contributing to destinations' economic vitality. However, more empirical research is needed to fully understand cultural tourism's role as a significant driver of tourism demand (Girard & Nijkamp, 2009; Richards, 2007b; Timothy & Nyaupane, 2009).

Cultural tourism encompasses urban and rural regions, with urban areas featuring museums and theatres and rural areas highlighting indigenous festivals, rituals, and ways of life. This richness leads cultural tourists to spend more time at sites, making it a popular tourism form worldwide. Cultural and creative industries are increasingly used to enhance the attractiveness of locations, and cultural tourism has evolved from a niche for affluent travellers to a mass market for a broader audience (Jovicic, 2016; Richards, 2018).

According to a report by the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) (2018), cultural tourism accounts for 39% of all international tourist arrivals and is expected to grow further. It is now a key element in the tourism strategies of many countries, as it focuses on preserving the rich history of people and places through monuments, historical sites, and artefacts. It plays a vital role in conservation and helps maintain a place's authenticity. The development of cultural tourism relies heavily on the host community's support, and cultural tourism projects must be planned and implemented carefully to avoid negative impacts. Proper planning and community involvement are crucial for cultural tourism to be a force for cultural preservation and socio-economic development, and to promote sustainable tourism. Therefore, assessing cultural tourism resources and considering stakeholders' perspectives is essential for tourism authorities to take corrective measures to support cultural tourism's healthy growth.

1.5 Concept of Cultural Heritage

Previous researchers, such as Alonso et al. (2015), Garrod and Fyall (2000), and Poria et al. (2004), have extensively studied and defined cultural or heritage tourism. Some authors have also distinguished heritage and cultural tourism; however, Timothy and Nyaupane (2009) suggested that any debatable differences are subtle. Therefore, cultural heritage tourism is proposed, incorporating modern culture and art, built patrimony, ancient artefacts, and living lifestyles. Furthermore, many other researchers have also applied cultural and heritage tourism terms or cultural heritage tourism terms (Nguyen & Cheung, 2014; Ruhanen & Whitford, 2019; Sakdiyakorn & Sivarak, 2016; Timothy, 2014).

Every place globally has heritage, and many regions have utilised the cultural past as a tool for economic development through tourism. Cultural heritage is one of the most ubiquitous forms of tourism, as it involves visiting museums and historical sites, enjoying music and arts, or being immersed in the living culture of a destination (Timothy & Nyaupane, 2009). The UNESCO (2009) defines cultural heritage as "the legacy of physical artefacts and intangible attributes of a group or society inherited from the past generation, maintained in the present, and bestowed for future generations". It includes both tangible and intangible cultural heritage. Tangible cultural heritage consists of all the physical elements of heritage that can be touched and even seen by human eyes. It includes monuments, coins, historic sites, machinery, and other artefacts. Cultural heritage is not composed of a structure of bricks and cement or the design of metals, but the living expression we can feel is termed Intangible Cultural Heritage (ICH).

The formal definition of ICH was put forward in the year 2003 at the Convention for Safeguarding the ICH, which says that "the practices, representations, expressions as well as the knowledge and skills- as well as the instruments, objects, artefacts, and cultural spaces associated in addition to that – that communities, groups and in some cases, individuals recognise as part of their cultural heritage (UNESCO, 2003). Communities and groups recreate this ICH transmitted from generation to generation in response to their environment, interaction with nature, and history. It gives them a sense of identity and continuity, thus promoting respect for cultural diversity and human creativity. In the recent decade, the term 'cultural heritage' has not ended with monuments and collections of objects; it also includes traditions or living expressions inherited from our ancestors and passed on to our descendants.

UNESCO (2003), in its convention for the safeguarding of the ICH, UNESCO proposes five broad 'domains' in which ICH is manifested, such as Oral traditions and expressions, including language, which are vehicles of the ICH; Performing arts (such as traditional music, dance, and theatre); Social practices, rituals, and festive events; Knowledge and practices concerning nature and the universe; and Traditional craftsmanship. Thus, cultural heritage shapes the identity of local communities as tangible evidence of a past reality that survived in pieces and can be experienced only from a temporal perspective. It can be spectacular, monumental, fragile, brittle, and ephemeral, like whispered folk tales or lullabies. It can also be interpreted or reinterpreted, promoted, and looked after at a specific place and time (Manfriani et al., 2021).

Realising the enormous economic potential of cultural heritage, many parts of the world have rallied to develop and support cultural tourism as an essential part of their service economies. Due to the increased attention to cultural heritage, many changes and notable patterns have emerged. Many definitions show that cultural tourism and its resources are difficult to conceptualise. Although there is much of a discrepancy in defining cultural tourism, the common thread is that cultural tourism involves people travelling outside the normal place of residence for cultural purposes.

For this research, cultural tourism is defined as the activities of individuals outside the normal place of residence, experiencing 'tangible and intangible' cultural elements of a specific culture through museums, heritage sites, villages, arts and crafts. Tangible elements of culture can be touched, including buildings, clothing, arts and crafts. At the same time, intangible elements may include values, language, and rituals. In essence, a combination of tangible and intangible is multi-sensory.

1.6 Sustainability and Culture

Tourism is linked to key players, including tourists, the local community, the government, and private agencies. These key players take advantage of tourism and enormously benefit the tourism industry. The local community, government agencies, and private players are the ultimate service providers in the tourism industry, whereas the tourists are at the receiving end. "Sustainable Tourism" emerged in the early 90s and developed by connecting sustainable development ideas and principles with tourism.

Many international and national organisations quickly accepted and promoted this new concept. Sustainable tourism includes many dimensions, and many authors give different definitions depending on context and perception (Garrod & Fyall, 2000). However, it is widely accepted and agreed that sustainable tourism is an important aspect that contributes to sustainable development. The Brundtland Report (1987), "Our Common Future", defined sustainable development as "the development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs". This brought sustainable development further into the political arena and positively affected government and non-government organisations. Activities that meet the current social, economic, and environmental needs without severely impacting the natural and cultural environment so that future generations can provide them equitably accessible.

Facilitating sustainability has been imperative in the tourism sector over the last few decades due to the impact of tourism activities on the ecological, social, and environmental dimensions (Garrod & Fyall, 1998; Sharpley, 2020). Culture is the highest level, the most ingrained and stable frame of reference in human life, and is increasingly recognised as the essential foundation of any spatial analysis (Eckstein, 1996; Geertz, 1966). Over the last decade, culture has been elevated as the fourth pillar of sustainability alongside economic, social, and ecological sustainability. Theoretically and empirically, it has been used to understand how sustainability works and explain its fundamental role in achieving its goals in various scientific and non-scientific disciplines (Geertz, 1966; Pavlis & Terkenli, 2017).

Although culture is said to be the foundation for achieving sustainable development, research, and practice goals in many areas, including tourism (Ducros, 2016), it has been regularly criticised as being the most vulnerable to tourism's negative impacts. Numerous studies in recent years have shown that tourism may invigorate, enrich, sustain, and further develop destination cultures (Esfehani & Albrecht, 2016; Halder & Sarda, 2021; Kausar & Gunawan, 2018; Król, 2021; Qiu et al., 2022; Ranasinghe & Cheng, 2018; Su, 2018, 2019; Tavares et al., 2021).

As a vital resource and asset for any country, culture can contribute to sustainability by providing social, economic, and spatial benefits (Dessein et al., 2015). Around the world, culture broadly acknowledges sustainable development as a critical indicator for growth and development. Thus, promoting cultural sustainability is one of the essential objectives at this stage for positive impact and ensuring high-quality, sustainable development.

1.7 Cultural Tourism in Goa, India

Goa, a small state on the western coast of India, offers a unique blend of natural beauty, rich cultural heritage, and a relaxed, contemporary lifestyle. The state has long been a magnet for domestic and international tourists with its diverse flora and fauna, pristine beaches, and historical sites. The state's culture is deeply influenced by its Portuguese colonial past, which adds to its distinctive charm. This strong cultural foundation thrives in cultural tourism, especially as tourists seek destinations that blend history, tradition, and leisure.

Goa's cultural tourism sector is witnessing a shift toward diversifying beyond its well-known beaches, with a growing emphasis on heritage and festival tourism. The potential demand for cultural tourism in Goa is rising as stakeholders push for better utilisation of the state's rich cultural and historical assets. However, the supply still needs improvement (Gomantak Times, 2024c). The government has been promoting cultural tourism through its regenerative tourism initiatives, which aim to protect and preserve Goa's cultural and natural heritage. Collaborations with companies like MakeMyTrip help spotlight Goa's lesser-known inland destinations, highlighting its cultural tapestry and culinary traditions. This reflects a growing demand for experiences beyond the beaches and into Goa's historical and cultural heart (Gomantak Times, 2024a, 2024b).

While demand for cultural tourism in Goa is growing, the supply side requires policy support, better infrastructure, and a focus on sustainability to realise its full potential. The supply side of cultural tourism in Goa is expanding, but further development is required to meet growing demand. The Department of Tourism, Goa, has been actively marketing the state's traditional events, investing in infrastructure to support these cultural experiences. This includes promoting heritage sites and local festivals and setting aside specific budgets to make these festivals more tourist-friendly.

There are also plans to expand homestay options in Goa's rural and inland areas to offer tourists a more immersive cultural experience. This move aims to spread the benefits of tourism beyond the coastal areas and into the hinterlands, where Goa's rich cultural and religious heritage is most evident (Gomantak Times, 2024a). The detailed exploration of the diverse aspects in which Goa's culture influences its tourism industry is explained below:

1.7.1 Historical and Colonial Influence

The historical and colonial influence on Goa's culture is profound, primarily shaped by the 450-year Portuguese colonial rule. The Portuguese arrived in Goa in the 16th century and established their dominance, leaving an indelible mark on the region's cultural fabric. It influenced Goan architecture, cuisine, and festivities. The Indo-Portuguese art style is prominent in the region's churches, chapels, and houses. The Portuguese architecture brought to Goa is visible in its churches, chapels, and houses. The unique Indo-Portuguese architectural style blends Indian and European elements, characterised by ornate facades, intricate carvings, and vibrant tile work. Prominent examples include the Basilica of Bom Jesus, Se Cathedral, and Church of St. Francis of Assisi (De Souza, 1989; DPSE, 2023c, 2023a; Shastry, 2000).

The Portuguese introduced Christianity in Goa and left a lasting impact on the religious landscape. Many Goans practised Roman Catholicism, with the state boasting numerous beautiful churches and chapels. The religious festivities and rituals associated with Catholic traditions have become integral to Goan culture. Goan cuisine showcases a fusion of Indian and Portuguese flavours due to its colonial influence. The Portuguese introduced ingredients like tomatoes, potatoes, and spices such as chilli peppers, which now feature prominently in Goan dishes. The use of vinegar and wine in the cooking style reflects Portuguese influence.

The Portuguese legacy is evident in the grand celebrations and festivals in Goa. Carnival, a pre-Lent festival with roots in Portuguese traditions, is a prime example. It involves vibrant processions, music, dance, and elaborate costumes, offering a unique blend of Indian and European influences. The colonial era introduced Goa to new art forms and musical styles (Borges et al., 2000; Doshi, 1983; Gupta, 2014; Pereira, 1978).

Indo-Portuguese art flourished during this period, characterised by religious themes and intricate details. Traditional Goan music, influenced by Portuguese Fado, reflects a fusion of Western and Indian elements. The Portuguese introduced instruments like the guitar and the piano. The Portuguese colonial rule impacted the Konkani language spoken in Goa and continues to be a significant linguistic influence in Goan culture. The historical and colonial influence on Goa's culture is a testament to the rich and diverse heritage of the region. The amalgamation of Indian and Portuguese elements has created a unique cultural tapestry that sets Goa apart from other parts of India (Bhat & Rao, 2013; Parobo, 2020).

1.7.2 Architecture

The architecture of Goa reflects its rich history, cultural diversity, and fusion of Indian and Portuguese influences. From its magnificent churches and forts to the charm of traditional Goan houses, Goa's architecture is a testimony to its cultural and architectural heritage. Architecture plays a significant role in defining Goa's rich cultural heritage. The state's architecture blends indigenous, Portuguese, and other European influences, creating a unique architectural landscape.

Goa is renowned for its distinctive Indo-Portuguese architectural style. The fusion of Indian and Portuguese elements is visible in the design of churches, chapels, houses, and other structures. Key features include Facades, which are elaborate and ornate facades decorated with intricate carvings, motifs, and friezes. Balconies and Verandas often feature beautiful wooden balconies and verandas adorned with decorative railings and filigree work. Indo-Portuguese architecture, characterised by its whitewashed facades, red-tiled roofs, and ornate balconies, is especially prominent in Goa's churches and traditional homes. For instance, the Church of St. Cajetan in Old Goa, modelled after St. Peter's Basilica in Rome, exemplifies the grandeur and elegance of Baroque architecture adapted to the Goan environment (Kandolkar, 2024; Pandit et al., 1999).

Goa's residential architecture also bears the mark of Portuguese influence, particularly in the design of its traditional houses, known locally as "Goan villas". These homes often feature central courtyards, high ceilings, and intricate woodwork, providing a glimpse into the lifestyle of Goa's colonial elite. In contrast, the state's forts, such as Fort Aguada and Chapora Fort, reflect the military strategies of the Portuguese, designed to protect their valuable trade routes from rival colonial powers. The traditional houses of Goa represent the indigenous architectural style of the region. Houses often have an open central courtyard called the atrium, a family meeting place. Traditional houses boast sloping roofs adorned with red clay tiles, known as Mangalore tiles. Intricately carved wooden doors, windows, and pillars are characteristic features of Goan houses (Mankekar, 2004).

1.7.3 Music and Dance

Music and dance play a vibrant and integral role in the cultural fabric of Goa. The traditions and art forms associated with music and dance showcase the diverse influences shaping Goan culture. From traditional folk dances to contemporary music trends, they continue to

evolve while retaining their essence, making Goa a hub of artistic expression and celebration. Goa's music and dance traditions are as diverse as its architecture, reflecting the region's multicultural heritage (Jolliffe, 2014).

Traditional Goan music, particularly the Mando and Dulpod, blends Indian and Western musical styles. The Mando, often accompanied by the violin and guitar, is a slow, melodic genre that originated in the Catholic community and is typically performed during weddings and festive occasions. The Dulpod, in contrast, is livelier and more rhythmic, often performed at social gatherings. Dance is another integral part of Goan culture. Folk dances like Dekhnni, Fugdi, and the Portuguese-influenced Corredinho are performed during festivals and special occasions. These dances, accompanied by traditional instruments such as the Ghumot and Dhol, tell stories of everyday life, religious devotion, and cultural celebrations.

The vibrant dance forms and music of Goa not only entertain but also preserve the region's cultural traditions, making them accessible to locals and visitors. Over the years, Goa's music scene has embraced Western influences, particularly in popular music genres like pop, rock, jazz, and electronic music. Many Goan artists have gained recognition in these genres, contributing to the contemporary music landscape. The Portuguese influence is still evident in modern Goan music, with a fusion of Western pop and traditional Goan elements (Jolliffe, 2014; Pereira, 2008).

Goan music and dances are said to be incomplete with musical instruments such as ghumat and guitar. The Ghumot is a traditional percussion instrument in Goa, made from an earthen pot covered with goat skin. It produces a unique rhythmic sound often used in Goan folk music. Gopem and Casio are other traditional percussion instruments commonly used in Goan music to create rhythmic beats and add to the overall musical experience. Similarly, the introduction of the guitar during the Portuguese colonial era significantly impacted Goan music. It is now a popular instrument in various genres, including Western-influenced music (Cardoso, 2011; Souza de, 1997).

1.7.4 Festivals and Celebrations

Goa's festivals reflect its religious diversity and cultural vibrancy. The state celebrates a variety of Hindu, Christian, and secular festivals with equal fervour. The Goa Carnival, rooted in the Portuguese tradition of pre-Lenten festivities, is one of the most famous events,

drawing visitors from worldwide. The Carnival features colourful parades, live music, street performances, and extravagant floats, capturing the spirit of Goan joie de vivre. Religious festivals also play a significant role in Goan life. Christmas in Goa is celebrated with Midnight Mass, decorated churches, carol singing, and festive feasting, showcasing the state's strong Christian heritage.

Ganesh Chaturthi, a major Hindu festival, involves elaborate rituals, idol immersion, and community celebrations, highlighting the deep-rooted Hindu traditions in the region. Although Ganesh Chaturthi is celebrated throughout India, this Hindu festival holds special significance in Goa. Elaborate idols of Lord Ganesha are displayed in homes and public spaces, followed by processions and grand immersion ceremonies. Other notable festivals include Diwali, Sao Joao, and Shigmo, offering unique insights into Goa's cultural and religious practices (Borges et al., 2000; DPSE, 2023c, 2023a).

Shigmo, also known as the Shigmotsav festival, is a popular Goan Hindu festival celebrated in spring, corresponding to Holi in other parts of India. It showcases traditional folk dances, music, and processions where people dressed in colourful attire perform various dance forms like Gopha, Goff, and Romta Mell. Sao Joao is a unique Goan feast celebrated every year. Primarily dedicated to Saint John the Baptist, this festival is marked by vibrant celebrations, especially in villages near rivers and wells. Young men jump into water bodies, symbolising the baptism of Saint John, while traditional boats called sangadis float around with musicians playing the ghumat (traditional percussion instrument).

Diwali, the festival of lights, is a grand celebration in Goa, observed by people of different religions. Homes are beautifully decorated with oil lamps, candles, and colourful rangoli. Fireworks, bursting of crackers, exchanging sweets, and offering prayers to deities are common during this festive season. These festivals and celebrations reflect the diverse cultural heritage of Goa, bringing people together in joyous gatherings and fostering communal harmony. They provide a glimpse into Goa's traditions, customs, music, dance, and culinary delights, making them a delightful way to experience the rich tapestry of Goan culture (DPSE, 2023c, 2023b; Henn, 2009).

1.7.5 Cuisine

Goan cuisine is renowned for its rich flavours, aromatic spices, and delectable seafood dishes. Influenced by its multicultural heritage, Goan cuisine reflects a fusion of Indian,

Portuguese, and local flavours. Goan cuisine is a delightful amalgamation of flavours, reflecting the state's multicultural heritage. From spicy seafood curries to delectable sweets, the cuisine offers a tantalising culinary experience that showcases the diverse cultural influences of Goa. The use of coconut, rice, seafood, and local spices is prevalent in most Goan dishes, while Portuguese influence is evident in the use of vinegar, potatoes, and bread. Seafood is a popular staple in Goan cuisine, with dishes like Goan fish curry, Prawn Balchão, and Crab Xec (De Souza, 1990; Jolliffe, 2014).

The state's cuisine is also known for its rich and aromatic meat dishes, such as Pork Vindaloo and Chicken Cafreal, often marinated in a blend of spices before being slow-cooked to perfection. Vegetarian dishes are also important to Goan cuisine, especially during Hindu festivals when meat is traditionally avoided. Mushroom Xacuti and Vegetable Caldine are examples of vegetarian Goan dishes that are rich in flavour and made using freshly ground spices and coconut. Sweets and desserts such as Bebinca, a multilayered cake, and Dodol, a sticky pudding made from coconut and jaggery, are also integral to Goan cuisine, often enjoyed during festive occasions (Phaldesai, 2005; Shirodkar, 1997).

1.7.6 Art and Handicrafts

Art and handicrafts are integral to Goan culture, showcasing the region's creativity and artistic heritage. Goan artisans are known for their skills in various art forms and the production of unique handicrafts. Here is an overview of art and handicrafts in Goan culture: Traditional earthenware pottery is a significant craft in Goa, with artisans creating beautiful clay pots, lamps, and decorative items. Traditional pottery is a prominent craft in Goa. Skilled potters create beautiful earthenware pottery, including clay pots, lamps, decorative figurines, and tiles. These pieces often exhibit intricate designs and are painted in vibrant colours. Goan art showcases vibrant, colourful paintings and murals depicting local scenes, landscapes, and religious themes.

Goa has a rich tradition of paintings and murals. Artists depict local scenes, landscapes, and religious themes in their artwork (D'Souza Clyde, 2021). The paintings are characterised by vibrant colours and intricate detailing, representing the charm and cultural essence of the region. Bamboo and coconut-based crafts, crochet work, and terracotta figurines are popular in Goa. Bamboo and coconut-based crafts are prevalent in Goa. Skilled artisans use bamboo strips to create baskets, mats, hats, lampshades, and decorative items. Coconut shells are transformed into intricate handicrafts, including bowls, coasters, and showpieces. Crochet

work is a popular handicraft in Goa, with artisans creating intricate patterns and designs using thread or yarn. The craftsmanship is evident in tablecloths, doilies, shawls, and clothing accessories. Terracotta figurines are another notable aspect of Goan handicrafts. Artisans mould clay into various forms, including idols, animals, and decorative objects. These terracotta creations reflect the craftsmanship and cultural symbolism of Goa (Jolliffe, 2014; Pereira, 2008).

Goa is renowned for its hand-painted tiles, also known as azulejos. These tiles feature intricate designs and patterns depicting Goan culture, history, and nature scenes. They are decorative elements in homes, churches, and heritage structures. Goan artisans demonstrate their woodworking skills by creating furniture, carved doors, frames, and other wooden crafts. The craftsmanship often exhibits intricate carvings and designs inspired by Goa's colonial and traditional architecture.

Art and handicrafts in Goa are a testament to the region's creativity, skill, and cultural heritage. They embody the artistic traditions passed down through generations, showcasing a unique blend of local aesthetics, influences from the Portuguese colonial era, and elements of Goan life and nature. These crafts contribute to the visual richness and artistic ambience that defines Goan culture (Shirodkar, 1997).

1.7.7 Traditional Goan Attire

The traditional costume of the womenfolk in Goa comprises a 9-yard sari, also referred to as the 'Pano Bhaju', and some jewellery to balance out the entire outfit. The fishermen do not have any attire but are usually seen adorning bright cotton shirts with half-pants. The attire of the tribal people in Goa comprises a loincloth known as 'Kashti', with a blanket draped around their shoulders. The women wear traditional saris with a tied knot using their 'Kunbi palloo' and have a distinctive style (Shirodkar, 1997; Silva Gracias, 1996).

1.7.8 Traditional Goan Occupation

Many communities have fishing as their primary occupation. The fertile regions of Goa have many farmers. The top crops cultivated in this region are paddy, banana, pulses, cashew, mango, coconut, ragi, pineapple, maise, jackfruit, and others. Due to the increasing number of tourists, a significant part of the population has indulged in the tourism industry (D'Souza Clyde, 2021; Pereira, 2008).

1.7.9 Language and Literature

Language and literature play a significant role in shaping the cultural identity of Goa. Konkani is the official language of Goa and is central to the state's cultural fabric, which is spoken by most of the population. It has a rich oral and literary tradition, with various dialects and scripts. It is an Indo-Aryan language with several dialects, reflecting the linguistic diversity within Goa. Konkani is written in the Devanagari script and serves as a communication, expression, and cultural preservation medium for the Goan community (Borges et al., 2000; Malgonkar, 1982).

Goan authors' have contributed significantly to Konkani literature, encompassing poetry, novels, plays, and folk literature. Konkani literature is an important part of Goan culture, with a rich heritage of literary works in various genres. Goan authors' have contributed to developing Konkani poetry, fiction, plays, and essays, exploring themes of love, spirituality, social issues, and Goan identity (Kandolkar, 2024). Prominent Konkani writers include Ravindra Kelekar, Manoharrai Sardesai, Pundalik Naik, and Damodar Mauzo. The influence of Portuguese colonisation is evident in the linguistic and literary heritage of Goa. The Portuguese language has left its mark on Goan culture, with many Goans proficient in Portuguese. Some Goan writers have also produced literature in Portuguese, infusing Goan perspectives and themes into their works (Sardessai, 1983; Shastry, 2000).

1.8 Statement of Research Problem

The Goan economy relies heavily on the tourism industry, which provides a source of livelihood for a significant portion of the state's population. After mining, tourism has emerged as a major industry in Goa, attracting domestic and international tourists who experience the state's rich cultural heritage and natural beauty. However, despite being renowned as an ideal holiday destination, Goa's popularity as a tourist hotspot seems to be waning. This has become a matter of concern for all stakeholders in the tourism industry. The key issues that have been identified include:

1.8.1 Dynamic Tourists' Influx

Over the years, Goa has gained prominence as a major party destination and stands out as one of the few states in India where casinos are legal, drawing numerous tourists. Since 2008, the number of tourists visiting Goa has consistently increased. However, the annual

growth rate saw fluctuations, with a significant rise of 30.55% in 2015, which fell to 19.50% in 2016. The growth rate slightly improved to 22.98% in 2017 but sharply declined to 2.95% in 2018.

By the end of 2018, Goa welcomed 80, 15, 400 tourists', including 70, 81, 559 domestic and 9, 33, 841 foreign visitors. The COVID-19 pandemic caused a notable drop in tourist numbers, but by 2021, there was a recovery, with approximately 33.08 lakh domestic and 0.22 lakh foreign tourists. By September 2022, Goa recorded about 49.55 lakh domestic and 0.95 lakh foreign tourists' (Statista Research Department, 2023). Compared to other states, Goa's growth in foreign tourist arrivals lags. In 2018, the top five states for domestic tourism were Tamil Nadu (385.9 million visitors), Uttar Pradesh (285.1 million), Karnataka (214.3 million), Andhra Pradesh (194.8 million), and Maharashtra (119.2 million), accounting for 20.8%, 15.4%, 11.6%, 10.5%, and 6.4% of the domestic tourist share, respectively. These states collectively represented 64.7% of India's total domestic tourist visits.

For foreign tourists in 2018, the leading states were Tamil Nadu (6.1 million), Maharashtra (5.1 million), Uttar Pradesh (3.8 million), Delhi (2.7 million), and Rajasthan (1.8 million), contributing 21.0%, 17.6%, 13.1%, 9.5%, and 6.1% of the foreign tourist market share, respectively, and together comprising 67.3% of the total foreign tourist visits in India. This data indicates that Goa's foreign tourist arrivals have not grown at the same rate as its domestic tourism, especially compared to other leading states. Additionally, tourism stakeholders have raised concerns about the quality of domestic tourists in Goa, as they are perceived to contribute minimally to the local economy.

1.8.2 Challenges for the Protection of Cultural Sustainability

Sustainability has been essential in the tourism sector in the past decades due to the impact of tourism activities on the economic, social, and environmental aspects (Connelly, 2007; Garrod & Fyall, 2000). Therefore, promoting awareness and protection of biodiversity is vital to ensure the sustainability of tourism activities (Kean Hua, 2018). Previous scholars have frequently discussed these aspects or pillars while explaining the concept of sustainable tourism development. In the policy field, culture has been mentioned as an aspect of social sustainability and sometimes even an aspect or dimension of its own.

During UNESCO's Decade of Culture and Development (1988-1997), the relationship between culture and development was debated, leading to the WCCD report "Our Creative

Diversity" (World Commission on Culture and Development, 1995). Since then, the link between sustainable development and culture has been discussed in other international conventions and policy documents, such as "In from the Margins" (Council of Europe, 1997), "Convention for the Protection of Intangible Heritage" (UNESCO, 2001), and "Convention on the Protection and Promotion of the Diversity of Cultural Expressions", (UNESCO, 2005). However, these documents do not delve into the relationship between culture and sustainable development or culture and environment. There have been other policy initiatives to introduce culture as an aspect of sustainable development at the international, national, regional, and even local levels.

At the international level, United Cities and Local Governments (UCLGs) have actively promoted culture as an aspect of sustainable development. UCLG adopted Agenda 21 on culture, suggesting that culture should be included in local political processes. UCLG has also included culture in the Rio+20 process (UCLG, 2008). Although government policies and NGOs increasingly recognise the importance of culture as an aspect of sustainable development, it can be argued that culture is still not as institutionalised as an aspect of sustainability because it has not been systematically incorporated into sustainable development policies, practices, or assessments development related to ecological, economic, and social sustainability. Consequently, international, national, regional, and local policies aimed at sustainable development often treat the cultural dimension as part of the social dimension or ignore it altogether (Chiu, 2004; Throsby, 2008).

It is known that stakeholders are the key players that play an essential role in making and developing any state, country, or region. Tourism is one sector wherein there is a need for better development at every point. Having said this, for such tourism development in the state, there should be a more excellent intuition from all the stakeholders. Although the government makes so many decisions in policy formulation and promoting tourism development in the state, it will only benefit and sustain for a long time if we get support and similar opinions from all other stakeholders.

In Goa, the varied differences in people's views and interests that exist between them lead to the cause of conflict. There are many opportunities to develop and sustain the Goan tourism industry, but the lack of support from stakeholders has led to the absence of tourism development. To address these challenges and ensure sustainable development, collaboration among stakeholders in policy formulation, implementation, and monitoring is

crucial (Mbaiwa, 2005). Furthermore, cultural commissions and traditional councils should actively promote cultural vitality and resolve conflicts that impede eco-cultural sustainability (Osman, 2022).

Managing tourism's effects is essential to safeguard cultural resources while maximising benefits for local populations. The relationship between tourism and cultural preservation is complex, with the potential for both beneficial and adverse outcomes. To mitigate negative impacts, it is vital to adopt responsible management practices that engage local communities, foster cultural education, and embrace balanced development strategies (Shahzalal, 2016).

1.8.3 Economic Potential of ICH

Despite being a small state in India, Goa boasts vibrant cultural diversity and a rich tangible heritage, including forts, monuments, museums, religious sites, and rock art, which are major tourist attractions and a significant strength of the state. On the other hand, the state's ICH which encompasses oral traditions, performing arts, social practices, rituals, festive events, traditional craftsmanship, and more- is also a key asset in cultural heritage tourism. This is contingent on its alignment with international human rights standards, mutual respect among communities, and sustainable development.

ICH provides vital cultural authenticity and offers tourists a deep understanding of a destination's culture, enhancing the competitiveness of ICH within the broader cultural heritage tourism sector and generating socio-economic benefits for stakeholders. However, the commodification of ICH as a tourism product has threatened its authenticity, which is crucial for the cultural continuity of communities. To mitigate this, the UNWTO (2017) has recommended approaches that promote ICH as a sustainable tourism resource, emphasising safeguarding its cultural values. This responsibility lies largely with those who practice, maintain, or promote ICH. Thus, exploring perspectives on ICH as a sustainable tourism resource is important (Kim et al., 2019).

Cultural tourism has the potential to create a ***"beautiful connection"*** between host communities and visitors, offering economic benefits that can drive the development of basic infrastructure. Effective cultural tourism marketing can support individuals and artisan communities, ensuring viability and sustainability. Moreover, it can act as a catalyst for preserving tangible and intangible heritage. Goa is a place where numerous intangible cultural attractions could be further developed and promoted, with potential and diversity

that surpass current offerings. The state's rich cultural resources, including festivals, folk dances, folklore, and traditional customs, present significant opportunities for attracting cultural tourists.

1.9 Research Questions

Culture is an essential component of the tourism industry. Nevertheless, no systematic study has yet been conducted to understand the tourists using these cultural facilities. How great is the demand for cultural tourism products? What cultural resources are supplied by the residents, and what are the perceived benefits and costs? What elements of culture attract tourists? Are the tourists satisfied and would like to revisit the cultural destination?

One of the critical questions is whether any specific model has been implemented to sustain cultural tourism development. Thus, a systematic assessment of cultural tourism and its resources is needed from the viewpoint of tourists, the host community, and stakeholders in the tourism industry. Keeping the study's central question in mind, the identified questions of the present research are below.

I. What is the potential demand and supply for developing cultural tourism through intangible cultural heritage resources?
II. Does any dimension influence tourists' satisfaction, behavioural intentions to revisit, and actual behaviour towards intangible cultural heritage resources?
III. Does any factor influence the residents' perceived cultural impact, attitudes, and support for cultural tourism?
IV. Has any specific model been implemented for sustainable cultural tourism development?

a. How can a new scale for cultural sustainability indicators and sustainable cultural tourism development be developed and measured?

b. How do cultural sustainability indicators influence sustainable cultural tourism development?

c. How do demographic characteristics moderate the relationship between cultural sustainability indicators and sustainable cultural tourism development?

1.10 Objectives of the Study

Based on the research questions, broader objectives are framed, which include:

I. To assess the cultural tourism potential demand and supply through intangible cultural heritage resources.
II. To examine the structural dimensions influencing tourists' satisfaction, their behavioural intentions to revisit, and their actual behaviour towards intangible cultural heritage resources.
III. To investigate the factors influencing the residents' perceived cultural impact, attitudes, and support for cultural tourism through intangible cultural heritage resources.
IV. To design a sustainable cultural tourism development model through intangible cultural heritage resources.

a. To develop and measure a new scale for cultural sustainability indicators and sustainable cultural tourism development.

b. To examine the influence of cultural sustainability indicators on sustainable cultural tourism development.

c. To examine the moderating role of demographic characteristics in the relationships between cultural sustainability indicators and sustainable cultural tourism development.

1.10.1 Objective I: To assess the cultural tourism potential demand and supply through intangible cultural heritage resources

The first objective assessed the potentialities of cultural tourism demand and supply through ICH, considering the opinions of tourists and residents. The analysis is based on the model Du Cros, (2001) proposed, primarily applied to tangible cultural resources across countries. For the present study, the model is modified to suit the need of the present study of the potentialities of intangible cultural resources by applying similar constructs. This helps to understand how effective the modified model is for the intangible cultural resources in Goa.

1.10.2 Objective II: To examine the structural dimensions influencing tourists' satisfaction, their behavioural intentions to revisit, and their actual behaviour towards intangible cultural heritage resources

The second objective mainly examines the influence of various dimensions on tourists' behavioural intention to revisit. The measurements were further used to determine if any dimensions influence tourists' satisfaction. The study also examines the direct relationship between behavioural intentions to revisit and the actual behaviour of the tourists. Furthermore, mediation analysis has been conducted to determine whether tourists' satisfaction has mediated the relationships between various dimensions and behavioural intention to revisit. Such relationships were examined by the adapted and extended model of the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB).

1.10.3 Objective III: To investigate the factors influencing the residents' perceived cultural impact, attitudes, and support for cultural tourism through intangible cultural heritage resources

In the third objective, the study investigates the residents' perceived cultural impacts and attitudes towards cultural tourism and tourists, ultimately supporting cultural tourism. Various constructs are identified from the earlier literature and analysed using direct and indirect relationships between the constructs. Therefore, an adapted and revised Social Exchange Theory (SET) framework is applied.

1.10.4 Objective IV: To design a sustainable cultural tourism development model through intangible cultural heritage resources

The fourth and last objective focuses on measuring the indicators of cultural tourism sustainability based on Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Partial Least Square-Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM). A new scale has been developed to measure the effective indicators of cultural tourism sustainability and SCTD. Further, this study intends explicitly to propose a new collaborative and integrated model of Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development (SCTD) through ICH by examining the influence of CSI on SCTD. Finally, the moderating role of demographic characteristics was assessed to check how respondents' opinions vary across their demographic attributes toward the influence of CSI on SCTD.

1.11 Significance of the Study

Culture has entered the process of social change in many forms, bringing cultural interaction with profound interest to cultural tourists worldwide. Cultural tourism focuses on the rich past of the people or areas as preserved and portrayed in monuments, historical sites, architecture, and artefacts. It is recognised as a potent force for preservation, maintaining, and conserving the aboriginality of a place. Hence, cultural tourism in this context can be a tremendous force for cultural conservation and a viable means for promoting the socio-economic development of host communities and sustainably promoting tourism.

Cultural tourism development is community-based, participatory, and designed to improve residents' economic and social well-being in addition to the concerned institutional and physical environments. It also promotes international understanding, friendship, and universal brotherhood through cultural exchange among nations, regions, and communities. It is often seen to maintain the past and improve a community's quality of life, help promote handicrafts and local arts, and support local artisans. Though cultural tourism is a complex segment of the tourism industry, its demand and supply are diverse and versatile. However, the demand for cultural travel is expected to proliferate by changing the recreational needs of tourists and other visitors.

Therefore, the most relevant aspect of this research is to bring to light the significant cultural contributions of Goa through a scientific inquiry from the perception of both tourists and the host community. The results of this study will aid government officials in planning for cultural tourism development. The research findings will be instrumental to the policymakers and opinion leaders of the tourism sector in drafting policies that would benefit all stakeholders in the tourism industry. It would enlighten both existing and potential investors on critical investment areas in cultural tourism. The research findings will also help other scholars in cultural studies in tourism.

1.12 Scope of the Study

The scope of the present study is very far-reaching and profound. Deep-rooted studies have yet to be undertaken to link the tourism industry with culture. Hence, there is ample scope for research in the dynamics of cultural tourism management and its utmost importance in the fast-changing society of Goa, which is dominated by technological progress. The scope

of the present study is therefore categorized into four key dimensions: topical, geographical, analytical, and functional.

Topically, the present study focuses on the field of sustainable cultural tourism development, an area that remains underexplored in tourism research. The study aims to explore the potential of cultural tourism, examines the tourists' intentions to revisit ICH resources and the support of residents for cultural tourism. It also focuses on developing and measuring scales for CSI and SCTD. Additionally, it analyses the relationship between CSI and SCTD to highlight the importance of preserving and promoting local culture through sustainability.

Geographically, the study is centred on Goa, a unique Indian state with a rich cultural heritage and strong tourism appeal. Goa's diverse traditions, colonial history, and vibrant local practices make it an ideal location for assessing the impact and opportunities of cultural tourism. The study explores how cultural tourism can be used not only to attract visitors but also to preserve and enhance the cultural fabric of the region.

Analytically, the study evaluates the behavioural intentions of tourists, specifically their likelihood to revisit Goa as a cultural destination. It also investigates the perceptions of residents regarding the impacts of cultural tourism and their support for such initiatives. Furthermore, the study includes the development of a new model for sustainable cultural tourism, based on empirical research and contextual analysis, to guide future planning and implementation.

Functionally, the study offers practical contributions to tourism management by providing insights and recommendations for stakeholders, policymakers, and community leaders. It aims to inform tourism strategies that balance cultural preservation with economic development, while also encouraging resident participation. Additionally, the study serves as a foundation for future research in cultural tourism, fostering academic interest and further exploration in this evolving field.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Research is a process of finding specific answers to specific questions in a well-organised, objective, and reliable way (Payton, 1979). It is a systematic, controlled, empirical, and critical investigation of hypothetical propositions about hypothetical relationships between natural phenomena (Kerlinger, 1973). Research is the search for truth with the help of earlier research, observation, comparison, and experimentation, and the search for knowledge through objective and systematic methods to find solutions to problems (Kothari, 2009). Therefore, research plays a vital role in providing solutions for each new research as it provides directions to address specific and critical problems. If the issues that have occurred have been fully discovered and resolved, it is not investigative research. However, accumulating amicable and hypothetical possible solutions. Therefore, research is crucial in providing solutions for each new research, offering directions to address specific and critical problems. Investigative research is not about fully discovering and resolving issues that have occurred but about accumulating amicable and hypothetical possible solutions, considered a commendable achievement in research work.

This broad research term will help each researcher to conduct research better and seek existing knowledge in the form of published and unpublished research articles in various journals, books, and websites. This knowledge provides a basic idea for the proposed research work to determine the type of research carried out in different fields and topics. This basic concept is technically called “literature review” or “searching for background information”, relevant to research. Literature or narrative reviews are review articles and academic works that include current knowledge, substantive discoveries, theoretical, and methodological contributions to specific topics. It acts as a secondary source for the present study.

The literature review is the foundation of research in almost all academic fields. It thus can be used as a part of a peer-reviewed journal article publishing new research, to place current research in the main body of relevant literature, and to provide readers with background

information. In such a case, the review usually precedes the methodology and results section of the work. Literature reviews answer the fundamental questions before starting the research work, such as the source of information, data collection methods, identifying research gaps, and tools in all the research areas. Suppose these suspicions become clear in the researcher's mind; in that case, the preparation of the content analysis and the appropriate methodology can be carried out more reliably for further research work.

2.2 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

The study has adopted the following criteria for inclusion and exclusion in the review analysis.

The inclusion criteria are as follows:

(i) Recent research articles have been given more importance, but to understand the meanings and definitions of a few constructs, articles published before the 2000s are also included. The researcher ensured minimum overlap in the selected papers and periods.

(ii) The research papers are published in peer-reviewed, high-impact indexed journals published in Scopus, Web of Science, and UGC CARE List; conference proceedings and other research notes, which are essential for the study, are included.

(iii) The study examines the relationship between the selected constructs, allowing for variations in their definitions due to different labels.

(iv) It focuses on qualitative and quantitative studies that report correlation, path, or regression coefficients and other empirical and exploratory results.

(v) Research articles written in English are included in the study.

The exclusion criteria are as follows:

(i) Studies of potentialities, behavioural intention, residents' support, and sustainability other than tourism studies.

(ii) Studies with data not reliably extracted, duplicate, or overlapping data.

(iii) Abstract-only papers and theses which are unpublished and articles without full text available.

(iv) Books, e-books, book chapters, reports, and websites offer foundational statistical data and analysis knowledge.

(v) Studies that explain statistical tools and analysis, along with their threshold limits, are not included in the scope of the review analysis.

2.3 Keywords for Database Search

The keyword selection was a simple but comprehensive process based on a preliminary review of the available literature. To capture relevant literature, the researcher used different sets of English keywords, using the asterisk wildcard to include permutations of each phrase and Boolean operators. Similarly, at least two keywords are combined to enable better literature results. The list of keywords applied to the study is as follows:

Keywords
"cultural resourc; intangible cultural resource*; cultural heritag* site*; tourist's behavio* intention; tourist's revisit* intention; cultural tourism destinations; tourist revisit intention; tourists' satisfaction; tourists' destination image, tourists' motivation; memorable tourists' experiences; theory of planned behavio*; residents' perceived impacts; residents' attitude; community attachment; community involvement; social exchange theory; cultural tourism potentialities; Du Cros model; tourism potential demand and supply; cultural sustainability indicators; and sustainable cultural tourism development".*

Source: *Author's compilation based on previous research studies*

2.4 Initial Data Statistics

The selected keywords facilitated the extraction of specific and relevant data from the database. All the extracted data, including title, abstract, keywords, authors' names and affiliations, journal name, and year of publication of the identified records, were exported to an MS Excel spreadsheet. Initially, 629 articles were identified. All the records were screened independently for full-text research articles.

Of the 629 articles, 161 were sourced from books, e-books, and websites. Although these were not included in the final review analysis, they provided essential background knowledge, helping to clarify statistical data, refine methodologies, and enhance the understanding of statistical analysis. Their insights contributed to a more comprehensive

interpretation of the reviewed studies. The remaining 468 articles are included in the final review papers, demonstrating that the methods used to identify and select the literature were explicit, reproducible, and without a priori assumptions on the relevance of the chosen literature.

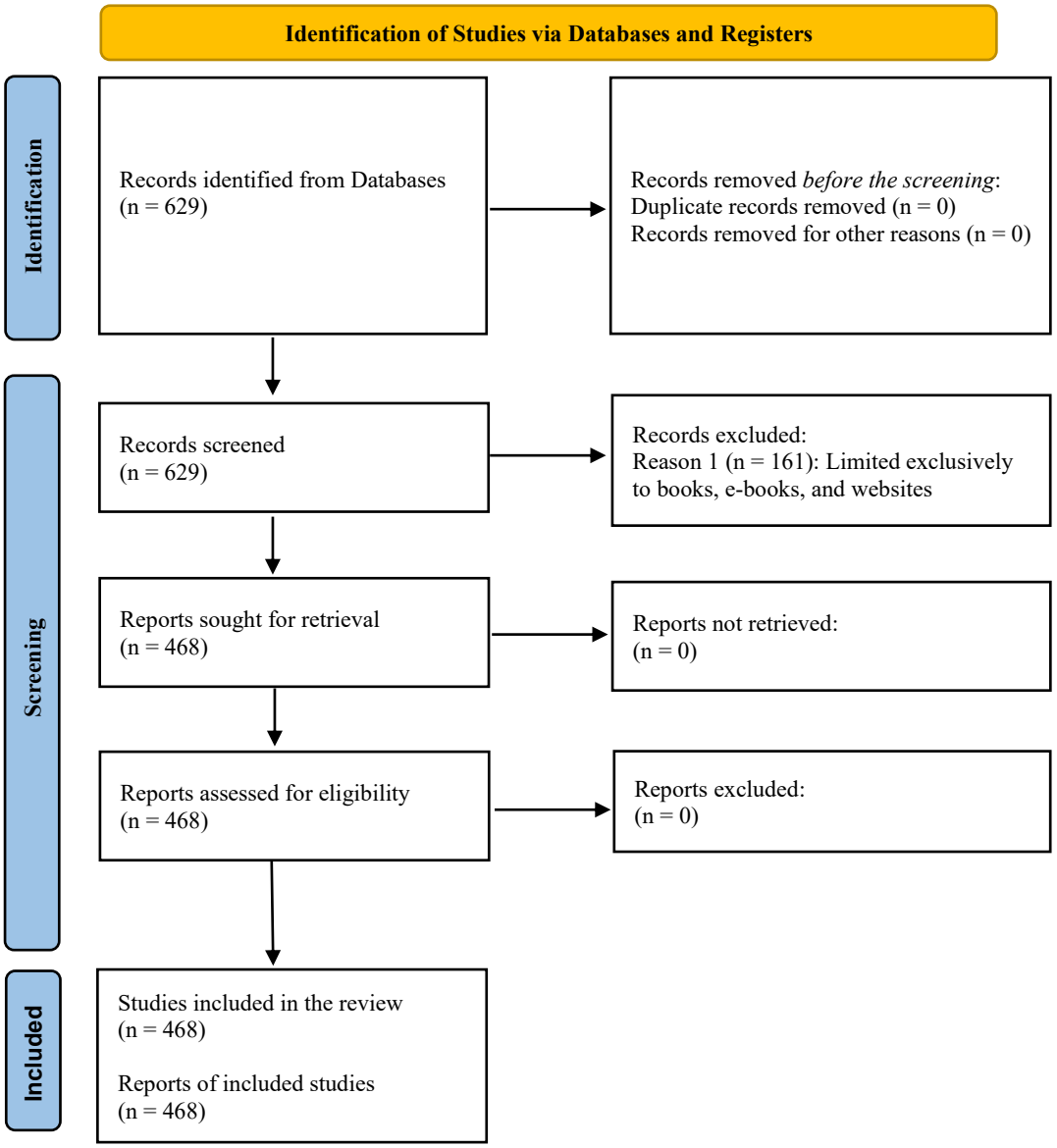


Figure 2. 1 PRISMA Model Flowchart

Source: *Author's compilation based on previous research studies*

The MS Excel spreadsheet was modified by adding the items for which data were sought for data management. More specifically, the included studies' bibliographic details, the PRISMA checklist's essential items with some extensions, and an item to address reporting the PRISMA flowchart were added to the data management spreadsheet (Refer to Figure 2.

1). Items related to the risk of bias, confidence intervals, consistency measures, sensitivity, or subgroup analysis were omitted as they did not apply to systematic reviews in this field and the scope of this study.

2.5 Review Analysis

This section contains a thorough review of published articles and all possible academic and non-academic work in tourism studies to have an excellent theoretical background for the study. It covers the thoughts of the relevant literature concerning the various objectives of the study. The classification of the literature review under different categories is explained below in detail:

2.5.1 Concept-Wise Distribution of Articles

This classification has been categorised into various terms and concepts, which are explained below:

2.5.1.1 Cultural Tourism

Tourism and culture can alter or modify any local community (Ranasinghe & Cheng, 2018) by influencing how people see themselves, their identities, and ICH resources (Cassel & Maureira, 2015). Due to tourism, many cultural practices and traditions are progressively becoming a basket of tourism products, so community identity is frequently recreated to meet visitor expectations (Coronado, 2014). For instance, Mokoena (2019) evaluated the visitors' reactions to the experiences and cultural presentation at the Basotho cultural village. Visitors enjoy engaging in cultural activities such as snapping pictures, tasting cuisine, and conversing with the village workers.

Palawan, the Philippines' Island province, has a rich historical and cultural tourism potential to attract visitors who desire to see and experience new things in the area (Alejandria-Gonzalez, 2016). Cultural tourism in Kenya, particularly in the Gusii community, has shown potential, as these communities offer local and international tourists a uniquely transformative experience (Ondimu, 2002). The host community's varied cultural attractions can be used to define its developmental model.

Richards (1996) examines the meaning and relevance of cultural tourism in the context of social, economic, and political factors that have shaped its development across Europe. It

was essential for extending cultural facilities, growth, and development and establishing pan-European tourist and cultural policies. Hughes and Allen (2005) also found that cultural tourism positively impacted Central and Eastern Europe. Vergori and Arima (2020) identified a "new (and younger) cultural tourism" growing in Italy by comparing cultural and non-culture foreign visitors using socio-economic-demographic characteristics.

Numerous studies have highlighted the significant potential of cultural and heritage tourism across various regions and countries. These include historical sites in the Khao Phra Viharn National Park area in Sisaket, Thailand (Chaigasem et al., 2019; Sakdiyakorn & Sivarak, 2016); cultural tourism experiences in China and South Africa (Sirayi et al., 2020); the unique offerings of Sarawak, Malaysia (Haigh, 2020); tourism opportunities in remote island destinations (Croes & Semrad, 2015); and sites across India (Pratheep, 2017; Sivakumar et al., 2019); Spain (Lascu et al., 2018), Vietnam (Nguyen & Cheung, 2013), the USA (Timothy, 2014), and Toraja, Indonesia (Esfehani & Albrecht, 2016).

The diversity of approaches to the relationship between tourism and culture underlines the problems of definition that exist in this area. Since culture touches all aspects of human life, it can be argued that everything is cultural. Even though cultural tourism is an area of tourism potential, there is currently not enough official information to identify this sector and its specific needs, to understand how tourists interact with cultural heritage, or to determine which main areas are considered in managing cultural tourism (Galí-Espelt, 2012).

Richards (1996) advised that the early approaches to the relationship between tourism and culture were more based on the "sites and monuments", in which a country or region's cultural attractions were viewed primarily as physical, cultural sites. This approach formed the basis for compiling the European Cultural Tourism Inventory in the 1980s. Reviewing the conceptual definition of culture, Mousavi et al. (2016) and Richards (1996) also argued that culture consists of products (like buildings, customs, and art) and processes (as a way of life) associated with culture. Gradually, however, a broader view of culture in tourism emerged, including performing arts (Buigut & Amaize, 2020), crafts (Richards, 2001), cultural events, architecture and design, and creative activities (Richards & Wilson, 2006), the ICH and indigenous tourism (Ruhanen & Whitford, 2019), and ethnicity (Gokhale et al., 2014; Yang, 2011).

According to McIntosh and Goeldner (1986), cultural tourism, whose origins are embodied in the concept of culture, can be defined as all aspects of travel through which travellers learn about the history and heritage of others or their contemporary way of life or thought. Richards and van der Ark, (2013) argued that the cultural tourism market has diversified and fragmented into many different niches regarding tourists' consumption of cultural attractions and events. As more and more indigenous communities worldwide turn to tourism to reform their economies, optimistic predictions about the benefits of tourism must be considered, as well as the negative impacts of tourism on communities' tangible and intangible cultural assets. For example, cultural degradation, commercialisation and commodification of ICH, and loss of identity are ways tourism negatively impacts cultures (McIntosh et al., 2002; Ranasinghe & Cheng, 2018)

Consequently, threats to ICH are problematic for the care and preservation of culture, the commercial sustainability of the 'cultural product', and any long-term socio-economic benefits that tourism can bring to a community and region. However, they are increasingly viewed as unique tourism "assets" (Nielsen & Wilson, 2012). Debeş (2011) shows that cultural tourism in the Mediterranean island (Northern Cyprus) needs to establish its cultural identity due to the negligent nature of the authorities and related cultural agencies. A lack of vision towards commodifying cultural products leads to a decline in the quality of the visitor's experience.

Similarly, Cooper (2020) concludes that Katuaq cannot become a "cultural centre". It is suggested that the future of successful and complete cultural tourism offerings in the Arctic lies at the intersection of tourism and leisure studies. The Republic of Croatia, although a tourism-oriented country, has also shown that cultural tourism has a low economic contribution due to the lack of consumption by cultural tourists (Zadel & Bogdan, 2013).

With a varied culture, Goa threatens traditional culture if not preserved or adequately conserved (Gokhale et al., 2014; Pawaskar & Goel, 2012). Therefore, tourism planners and developers must balance development's various economic and social benefits with the potential cost or risk to create sustainable tourism development based on cultural attractions (Blazey, 2002). Cultural tourism should focus more on integrating production and consumption, thus increasing the linkages between suppliers and consumers. Cultural tourists demonstrate a proactive approach to meeting their needs, wanting to actively participate in creating an experience while travelling, and on the other side, suppliers pay

attention to the consumers towards co-creation of higher quality experiences (Jovicic, 2016) through close monitoring and mentoring the tourism activities (Sharma & Sharma, 2017).

2.5.1.2 Tourism Potentialities

Since each cultural destination is a unique resource that differs from the others, choosing a particular focus for each type of cultural destination is challenging due to its complexity. Despite its complexity, it is not only a necessary but a fundamental step in evaluating the destination tourism potential (Bucurescu, 2015). Du Cros (2001) states that assessing tourism potential is critical to tourism planning and destination development. From a tourism point of view, this assessment evaluates the attractiveness of the historic city, including the main features that attract people to visit the place due to the improvement of the flexibility of the destination, infrastructure, tourism, culture, and environment. Regarding the tourism potential, various resources have entered the evaluation area, such as cultural to natural, cultural to industrial (Landorf, 2016), global to regional, large as a city or city as small as a street or square (Bucurescu, 2015; Neupane et al., 2013), urban to rural (Kuo & Wu, 2013), and area to route (Sánchez Rivero et al., 2014).

Many studies have been conducted to assess the possibilities of tourism using multiple models and techniques. In one such case, one of the prevailing models was developed by Du Cros (2001) to help plan sustainable heritage tourism. The methodology proposed in the model is based on the bi-directional relationships between the central components, namely the cultural integrity or robusticity, and the commercial factors associated with converting a heritage site into a heritage tourist attraction (market appeal/ attractiveness). The terms market robusticity and market appeal are used here to construct a matrix. The matrix for heritage sites is divided into four sections: high market appeal with relatively high robusticity, moderate market appeal with relatively high robusticity, relatively high market appeal with low robusticity, and low market appeal.

Many researchers have used the Du Cros (2001) model to assess tourism potential, such as Li and Lo (2004), who evaluated the market appeal's applicability and the destination's robusticity. The analysis found that the matrix effectively improved study outcomes but also revealed areas for improvement in the sub-indicators, such as product design requirements and lack of community concerns on the leading indicators. Stamenković and Jakšić (2013) used the model without modifications to understand better the upgrading of Sombor's Old

Town Centre's tourism potential. According to the study, Sombor Old Town shows average market attractiveness and robustness. The study concluded that further promotion and improvement are needed for the organisation to be recognised nationally.

Bjeljac et al. (2012) applied this model to a natural heritage area in the Serbian part of Banat instead of a cultural heritage area with some modified sub-indicators. They noted that paying particular attention to the area's sustainability with a moderate number of visits is essential, which also minimises the risk of degradation and destruction. Pobric et al. (2019) evaluated the model regarding touristic valorisation of cultural and historical heritage in Bascarsija, noting that the place has a unique identity and market attractiveness due to its high cultural symbolic importance and market appeal.

The model proposed by Du Cros (2001) was later refined and applied to cultural heritage (McKercher et al., 2005). The subsequent framework has four components: cultural, physical, product, and experiential value. These are generated by disaggregating the last element of the Du Cros model, which includes model sub-indicators such as physical importance and strength, development needs, and market attractiveness. Laing et al. (2014) used this framework to study Chinese heritage assets in an Australian city, focusing on the built heritage's experiential value. They found that historic buildings have high and medium intrinsic values. Likewise, Sheng and Lo (2010) adopted a modified model to assess the tourism potential of nine major museums in China. It found moderate tourism potential for museums with additional factors such as marketing and leadership. However, poor accessibility, the isolation of tourism modes, the lack of complementarity with nearby attractions, and limited carrying capacity harm the museums' appeal to tourists.

Other models, such as Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats Analysis (SWOT), are also used to study the outcomes of tourism potential. Collins-Kreiner and Wall (2007) evaluated the possibilities using a SWOT analysis to understand the vacation spot comprehensively. Furthermore, they found that the SWOT analysis is beneficial, as it draws the evaluator's attention to identify strengths and weaknesses and examine the opportunities and threats. In this context, it refers to the strengths and opportunities as the value, whereas threats and weaknesses are constraints for tourism development. Grafenauer (2015) uses a descriptive study method to investigate why and how the city has no tourism potential despite its rich heritage, showing that the lack of local support and low frequency of tourist arrivals are the main obstacles to the tourism sector in Slovenia. Furthermore, a descriptive

survey indicated that the city has high tourist attractiveness regarding natural, tangible, and intangible heritage (Ptacek et al., 2017).

The Geographic Information Systems (GIS) method was developed to assess tourism potential using information technology and addressed scope, altitude, climate, vegetation, land use, culture, transport, and hotel accommodation (Pareta, 2013). This method was deemed the most appropriate as it considers the region's overview rather than individual sites, compares potential outcomes across different areas, and uses cultural and natural resources. Mikhailidi (2014) conducted a GIS survey to assess the potential of the Altai Mountains' tourism. The study found that a large-scale assessment can be represented visually on a map with the distribution of sites at different hierarchical levels. However, it limited the survey by needing to be able to identify detailed information to assess small areas.

The tourism potentials were also evaluated by evaluating the tourism stakeholders, such as tourism marketers and hoteliers, tourism experts, residents, and tourists. The supply-side view was examined by Io (2011) by interviewing tour guides and travel agency managers to learn more about itinerary design, site selection criteria, site evaluation, and the possibility of including more historical sites in tour packages. The study identified four key attributes: accessibility, tourist facilities, entertainment attractiveness, and competitiveness, compared to other tourist attractions within destinations. Cuccia and Rizzo (2011) also assessed the supply side of cultural attractiveness in Italy and concluded that tourist destination attractiveness is limited in seasonality.

The current literature has also noted the relevance of the weighted Sum Model (WSM) for understanding tourism potential. Mamun and Mitra (2012) developed a straightforward methodology to determine the tourism potential of Murshidabad District in West Bengal. The social and physical aspects were included in the study, and the scaling method and ranking were used. According to the study results, the Berhampore Cossimbazar group has the highest overall potential, followed by Lalbagh Khosbagh. The least opportunities are in the case of Jitpur Jalangi, which has never been developed as a tourist destination.

Furthermore, Neupane et al. (2013), considering additional aspects of the environment and the tourism potentialities of Bhaktapur Durbar in Nepal, noticed that the site has a rich cultural, historical, and religious heritage, a favourable geographical location, a positive

image of local food products, and friendly and welcoming local people. Moreover, a modified form of WSM in Kashmir included four indicators: nature, culture, adventure, sport, and other facilities. The results suggest that places in the study area can be classified as high, medium, or low regarding tourism potential.

Yan et al. (2017) have proposed a mathematical model that assesses the potential of China's cultural heritage sites from tourists' perspective. This paper examines the two approaches, resource value and status of development. Each sub-indicator is assigned a rank and weight (Mamun & Mitra, 2012). The results show that the tourism potential of heritage sites ranges from modest to high. Dogru et al. (2017) modified the tourism demand theory to assess international tourism demand in nine countries. An approach was proposed to predict the impact of the business cycle on tourism demand in Italy (Guizzardi & Mazzocchi, 2010). The two models, the Latent Cycle Component (LLC) and the Explanatory Economic Variables (EEC) were evaluated based on explanatory power, best diagnostic residual fit, and predictive ability and found to be similar. According to the study, these models can be used to design tourism strategies in Italy.

The studies have also analysed the potential of tourism in different areas. For example, Martín et al. (2017) evaluated the potential of sustainable development using the Distance Pena DP2 method and found that seasonality is restrained in smaller destinations with increasing tourist arrivals. An attempt has been made by Abdu et al., (2018) to provide an overview of Yemen's historical development, status, activities, and major destinations. According to Matei (2015), the unique environment, vast areas of natural hospitality, traditions and culture, gastronomy, and diversity of natural resources contribute to rural tourism development in northeastern Romania.

Popichit et al. (2013) studied the possibilities of tourist destinations and the factors influencing the travel intentions of tourists in Phra Nakhon Si Ayuthaya Province. The results showed that historical values have a high potential and that there is a positive association between attitudes toward tourism activities and future travel intentions. Deb Burman et al. (2007) examined cultural and eco-tourism opportunities in the northeastern states of India. They concluded that a lack of marketing and promotion, restrictive rules and regulations, and inadequate infrastructure facilities are significant obstacles to developing state tourism. Due to population growth, natural resources have declined in quality and number (Demirel, 2004).

2.5.1.3 Behavioural Intention

Behavioural intention is the subjective likelihood that a consumer will perform a specific action, such as purchasing a product or service (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). It considers an individual's expected or planned future behaviour (Çelik & Dedeoğlu, 2019) and their tendencies towards a particular action under given circumstances (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Ghorbanzade et al. (2019) defined behavioural intention as the visitor's assessment of the likelihood of revisiting the destination or being willing to recommend the destination to others.

Behavioural intention, often considered an immediate predictor of actual behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), has been a central focus in tourism research. Oliver and Swan (1989) defined it as the anticipated future behaviour of an individual that reflects one's expectations and inclinations toward a specific action in a given context. This concept is commonly measured by assessing the likelihood of engaging in a particular behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Within tourism studies, two key areas of focus are destination choice intention (Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006; Reza Jalilvand et al., 2012) and post-purchase behavioural intention (Kozak, 2002; Moutinho, 2011; Refaie et al., 2012).

Research on destination choice intention frequently draws upon the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), which posits that behavioural intention is influenced not only by an individual's attitude toward the behaviour but also by subjective norms and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 1991). Subjective norms refer to the perceived social pressure to act or refrain from acting, while perceived behavioural control relates to an individual's perception of the difficulty of performing the behaviour. Although many scholars have explored the relationship between value and behavioural intention, research on this relationship remains sparse in certain domains, such as intentions related to complaints (Liu & Mcclure, 2001), sustainable food consumption (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006), and service outcomes (Liu et al., 2001).

In tourism, studies on this topic are limited and yield mixed findings (Moutinho, 2011; Li & Cai, 2012; Madrigal & Kahle, 1994). In the tourism literature, numerous studies, such as Baker and Crompton (2000), Enrique Bign et al. (2001), and Lee et al. (2007), have used the terms "revisit intention" and "willingness to recommend" to examine travellers' behavioural intentions and future behaviour. Tourism marketers believe that generating repeat or

revisiting travellers will help increase destination revenue since repeat or revisit visitors tend to stay longer and spend more money to participate in more consumption-intensive activities (Wang, 2004).

Chen (2008) characterised behavioural intention under some dimensions using two elements, repurchase and recommendation intentions, while Casaló et al. (2010) used participation and recommendation intention to measure revisit intention for company-hosted online communities. Although behavioural intention has been widely used in past studies to indicate a preference to visit and recommend to others, it only briefly describes the proportion of revisits and the actual decision about future travel behaviour (Hamid et al., 2020).

2.5.1.4 Tourist Motivation

Motivation is the starting point for all travel-related events. The moment at which tourists leave their homes and travel to other places can contribute to a better understanding of tourism. Backman et al. (1995) define motivation as "a state of need or a condition that serves as a driving force to display different kinds of behaviour towards certain type activities, developing preferences, arriving at some expected satisfactory outcome. According to Pearce (2011), "travel motivation is a specific subset of individual motivations that includes the overall network of biological and cultural forces that impart value and trend to the choice, behaviour, and experience of travel". Similarly, Pearce (1988) stated that tourist motivation is defined as "a set of needs and desires that drive individuals to engage in travel behaviour, influencing their choice of destinations, activities, and experiences to achieve personal satisfaction and fulfilment".

Researchers believe that tourism motivation derives from the influence of the traveller's inner personality (Madrigal, 1995), psychographic characteristics (Iso-Ahola, 1982), and outside social/cultural forces (Huang & Hsu, 2005). Knowing tourist motivation provides insight into why tourists make a trip, including the experiences and activities likely to satisfy them. An appreciation of tourism motivation is crucial for destination marketers as it enables them to plan and implement effective and personalised marketing strategies (Yousefi & Marzuki, 2015).

In recent tourism literature, researchers have applied several theories, such as the push-pull theory and the Expectations, Motivations, and Attitudes (EMA) model, widely used to assess

tourists' motivation to travel. In this sense, using pull and push motivation theory, Yousefi and Marzuki (2015) identified novelty, knowledge-seeking, and cultural and historical attractions as the most critical factors. On the other hand, Turnbul and Uysal (1995) conclude that heritage and culture are the most important motivating factors for choosing Latin America as a travel destination. At the same time, You et al. (2000) find that family and friends are together, and sporting factors are also important in Great Britain and Germany.

Liro (2020) understands push-pull factors and revealed that tourists' who visit pilgrimage centres found that religious and touristic factors, cultural heritage, recreation, and social and family life factors affect tourists. Sooksai (2019) found that push factors such as escapism and relaxation, the desire to learn and see new things, while pulling factors such as location, safety, and image of the convenience of the place are the most important factors that attract tourists to visit the pilgrimage motivate centres, in addition, tourist attraction, affordability, disposable income, and price factors are converted into marketing factors. A gap analysis examined the supply and demand motives for visiting Botswana and found that tourists visit the destination primarily for pleasure rather than culture (Pansiri, 2014).

An adopted EMA model by Hsu et al. (2010) and Wong (2013) found a direct correlation between the traveller's expectations, attitudes, and motivation to visit an outbound destination. It is argued that push and pull factors influence tourist motivation and demographics. For example, Jönsson and Devonish (2008) concluded that fluctuations in tourist travel motivation should be predicted depending on nationality and age. However, gender was not found to be an important determinant.

Demographic factors such as age, education, occupation, and average monthly income, including gender, affect tourist travel to Ranong Province (Pranee et al., 2020). Other factors include history and culture (Nikjoo & Ketabi, 2015; Vong & Ung, 2012); facilities and services at heritage sites, attractions and interpretations of heritage (Vong & Ung, 2012); accessibility (Makuzva et al., 2018; Mawufemor et al., 2019); shopping environment, travel characteristics, and souvenirs (Mawufemor et al., 2019); sociocultural, governance, marketing, adverse events, and competitive advantage (Matiza & Slabbert, 2020); core indicators, facilitating indicators and supporting indicators (Ferreira & Perks, 2020); escape and relaxation (Mangwane et al., 2019; Mapingure et al., 2019; Nikjoo & Ketabi, 2015); finding nature, peace, novelty, recommendations and value for money, fun, and family

(Mangwane et al., 2019); cognitive image (Beerli-Palacio & Martín-Santana, 2017); and price (Makuzva et al., 2018) also facilitate tourists' motivation.

Factors such as new and different experiences, friends and family togetherness, reconnection with culture and tradition, socialisation, recovering equilibrium, and change from everyday life are the six domain factors that motivate visitors to attend cultural events (Maráková et al., 2018). In addition, Nongsiej and Mothilal (2019) identified that change from everyday life and friends and family togetherness are the most important factors for tourists visiting cultural festivals in Meghalaya. Thus, the intention of visiting the various cultural festivals in Meghalaya view was to change everyday life. Learning about the culture of the Meghalayan people is also an important reason for their visit to the festivals.

2.5.1.5 Tourists' Destination Image

In tourism marketing, tourists' perceptions of the destination influence their final decision or behavioural intention (Chen & Tsai, 2007). Pioneering studies on the image of tourist destinations from the 1970s and 1980s presented some theoretical definitions. According to Lawson and Baud Bovy (1977), the destination image is "the sum of all the tangible and intangible attributes of a place that a tourist perceives. It includes all the elements that make a location attractive to tourists, such as its natural environment, infrastructure, cultural heritage, and the experiences it offers".

Crompton (1979) defines destination image "as the sum of all beliefs, ideas, and impressions people associate with a destination". Enrique Bign et al. (2001) define destination image as "the tourist's subjective interpretation of reality". As a result, tourists' image of a destination is subjective mainly because it is based on each tourist's perceptions of all the destinations they have visited or heard about (San Martín & Rodríguez del Bosque, 2008). Destination image plays an essential role in tourist behaviour during the various moments that comprise a tourist's experience, such as making an a priori decision to choose a destination, comparing expectation with experience, which precedes the state of satisfaction and perceived quality, revisiting, spreading word of mouth, and recommending the destination to friends and family (Galí Espelt & Donaire Benito, 2005).

The relevance of destination image has resulted in an expanding body of literature on tourism destination image, which drives any destination's success. Tourist opinions are highly subjective because they form their antecedents based on their thoughts and emotions,

prompting researchers to look into the components of a tourism destination image. Baloglu and Mccleary (1999) identified that cognitive and affective images are the two interrelated dimensions of destination images. The cognitive image refers to the perception of destination characteristics, whereas the affective image refers to the mental picture of the destination (Govers et al., 2007).

Furthermore, Sharma and Nayak (2018) added a conative image that describes tourists' active consideration of a place as a potential travel destination, outlining a desired future state that tourists want to experience. Few other studies have incorporated additional factors, such as Nguyen Viet et al. (2020), which focused on two distinct dimensions: destination attractiveness and accommodation service. Kaur and Kaur (2020) have agreed on additional elements, including accessibility and tourism infrastructure, travel environment, architectural heritage, authentic culture, and affective image.

According to a study by Chen et al. (2010), mainland Chinese tourists perceive Kinmen Island as both an appealing destination and a place filled with mystery, contributing to its unique cognitive image as a tourist spot. Agapito et al. (2013) looked at the hierarchical nature of the interactions between the destination image's cognitive, conative, and affective elements. The findings supported the assumption that the cognitive component has a more significant influence on the conative dimensions when mediated by the affective component.

Baloglu and Mccleary (1999) claimed that combining these cognitive and affective images creates an overall image of a place that includes tangible and intangible features. Ezeuduji and Mhlongo (2019); Ezeuduji and Mlambo (2019); Haarhoff (2018); Henkel et al. (2006); Hsu et al., (2009); Lopes (2011); Tasci and Gartner, (2007) have focused on the tourists' overall image rather than their cognitive and affective image and thus concluded that such images of destinations create positive emotions among visitors.

2.5.1.6 Tourist's Memorable Experience

The tourism and travel industries rely significantly on travellers visiting a specific location. As a result, they must provide better tourism products that result in increased consumption and positive experience. According to Zhang et al. (2018), the tourist experience is the "essence of the tourism and hospitality industries". Memorable Tourism Experiences (MTEs) can be remembered and recalled after a trip and are selectively formed from tourist experiences. MTEs are more significant because only remembered experiences influence

tourist decision-making in the future (Kerstetter & Cho, 2004; Kim et al., 2010). Tourists base their decisions on previous experiences and memories while planning future vacations (Lehto et al., 2004).

According to Manthiou et al. (2015), the amount and quality of tourists' previous experiences and satisfaction with those experiences significantly affect their behaviour. Tourists interact with attractions in various ways, including education, aesthetics, escapism, and entertainment (Gani et al., 2019). According to Kim (2014), the destination attributes of MTEs encompass ten dimensions, including local culture, various activities, hospitality, infrastructure, environmental management, accessibility, quality of service, physiography, place attachment, and superstructure. MTEs are crucial for any destination's competitiveness and long-term sustainability, as they impact future destination choices of a tourist site, deliver a pleasant and memorable experience, and increase the likelihood of tourists returning and staying (Zhang et al., 2018).

2.5.1.7 Tourists' Satisfaction

According to Kotler et al. (1999), satisfaction "is the customer's feelings of pleasure or disappointment which are generated after comparison of the perceived performance of service and quality of actual service delivered". It is the result felt by buyers who have experienced company performance that met expectations. The definition has been applied in various business and marketing contexts. In tourism, satisfaction essentially denotes the result of the relationship between the tourist's expectation of the destination based on his prior information and image of the destination and his evaluation of the outcome of his experience at the destination visited (Pizam et al., 1978).

The tourist destination assessment informs stakeholders about how well the destination meets the needs of tourists, which allows for identifying the destination's strengths, weaknesses, and critical success factors from the tourist's point of view. Satisfied tourists usually recommend the best travel destination to others or express appreciation for the destination and want to visit again and vice versa (Baker & Crompton, 2000). This can help improve the quality of tourist-interesting products or services and enhance the competitiveness of each destination by formulating sound operational strategies (Huang & Hsu, 2009).

Žabkar et al. (2010) investigated how dissatisfied tourists can comment negatively about a destination, reducing its reputation in the market. When tourists visit a destination, they seek more than one experience. They stay in one hotel, leave the hotel to eat and drink, communicate with locals, and visit cultural and historical sites. A journey does not become a single product but consists of different service components, which several organisations often provide with other objectives.

Previous studies on tourist satisfaction have employed widely recognised models like the IPA model (Chandra Bagri & Kala, 2015), the SERQUAL model (Phu et al., 2020; Shafiq et al., 2019), and the HOLSAT model (Sukiman et al., 2013), identifying key factors that significantly influence levels of tourist satisfaction. It is found that the atmosphere and climate of a spiritual and cultural nature, the variety of tourism activities, and hospitality and safety are the essential factors in determining satisfaction (Chandra Bagri & Kala, 2015).

On the other hand, facilities such as accommodation, transport, tourism infrastructure, and hygiene and sanitation facilities are the most critical factors in evaluating tourist satisfaction. The results also show that tourists were unsatisfied with the basic facilities offered at the destination. The five dimensions of the SERQUAL model, which includes tangibility, reliability, empathy, assurance, and responsiveness, are the most satisfying for tourists' (Phu et al., 2020; Shafiq et al., 2019). The HOLSAT model applied by Sukiman et al. (2013) revealed that international tourists were satisfied with the availability of tourism brochures. At the same time, they were dissatisfied with the usage among local people in the destinations and the cleanliness of public toilets. On the other hand, domestic tourists are satisfied with the accessibility of the destination and the availability of shops and dissatisfied with cultural performances such as music and dance.

Previous research has also focused on tourists' satisfaction with specific cultural and heritage tourism to examine whether tourists are satisfied or dissatisfied with the cultural heritage they visit. A survey was conducted to assess tourists' satisfaction with the Stone City of Zanzibar in Tanzania, the world heritage site, and concluded that the House of Wonders and the distance of the attributes are far from the site. Some features, such as poor condition and repainting, have caused fluctuations in tourist satisfaction and have a negative impact (Chami, 2018).

A similar study by Phosikham et al. (2015) in Luang Prabang, Northern Laos, found that tourists were satisfied with the activities, facilities, and services offered. In addition, Asmelash and Kumar (2019), Cárdenas-García et al. (2016), Jauro et al. (2019), López-Guzmán and Santa-Cruz, (2016), Saha and Paul (2020), Teshome and Demissie, (2018), Ung and Vong, (2010), Vong, (2013), and Yang, (2012) have also analysed the satisfaction of tourists in ethnic, cultural, and heritage tourism destinations and found a positive impact on tourist satisfaction.

2.5.1.8 Community Attachment and Community Involvement

Resident empowerment is achieved by involving locals in tourism planning and community attachment (Lee, 2013; Nicholas et al., 2009). Brehm et al., (2004) define community attachment as "people's strong positive feelings, rootedness, and sense of belongingness to their community". Mccool and Martin (1994) defined it as "the breadth of social integration, community participation and people's feelings toward their community". Community attachment is individuals' connection or ties towards a community at an emotional or affective level based on how they are assimilated into community life. Since the concept is 'non-positivistic' or 'phenomenological', its definition is a matter of discussion.

Researchers have discussed various definitions in different academic fields, including geography, sociology, environmental science, urban planning, and landscape. Researchers have attempted to apply attachment to a place to tourism, such as Adongo et al. (2017), Brehm et al. (2004), Chen and Chen (2010b), Choi and Murray (2010), Eslami et al. (2019); Gursoy et al. (2002); Gursoy and Rutherford (2004); Lee (2013); López et al. (2018); Mccool and Martin (1994); and Nicholas et al. (2009). These studies identified a relationship between the degree of attachment to the community, perceived benefits, and support for tourism development. A stronger attachment to the community has been thought to strongly influence concerns about whether tourism will benefit the local community (Andereck et al., 2005; Mccool & Martin, 1994). Because of community attachment, support for tourism development can be expressed in diverse ways, such as voting, donations, and willingness to participate in community meetings in a tourism community (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004).

On the other hand, community involvement is defined by Jaafar et al. (2015) as "the degree to which community people work together to achieve common goals that benefit everyone". According to him, involving community members in creating the destination is crucial

because it gives them control over the activities that affect their lives and makes them more aware of the costs and benefits of tourism. Tourism studies indicated that engaging the local community in management and decision-making can convince the community to integrate tourism into the local economy rather than simply being passive recipients of its benefits.

Community participation strengthens communities by connecting individuals; these relationships help create a sense of belonging, trust, and credibility among community members. It can also settle conflicts between the needs and interests of residents, between improving their quality of life and promoting economic development. Moreover, in the context of tourism planning, community participation is an empowering process involving all tiers of stakeholders (such as local government, residents, developers, and private enterprise), such that problem identification and decision-making are shared and that stakeholders have a collective interest in the sustainability of the development (Brehm et al., 2004; Eslami et al., 2019; Jaafar et al., 2015; López et al., 2018; Mccool & Martin, 1994).

In tourism research, community attachment and involvement are essential factors influencing support for tourism development (Lee, 2013). Such ideas have been employed in tourist support models to investigate the effects on residents' perceptions of tourism impact and attitudes toward the tourism business (Adongo et al., 2017; Gabriel Brida et al., 2014). However, the findings are contradictory, indicating positive or negative relationships between exogenous and endogenous variables. For example, Eslami et al. (2019) revealed that community attachment significantly influenced positive perceived economic, social, and environmental impact. Jaafar et al. (2017) point out that residents' attitudes and community participation have helpful linkages.

More subsequent studies have confirmed that this link is beneficial; for example, Adongo et al. (2017) found that respondents with higher attachment had more positive feelings toward tourism effects. Similarly, Huong and Lee (2017) found that local citizens with a solid attachment to their communities had positive perceptions of tourism impacts in terms of social, environmental, economic, and local benefits, resulting in increased support for tourism development. Community involvement has an excellent and considerable influence on perceived benefits (Lee, 2013). In addition, Gursoy and Rutherford (2004) and Lee (2013) claimed that individuals more attached to their community have more positive socio-economic perceptions than those not attached to their community.

However, several other studies have found that community involvement has no substantial influence, such as Nicholas et al. (2009), which found that community involvement has no significant impact. Chen and Chen (2010b) point out that community attachment had a substantial relationship with favourable tourism impacts but that its effect on perceived cost was negative. Another recent study indicated that community involvement and community attachment are beneficial but that community involvement is stronger than community attachment (López et al., 2018). Further, Gursoy and Rutherford (2004) and Mccool and Martin (1994) stated that people living in communities with higher levels of tourism development have the most vital sense of community attachment. Lee (2013) investigated how the benefits perceived by host residents affect the relationship between community attachment and support for sustainable tourism development and between community involvement and support for sustainable tourism development.

Nicholas et al. (2009) stated that only community attachment strongly influences tourism support. In contrast, the level of involvement was not found to have any significant relationships. Choi and Murray (2010) hypothesised that community attachment and involvement positively correlate with the level of support for current and future tourism. At the same time, it is inversely related to the negative impacts of tourism. Numerous researchers in the field of tourism have employed perceived benefits and costs as the intermediate factors linking the backing for tourism development and community attachment (Nicholas et al., 2009) and ecological stance (Gursoy et al., 2002; Nicholas et al., 2009), and as a tool to gauge their theoretical frameworks. Regrettably, the intervening repercussions of perceived benefits and costs on community participation, community involvement, and support for cultural tourism have yet to be witnessed.

2.5.1.9 Resident's Perceived Impact

The resident perception is one of the most researched areas in tourism, dating back to the 1970s. These research studies primarily addressed the three significant aspects of tourism development as perceived by residents, namely the economic, socio-cultural, and environmental impact. Tourism may generate additional income and local tax revenue on a macroeconomic level. At the socio-cultural level, it has the potential to revitalise traditional crafts and skills and focus on tangible and intangible heritage resources. At the environmental group, the sustainability of parks and wildlife may be jeopardised, as well as an increase in air, water, and noise pollution. According to previous research, most studies

have discussed the economic, socio-cultural, and environmental impacts of tourism development as perceived by communities in various contexts, either positively or negatively (Látková & Vogt, 2012; McGehee & Andereck, 2004).

It is also noted that the perceived tourism impacts should be examined in a distinct direction because each category of results is perceived differently and may further influence a different magnitude, implying that residents may perceive positive economic impacts of tourism in their destination while not experiencing any socio-cultural or environmental effects because of tourism development. In this context, (Mcdowall & Choi, 2010) discovered that one of the top perceived tourism impacts for Thai residents' is economic and cultural rather than social and environmental. Tourism has positively impacted people's love and pride in their local culture, increased investment in parks and recreation areas, earnings in local government, and the preservation of local traditions and culture.

While investigating the social impact of tourism development at Baan Tawai, Huttasin (2008) revealed that tourism has both positive and negative effects. Positive social results are likely associated with financial benefits and improved quality of life brought about by tourism. In contrast, negative social impacts may include increased property prices, changes in vacation plans, and increased litter and garbage. A similar study, also conducted by Sharma et al. (2008), revealed that Australia's Sunshine Coast residents face the most significant negative social impact from traffic congestion. In contrast, Hanafiah et al. (2013) deduced that residents' of Tioman Island have a positive perception of tourism's economic and social implications but a negative perception of the environmental effects of tourism.

According to Guo et al. (2013), tourism development only positively impacts the Shanghai local community. Aside from that, they perceived high quality of life in areas such as public security, leisure time, family cohesion, community construction, the atmosphere of society, health status, economic margin, and living costs. In Goa, Diniz et al. (2014) investigated the benefits and effects of tourism on psycho-social and economic factors and concluded that tourism has disrupted locals' psycho-social lives. It was also perceived that though tourism had led to a decline in moral values and the dilution and destruction of Goan culture, it had a positive economic impact in creating jobs and income, increasing tax revenue, and improving infrastructure. Further, Lemmi et al. (2018) also revealed that the Luca Comics and Games Festival positively impacted residents.

Several comparative studies were also conducted to assess the differences between some diverse groups of residents, such as Brida et al. (2011), which demonstrated the existence of four distinct groups, each with members with common characteristics and similar perceptions and attitudes. It is revealed that tourism has a positive economic impact. Positive social and cultural effects are also acknowledged, albeit to a lesser extent. Others have investigated the relationships between resident characteristics such as age, gender, education, employment, length of residence, region, and perception of tourism impact.

According to Mcdowall and Choi (2010), respondents ranked 'economic' and 'cultural' attributes as the most critical tourism impacts on their communities, followed by 'environmental' and 'social' factors. Economic factors are the most important to Phuket (PT)/Ko Samui (KS) residents', while cultural factors are the most important to Nakhon Si Thammarat (NT)/Surat Thani (ST) residents. The comparison of means of NT/ST and PT/KS residents' perceptions revealed statistically significant differences in the residents' perceptions of environmental, economic, and social impacts. The ecological implications include noise, air, traffic congestion, environmental destruction, water pollution, increased littering, and land commercialisation. The study also showed that residents who live in domestic tourist destinations have different perceptions of economic, social, and environmental factors than those who live in international tourist destinations.

A study on casino gambling shows significant differences in perceptions of economic, social, and environmental impact between Macau and Singapore (Wu & Chen, 2015). There were also significant differences in respondents' perceptions of the number of locals who benefit from tourism in Portoro and Opatija. Portorož respondents who support current development agree that tourism helps only a small number of locals, whereas those who oppose development do not see this as a problem. In Opatija, however, the results were the opposite, with supporters of current development not agreeing as much as those who oppose recent development (Vodeb et al., 2021). A Kinabalu National Park case study revealed a negative impact on traffic congestion and the exposure of anti-social behaviour in the local community (Jaafar et al., 2015).

2.5.1.10 Resident Attitude

Residents' attitudes are critical factors for tourism sustainability. As a result, it has piqued the interest of many academics, policymakers, and other tourist organisers from various

backgrounds. Several scholars, such as Andereck and Vogt (2000), Hanafiah et al. (2013), McGehee and Andereck (2004), Tatoglu et al. (2002), and Tournois and Djeric (2018) have interpreted resident attitudes as perceived tourism impact differently, with some equating viewpoints. On the other hand, Vargas-Sánchez et al., (2011) perception and attitude are two distinct concepts, with the latter being a subset of the former. Much prior research has focused on analysing resident attitudes regarding tourism growth and development. In this regard, Andereck and Vogt (2000), Nunkoo and Gursoy (2012), and Walpole and Goodwin (2001) exhibited favourable sentiments regarding tourism and development support. Residents of the old city of Fenghuang in Hunan Province, China, also have a good attitude toward cultural preservation and tourism development (Yun & Zhang, 2017).

Extensive literature has already been carried out about resident's attitudes and their influence on various factors such as tourism development (Liang & Hui, 2016; Mason & Cheyne, 2000; Ribeiro et al., 2013; Vargas-Sánchez et al., 2011; Zamani-Farahani & Musa, 2008); cultural tourism development (Ritchie & Inkari, 2006); future tourism development (Tournois & Djeric, 2018); attitude towards tourism (Lepp, 2007); attitude towards tourists' (Martín et al., 2017; Szromek et al., 2020; Zamani-Farahani & Henderson, 2014); heritage tourism development (Chen & Chen, 2010b); rural tourism development (Park et al., 2015; Rockett & Ramsey, 2016); and support for tourism development (Choi & Murray, 2010; Eslami et al., 2019; Látková & Vogt, 2012; López et al., 2018; Milman, 2004). Moreover, past research has also paid special attention to resident perceptions of tourism's economic, sociocultural, and environmental impacts on host communities.

2.5.1.11 Cultural Sustainability

The definitions and operationalisations of cultural sustainability are challenging, and different authors have different ideas about it (Empacher & Wehlung, 2002). Cultural sustainability was first defined by the World Commission on Culture and Development as "inter- and intra-generational access to culture" (Kohl, 2008). According to Mowforth and Munt (2008), cultural sustainability "refers to the ability of people or a people to keep or adapt components of their culture which separate them from other people".

The concept of cultural sustainability, as a constructive reaction to identity loss, contests the detrimental effects of tourism on acculturation (Arizpe, 2014). However, it is only a small portion of a larger section against the excesses of globalisation (Robinson, 1999). The

principle underlying cultural sustainability is that the current generation can engage with and modify cultural heritage only to the extent that it does not hinder future generations from fully understanding and experiencing its diverse values and meanings resources (Pereira, 2007). Thus, this dimension of sustainability is primarily concerned with ensuring the continuity of cultural values that link the past, present, and future (Khalid S., 2005).

The cultural aspects of sustainable tourism in the literature have frequently been discussed over the last few decades. Nonetheless, there has been significant advancement in the comprehension and expression of the effects of sustainability studies. Since the cultural elements are not specifically addressed in the tripartite sustainability model of economic, social, and environmental dimensions, a comparable concern for the influence on cultural inheritance remains a relatively underarticulated perspective (Dessein et al., 2015).

Numerous researchers have examined the dual impacts of tourism on cultural resources and heritage. On the positive side, tourism can significantly enhance the quality of life by generating employment, attracting investments, and improving community services. It plays a crucial role in preserving cultural events, such as festivals, which foster intercultural understanding and community solidarity (Byrd et al., 2009; Woosnam, 2011), contribute to the preservation of local culture (Mcdowall & Choi, 2010; McGehee & Andereck, 2004) and the improvement of local services (Kuvan & Akan, 2005). Moreover, cultural tourism can stimulate regional economic development by effectively utilising existing resources and tapping into local capabilities (Brebbia et al., 2015; Doganer & Dupont, 2013; Ezenagu, 2020; Madandola & Boussaa, 2023; Sangchumnong & Kozak, 2021). It can improve the self-esteem of cultural custodians and provide economic benefits to performers of ICH (Kim et al., 2019).

Conversely, tourism can have detrimental effects, including the erosion of local culture, increased crime rates, and environmental challenges such as pollution and overcrowding (Ko & Stewart, 2002; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010a). Furthermore, tourism can lead to commodifying cultural practices, sidelining traditional practitioners (Ranwa, 2021), and potentially damaging the authenticity of local heritage, eroding socio-cultural assets and producing inauthentic cultural products (Alamineh et al., 2023). Moreover, tourism-related ecological impacts in parks and protected areas can negatively affect their cultural ecosystem services, particularly regarding human health and well-being (Taff et al., 2019).

A case study of Zhouzhuang village by Xu (2003) reveals the risks of commodifying local culture and transforming authentic lifestyles into tourist experiences. The study highlights the delicate balance between tourism growth and cultural identity preservation, advocating for the involvement of local communities and implementing strategic policies to protect Zhouzhuang's cultural integrity. In the Okavango Delta, tourism has contributed to enclave development, racial tensions, the displacement of traditional communities, and the breakdown of family structures (Mbaiwa, 2005).

Additionally, changes in land use have been linked to cultural shifts, undermining key indicators of cultural sustainability (Osman, 2022). The arts, vital to cultural preservation, often face challenges such as elitist dominance and limited integration into public education, largely due to inadequate government funding (Lauesen, 2016). The cultural sustainability lens has also been used in other studies to critically examine the setting and artefacts of tourism, such as museum souvenirs (Milman, 2015), Cypriot museums (Stylianou-Lambert et al., 2014), and UNESCO World Heritage Sites (Oliveira et al., 2024). The Peruvian Amazon and Iranian geoparks are two examples of cultural sustainability that have attracted attention in recent years in tourism (Farsani et al., 2011; Jamal & Stronza, 2008). These authors argue for a model of ecotourism that goes beyond economic and environmental concerns and prioritises "cultural equity and participatory democracy", ensuring that local traditions and values are respected and sustained over time.

Jamal and Stronza (2008) have described how ecotourism impacts the Peruvian Amazon's local cultural practices and traditions. The Posada Amazon as eco-lodge case study highlights challenges that the indigenous and local communities face in balancing the preservation of their cultural identity with the pressures of global tourism markets, appealing to "locally defined and culturally embedded relations and meanings". Farsani et al. (2011) stated that geoparks are designed to protect geological features and integrate cultural heritage. This includes supporting local traditions, knowledge systems, and artisanal practices, making cultural sustainability a key objective in geopark management. These geo products, such as trilobite clocks and ammonite bread, are linked to the region's geological features and help preserve cultural practices while generating economic benefits, appealing to the recovery and protection of cultural identities.

Even though cultural sustainability is a relatively new term in the sustainability discourse, there has been a growing interest in considering culture within sustainable development

among previous researchers. Hawkes (2001) introduced cultural sustainability as a fourth pillar of sustainability by emphasising the role of culture in local planning. Throsby (2001) treated the topic from a cultural economy perspective, assessing the cultural economy against the general sustainability principles.

Throsby (2003) has broadened cultural sustainability by incorporating six principles: material and non-material well-being, intergenerational equity, intra-generational equity, maintenance of diversity, precautionary principle, maintenance of cultural systems, and recognition of independence. He subsequently explored ecological and cultural sustainability linkages. Chiu (2004) discussed the social and cultural dimensions of sustainability within housing, whereas Birkeland (2008) studied the regeneration of post-industrial communities regarding cultural sustainability. However, until now, scientific studies have yet to systematically analyse and elaborate on the role and meanings of culture in sustainable development. Culture in the sustainable development framework has remained under-emphasised and under-theorised (Throsby, 2008).

Moreover, Soini and Birkeland (2014) analysed the scientific discourse on cultural sustainability. They found it is organised around seven storylines: heritage, vitality, economic viability, diversity, locality, eco-cultural resilience, and eco-cultural civilisation. Additionally, overall quality of life is derived from destination sustainability, which deals with economic, social, cultural, and environmental sustainability and responsible tourism initiatives. The study revealed that the destination's sustainability is a positive function of residents' quality of life (Mathew & Sreejesh, 2017). Thimm (2019) has also provided seven indicators of cultural sustainability, which include good self-governance, human rights, identity, control of the land, control of the tourism products, market-ready tourism products, and authenticity. In summary, cultural sustainability is still a recent and emerging concept and very broad in its interpretation; it has manifold interdependencies to social, economic, and ecological sustainability.

2.5.1.12 Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development

More recently, sustainable tourism has also regularly been linked with preserving ecosystems and biodiversity, promoting human welfare and inter- and intra-cultural equity, public participation in tourism-related decision-making, socio-cultural focused, and access by all stakeholders to socio-cultural tourism outcomes (Gaonkar & Sukthankar, 2024a; Ghirardello

et al., 2022; Katemliadis & Markatos, 2021). Sustainability can be a policy or development goal (Khizar et al., 2023) for most types of tourism activity or environment, regardless of scale (Bramwell & Lane, 2012; Lane, 2008; Moscardo, 2008). Since the early 1990s, sustainable tourism development has represented the dominant discourse in academic circles and, as such, sustainable tourism has come to be widely embraced by the academic community as a broad conceptualisation that embraces environmental issues in conjunction with social, cultural, economic, and political issues (Bramwell et al., 2016).

Moreover, Moh El-Barmelgy (2013) has provided the six dimensions of sustainable cultural tourism: sites, tourists, sociocultural aspects, historical aspects, economic revenues, and institutional aspects. The study by D'Angella et al. (2021) mentioned the benefits of micro-medium cultural events that can connect strongly with the destination's vocations through public-private collaboration and establishing a portfolio of recurrent events. While assessing the sustainable Mi'kmaw cultural tourism development in Nova Scotia, Canada (Lynch et al., 2010), it was found that Mi'kmaw people protect the culture as it brings economic opportunities. However, waste disposal problems, crime, loss of authenticity, lack of information, facilities, tourist services (Ahmad, 2013), lack of local people involvement (Yeniasir & Gökbulut, 2018), environmental concerns, climate change impacts, crisis management, and cultural development plans (Luca et al., 2020) are some of the constraints while preserving and reviving the socio-cultural heritage of its community.

The Triple Bottom Line (TBL) framework has also described the economic, social, and environmental dimensions as sustainable tourism development indicators (Stoddard et al., 2012). A study by Sangchumnong and Kozak (2018) applied the TBL approach to assist the destination in progressing to become a sustainable cultural heritage tourism destination. It revealed that residents had recognised the need to actively preserve their social and ethical values but failed to protect their abundant environmental resources. Further, a blended approach of three theories, i.e., Stakeholder Theory, Social Network Analysis (SNA), and Actor-Network Theory (ANT), has been applied to conceptualise the network in sustainable tourism development (Nguyen et al., 2019). Liu (2003) has explored six issues that are often overlooked, such as the role of tourism demand, the nature of tourism resources, the imperative of intra-generational equity, the role of tourism in promoting socio-cultural progress, the measurement of sustainability, and forms of sustainable development.

A dynamic model proposed by Liu and Chen (2015) suggests that cultural managers should evaluate the cultural asset's benefits, thereby protecting the investment, crowding, and resident tourism participation ratios, which may lead to sustaining the development of cultural tourism. A normative analysis approach towards sustainable cultural and heritage tourism has positively impacted developing infrastructure, creating opportunities to attract foreign investors and funding agencies, designing and implementing marketing and promotional strategies, and offering diversified products and services in the cultural tourism market (Vargas-Hernández, 2012). Therefore, sustaining tourism development needs residents' support and participation in tourism planning (Rasoolimanesh & Jaafar, 2016), and practices in MICE tourism (Abd Hamid et al., 2013). Furthermore, Mzembe et al. (2023) identified three distinct institutional antecedents of sustainable development in cultural heritage tourism: governance mechanisms, community agency, and the influence of supranational institutions. This highlights the multidimensional nature of sustainable cultural heritage tourism, which operates across institutional and sectoral domains.

In the post-COVID-19 pandemic period in Bangladesh, sustainable tourism development positively correlated with environmental integrity, social equity, economic prosperity, and technological adaptation. However, partnership enhancement did not demonstrate a significant relationship with sustainable tourism growth (Khan et al., 2024). Thus, underpinned by sustainability, sustainable tourism aims to meet communities' economic and social needs while maintaining and transmitting cultural, economic, and social values. Therefore, sustainable strategies for cultural tourism destinations should be adopted, which include easy mobility (walkability, accessibility, different transport modes) of the visited space to facilitate the tourist experience; simple and eligible mental maps of the city that are easily perceived by visitors facilitate the rapid consumption of the tourist destination; and the centrality of the tourism resources affects the mobility of visitors and the consumption of the destination (Aranburu et al., 2016).

2.5.2 Source-wise Articles Distribution

The literature review for the chosen research area spans over 50 distinct sources, with 468 articles analysed in Table 2. 1. The distribution of articles across these sources reveals certain key journals that have contributed the most to this area of study, indicating their central role in advancing knowledge within the field. Tourism Management is the leading publication regarding article volume, with 53 articles focused on the study area. The high

frequency of publications in ***Tourism Management*** highlights its prominence and relevance to the research area, making it a pivotal source for current insights, trends, and empirical data related to tourism studies.

Annals of Tourism Research is the second most significant contributor, with 29 articles. This journal is known for its rigorous peer-reviewed studies and high academic standards, this journal is a respected source within the tourism and hospitality field, providing empirical and conceptual articles contributing to the foundational understanding of tourism dynamics.

Table 2. 1 Source-wise Articles Distribution

Journal List	Objective 1	Objective 2	Objective 3	Objective 4	Total
Tourism Management	7	18	18	10	53
Annals of Tourism Research	0	6	15	8	29
African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure	0	17	0	5	22
Journal of Heritage Tourism	1	9	1	9	20
Sustainability	2	1	4	11	18
Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing	1	12	2	0	15
Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism	1	6	3	2	12
International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration	0	6	4	1	11
Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change	0	1	3	6	10
Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research	0	6	0	4	10
Journal of Travel Research	0	3	12	4	19
Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management	0	0	2	4	6
Tourism Geographies: An International Journal of Tourism Space, Place and Environment	0	2	3	0	5
Journal of Sustainable Tourism	0	0	2	5	7
Journal of Destination Marketing and Management	0	3	1	0	4
International Journal of Heritage Studies	0	1	0	3	4
Anatolia An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research	0	1	1	4	6
Tourism and Hospitality Research	0	0	5	0	5
Total	**12**	**92**	**76**	**76**	**256**

Source: *Author's compilation based on previous research studies*

The ***African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism, and Leisure's*** contribution of 22 articles demonstrates its importance as a platform for research, especially in areas relevant to tourism in African and emerging markets. Its role suggests a regional focus that complements

broader global studies, adding diversity to the perspectives and data within the literature. ***Journal of Heritage Tourism*** has 20 articles that are particularly significant for studies related to cultural and heritage tourism, aligning well with research areas that explore sustainable tourism, cultural preservation, and the impact of tourism on heritage sites. ***Sustainability,*** contributing 18 articles, and ***Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing,*** contributing 15 articles, emphasises research on sustainable development, tourism marketing strategies, tourist behaviour, and the dynamics of travel promotion.

In addition to the top journals, more than 50 other sources published at least three articles related to the study area. This wide distribution of articles among various journals suggests a broad academic interest and a multidisciplinary approach to the research area, with contributions spanning fields such as hospitality management, cultural studies, marketing, and environmental science. Although contributing fewer articles individually, each source collectively enriches the body of literature by offering diverse perspectives, regional insights, and niche studies that complement findings from the leading journals.

2.5.3 Article Publication Timeline

The publication timeline of the sources in Figure 2. 2 represents that these articles have been remarkably published in recent years and, therefore, have shown an increasing trend. The 468 articles in the final dataset indicate that applying cultural tourism studies and other related areas is a very recent phenomenon in social science studies. The statistics show that the articles published for the period have fluctuations; however, they have gradually increased over some time and are thus expected to grow in the coming years. This indicates that the research into this area continues to be a growing field.

The Figure 2. 2 illustrates the distribution of research focus over time. The analysis of article publications reveals distinct trends across four time periods. ***Before 2011,*** 153 articles (32.69% of the total) were published, with the highest focus on Objective 2 (58 articles, 37.91%), followed by Objective 3 (50 articles, 32.68%) and Objective 4 (35 articles, 22.88%), while Objective 1 received minimal attention (10 articles, 6.54%).

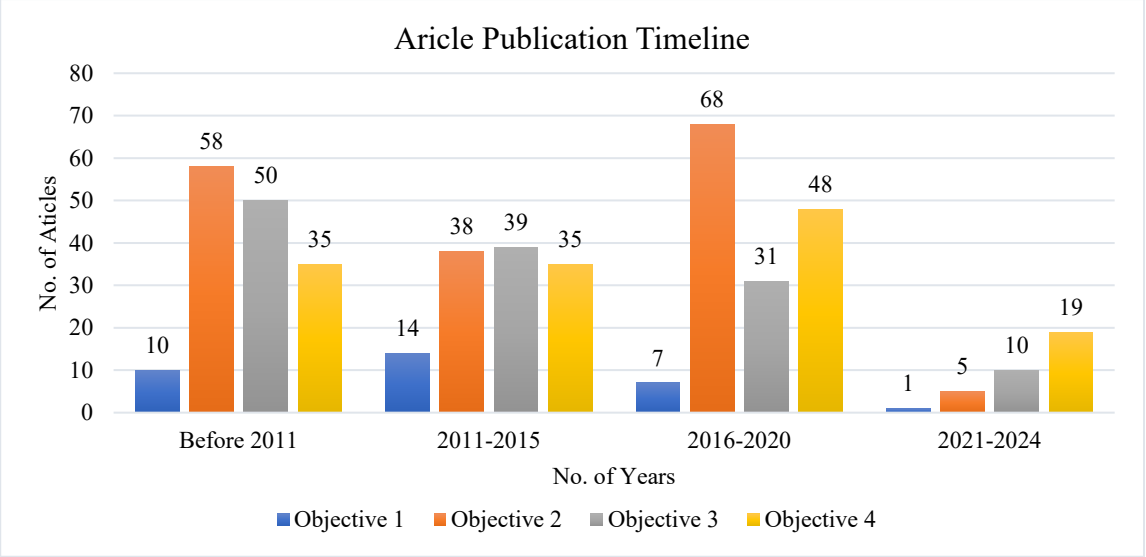


Figure 2. 2 Article Publication Timeline

Source: *Author's compilation based on previous research studies*

During 2011–2015, the total number of publications dropped to 126 (26.92% of the total), with Objectives 2 and 3 accounting for the highest proportions (38 and 39 articles, 30.16% and 30.95%, respectively), while Objective 4 (35 articles, 27.78%) and Objective 1 (14 articles, 11.11%) saw relatively less focus. ***Between 2016–2020,*** the number of publications peaked at 154 (32.91%), with Objective 2 dominating again (68 articles, 44.16%), followed by Objective 4 (48 articles, 31.17%), Objective 3 (31 articles, 20.13%), and Objective 1 (7 articles, 4.55%).

In the most recent period ***between 2021–2024,*** publication numbers dropped significantly to 35 (7.48%), with a greater focus on Objective 4 (19 articles, 54.29%), followed by Objective 3 (10 articles, 28.57%), Objective 2 (5 articles, 14.29%), and Objective 1 (1 article, 2.86%). These trends suggest fluctuating research priorities over time, with Objectives 2 and 4 receiving the most consistent attention, potentially indicating a recent shift toward these objectives. This trend may reflect evolving research needs or emerging areas of interest within the academic community.

2.5.4 Corresponding Authors' Countries

The Figure 2. 3 illustrates the distribution of corresponding authors' contributions by country, highlighting the international scope of research in the chosen area. Each country's contribution indicates interest and active research efforts in tourism studies.

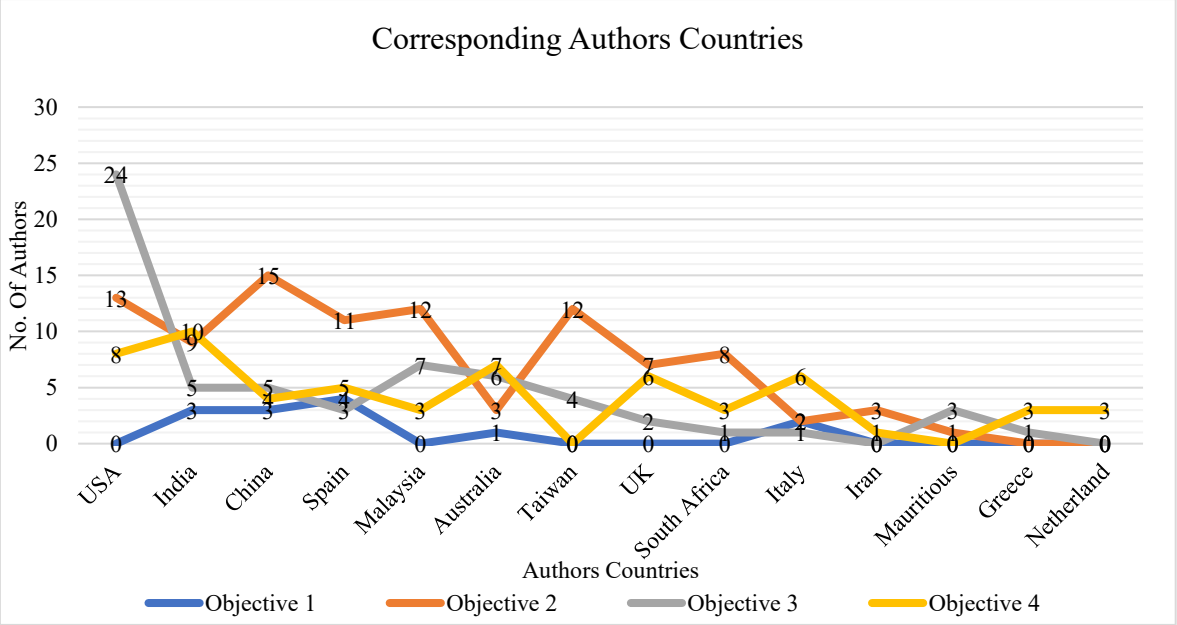


Figure 2. 3 Corresponding Authors' Countries

Source: *Author's compilation based on previous research studies*

The USA has the highest contribution to Objective 3 (24 articles), with moderate attention to Objectives 1 (13 articles) and 2 (10 articles), and fewer publications for Objective 4 (8 articles).

India shows a balanced distribution, primarily focusing on Objective 3 (15 articles) and Objective 2 (10 articles), with limited contributions to Objectives 1 and 4. ***China*** emphasises Objective 2 (15 articles), while other objectives receive less attention. Spain has notable contributions to Objective 3 (11 articles) and Objective 4 (12 articles), with lower outputs for Objectives 1 and 2. Chinese authors' contributions reflect the country's rapidly expanding tourism industry as a source of international tourists and a destination with significant cultural and historical assets. Chinese researchers may be mainly focused on tourism management, heritage site preservation, and the impact of tourism on local communities.

Malaysia focuses on Objective 2 (7 articles), with no representation for Objectives 1 and 4. ***Australia*** demonstrates a balanced approach to Objectives 2 and 4 (6 articles each), with limited publications for Objectives 1 and 3. ***Taiwan*** equally emphasises Objectives 2 and 3 (12 articles each), with a moderate contribution to Objective 4 and none to Objective 1.

The UK prioritises Objectives 2 (12 articles) and 4 (8 articles), with minimal contributions to Objectives 1 and 3. ***South Africa*** and ***Italy*** focus on Objectives 2 and 4, while countries like Iran, Mauritius, Greece, and the Netherlands contribute minimally, with only three articles each across Objectives 2, 3, and 4. Overall, Objective 2 receives the most attention across countries, particularly from China, the UK, and Taiwan, while the USA, India, and Taiwan dominate Objective 3. Objective 4 sees notable contributions from Spain, South Africa, and Australia, whereas Objective 1 has limited representation globally.

In addition to the top four countries, the Figure 2. 3 indicates that researchers from various other countries actively contribute to the field, highlighting the global interest in tourism studies. The diversity in authorship from different nations reflects an international research community examining tourism from multiple perspectives and cultural contexts. This international mix brings varied approaches to studying tourism, enriching the literature with insights from different geographic, economic, and cultural backgrounds.

2.5.5 Network Analysis

2.5.5.1 Co-authorship by Authors

Network analysis is used "to analyse the social structure that emerges from the recurrence of the relations" (Holster, 2022). Previous researchers have conducted network analysis to identify the various clusters and observe their relationships. Therefore, this study also employs a network analysis for co-authorship by authors' and the author's keyword co-occurrences in Figure 2. 4. The co-authorship analysis considers documents by at least two authors in the study area. The 62 authors meet the threshold. The most prominent and clear co-authorship clusters were obtained at a resolution of 1.0. Thus, the 62 authors can be categorised into 30 clusters, of which the ten main clusters measure the extent of their joint publications.

The network analysis of the authors and their publications in the research area reveals a distinct pattern of collaboration and citation behaviour. ***Cluster 1*** (7 authors, red) has the highest number of authors and appears to have a robust collaborative network, indicating frequent interactions and citations among these authors. The collaboration is likely to lead to more impactful publications within the field. ***Cluster 2*** (5 authors, green) also shows a strong collaborative dynamic, with frequent citations and connections among the authors. This

cluster may be working on related research or using similar methodologies, creating a network of influence that fosters continuous dialogue and innovation in their field.

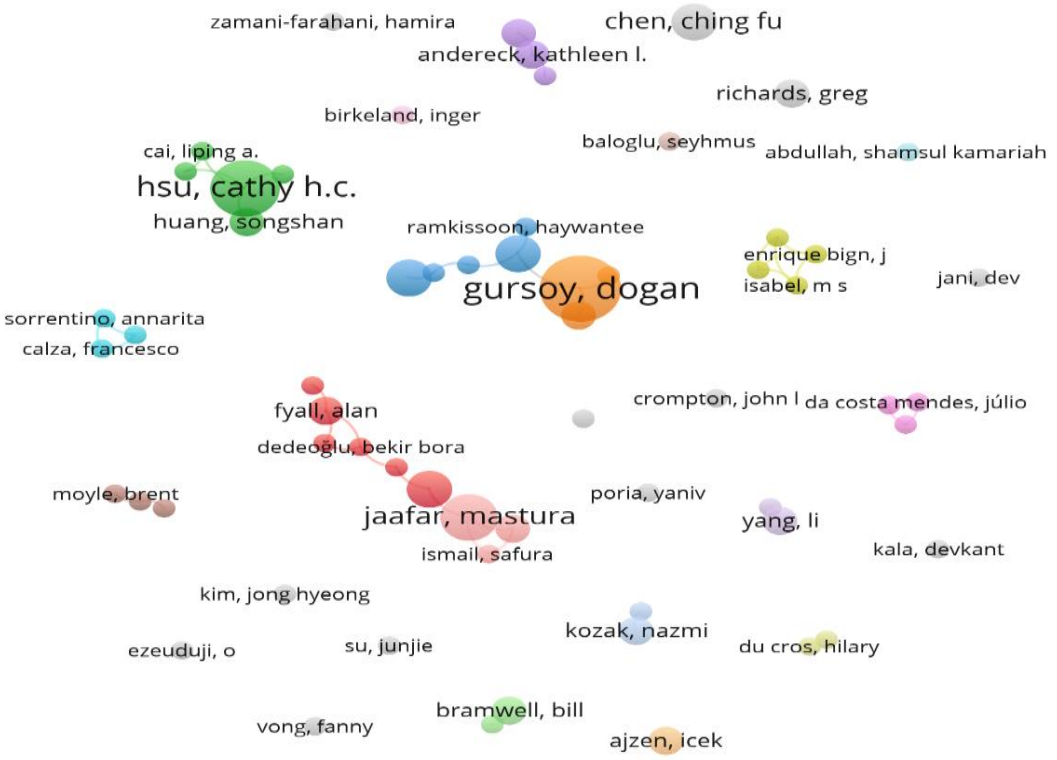


Figure 2. 4 Network Visualisation- Co-authorship by Authors'

Source: *Author's compilation based on previous research studies*

Cluster 3 (5 authors, blue) consists of 5 authors' who are likely working together or have published research that frequently cites one another. The fact that they are grouped as a cluster suggests a strong, collaborative relationship regarding research focus, methodology, or shared themes within their publications. Although ***Cluster 4*** (4 authors, yellow) is smaller than the first two, it maintains strong connectivity, implying a solid network of citations and collaboration among these authors. These clusters (1 to 4) form the core of the research area, with frequent interlinking and citation among their respective members. The strong connections in these clusters suggest that the research community in these areas is highly collaborative, leading to a more integrated body of work and higher citation rates.

Collaboration is present in ***clusters 5-10,*** each with 3 authors**,** but not as pronounced as in the first four clusters. These authors have linked with each other, but the network here is less dense, implying that while there is some degree of collaboration, it is not as impactful or

widespread as in the more substantial clusters. These authors may be working on more niche or specialised topics within the research area.

Clusters 11-30 are the remaining 20 clusters, each with more than two documents, and are not linked with other authors. This suggests that these groups of authors are publishing independently and are not forming collaborative networks or receiving significant citations from other parts of the research community. This could imply that while these researchers contribute to the field, their work is more isolated or less recognised within the more extensive research network. These clusters might represent emerging topics, niche research areas, or even early-stage studies that have not yet gained widespread academic attention or established collaboration.

2.5.5.2 Author's Keyword Co-occurrences

As illustrated below, Figure 2. 5 shows the network visualisation of the author's keywords co-occurrences. The analysis is performed considering at least five keywords, and the least occurrence words are discarded, which resulted in 46 authors' keywords that measure the 5 clusters. Cluster 1 includes (14 items); Cluster 2 (10 items); Cluster 3 (10 items); Cluster 4 (8 items); and Cluster 5 (4 items).

Cluster 1, which includes 14 keywords, primarily revolves around cultural heritage, cultural sustainability, and ICH. These topics are foundational to cultural tourism studies, as they address how cultural resources (both tangible and intangible) are preserved and managed for tourism purposes. The prominence of these topics suggests a significant academic interest in understanding how cultural heritage can be maintained while promoting tourism and the sustainability of cultural tourism practices. This cluster suggests that the academic community is keen to explore the intersection of culture and sustainability, aiming to provide frameworks and strategies for balancing tourism development with the protection of cultural resources.

Cluster 2 consists of 10 keywords centred on the destination image, tourist satisfaction, and revisit intentions. These are critical concepts in tourism studies, as they directly relate to how tourists and their subsequent behaviour perceive destinations. The emphasis on these factors indicates an interest in understanding the psychological and emotional aspects of tourist experiences. Research in this cluster likely focuses on how cultural tourism

destinations can improve their appeal and increase tourist loyalty through better experiences and destination branding.

Cluster 3, with 10 keywords, deals with social exchange theory, resident attitudes, and community attachment. These themes are central to studying tourism's impact on local communities. This cluster indicates a growing interest in cultural tourism's social and community dimensions. The focus on local perspectives suggests that researchers are increasingly aware of the need for a balanced approach to tourism development that considers both the benefits and the impacts on residents.

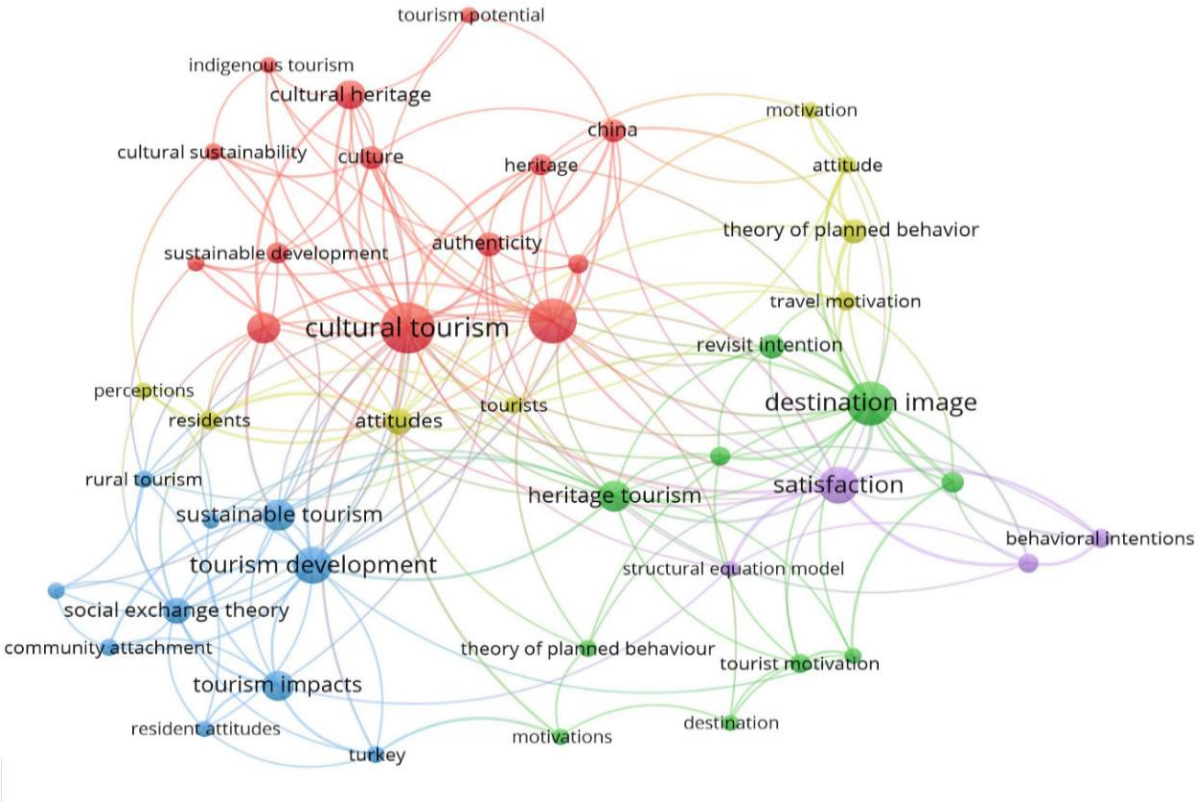


Figure 2. 5 Network Visualisation – Authors' Keyword Co-occurrences

Source: *Author's compilation based on previous research studies*

Cluster 4 consists of 8 keywords highlighting the theory of planned behaviour, motivation, and perception. These keywords reflect a psychological and behavioural approach to cultural tourism. This cluster suggests an emerging interest in understanding the psychological underpinnings of tourists' decisions and experiences. Researchers will likely focus on how

individual differences in motivation and perception influence tourists' behaviour and how this can inform destination marketing and management.

Cluster 5 deals with 4 keywords focusing on structural equation modeling, perceived value, and behavioural intentions. These keywords are linked to the quantitative side of cultural tourism research, focusing on measurement and modelling. This cluster reflects the growing use of advanced statistical methods to understand and predict tourists' behaviour. Structural equation modeling indicates an interest in developing more sophisticated models to analyse the complex factors influencing cultural tourism outcomes.

2.5.6 Distribution of Articles Based on the Research Methodology

2.5.6.1 Type of Research Study

Generally, research studies are either empirical or conceptual. However, the type of research study that is conducted is often linked with the type and nature of data collection. Neither method's superiority can be proclaimed, as both are equally important and explain the phenomenon differently. In the current study, Table 2. 2 presents an analysis of research studies categorised into three types: Empirical, Conceptual, and Mixed, with their respective contributions toward four objectives.

Table 2. 2 Type of Research Study

Type of Research Study	Objective 1	Objective 2	Objective 3	Objective 4	Total
Empirical	32	164	123	78	**397**
Conceptual	0	5	6	59	**70**
Mix	0	0	1	0	**1**
Total	**32**	**169**	**130**	**137**	**468**

Source: *Author's compilation based on previous research studies*

The analysis of 468 research studies reveals a strong dominance of ***empirical research***, which accounts for 397 studies (84.8% of the total). These studies show the highest focus on Objective 2 (164 studies), followed by Objective 3 (123 studies), Objective 4 (78 studies), and Objective 1 (32 studies).

Conceptual studies, comprising 70 studies (14.9%), are primarily concentrated on Objective 4 (59 studies), with smaller contributions to Objective 2 (5 studies) and Objective 3 (6 studies), while none address Objective 1. Mixed-method studies are the least represented, with only one study (0.2%) contributing to Objective 3. The findings indicate a clear

preference for empirical approaches, particularly for objectives requiring data-driven insights, while conceptual studies focus on theoretical frameworks. Mixed methods remain underutilised in this dataset.

2.5.6.2 Type of Data Collected

As mentioned earlier, the findings can also be linked to the type of data collection shown in Table 2. 3. The analysis of 468 studies based on the collected data type reveals a strong preference for primary data, used in 398 studies (85%). ***Primary data collection*** is most prominent for Objective 2 (156 studies), followed by Objective 3 (125 studies), Objective 4 (96 studies), and Objective 1 (21 studies), indicating a focus on firsthand data for addressing research goals.

Table 2. 3 Types of Data Collected

Type of Data Collected	Objective 1	Objective 2	Objective 3	Objective 4	Total
Primary Data	21	156	125	96	**398**
Secondary Data	9	11	5	37	**62**
Both	2	2	0	4	**8**
Total	**32**	**169**	**130**	**137**	**468**

Source: *Author's compilation based on previous research studies*

Secondary data is utilised in 62 studies (13.2%), with the highest contribution to Objective 4 (37 studies) and smaller contributions to Objectives 1 (9 studies), 2 (11 studies), and 3 (5 studies). Studies using primary and secondary data are minimal, with only 8 (1.7%) contributing modestly across Objectives 1, 2, and 4. Overall, the findings suggest a strong reliance on primary data, with secondary and mixed data approaches playing a smaller role in achieving research objectives.

2.5.6.3 Nature of Data Collection

The data can be collected from primary or secondary sources and viewed as qualitative or quantitative. The qualitative nature explains the articles conceptually without any numbers involved. Such data may be collected from in-depth interviews and observation methods with some minor groups of respondents. On the other hand, the quantitative method focuses on analysing the data in numbers that quantify the results. It considers the survey questionnaire with codes and numbers and the tourism department's annual reports.

The present analysis of 468 studies in Table 2. 4 based on the nature of data collection, it clearly prefers quantitative approaches used in 333 studies (71.2% of the total). ***Quantitative***

data is especially prevalent in addressing fewer studies focused on Objective 4 (51 studies) and Objective 1 (14 studies). Objective 2 (154 studies) and Objective 3 (114 studies) suggest that numerical and statistical methods are more commonly employed to address these objectives.

Table 2. 4 Nature of Data Collection

Nature of Data Collection	Objective 1	Objective 2	Objective 3	Objective 4	Total
Qualitative Data	17	13	14	79	**123**
Quantitative Data	14	154	114	51	**333**
Both	1	2	2	7	**12**
Total	**32**	**169**	**130**	**137**	**468**

Source: *Author's compilation based on previous research studies*

In contrast, ***qualitative data*** is used in 123 studies (26.3%), with the majority focusing on Objective 4 (79 studies), followed by Objective 3 (14 studies), Objective 2 (13 studies), and Objective 1 (17 studies). The findings indicate that qualitative methods are particularly important for exploring in-depth insights in Objective 4. Additionally, 12 studies (2.6%) use qualitative and quantitative data, contributing to Objectives 1, 2, and 4. Quantitative data collection plays the dominant role, while qualitative data focuses on specific objectives requiring deeper understanding.

2.5.6.4 Sampling Unit

Defining the sampling unit is equally important as defining the type of data collection, as this gives the direction from whom the data is to be collected. In this regard, Table 2. 5 summarises the contributions of three groups—Tourists, Residents, and Stakeholders toward four specific objectives. ***Tourists*** contributed primarily to Objective 2 with 149 articles, with smaller contributions to Objective 1 (3 articles), Objective 3 (1 article), and Objective 4 (10 articles), totalling 163 articles.

Table 2. 5 Sampling Unit

Sampling Unit	Objective 1	Objective 2	Objective 3	Objective 4	Total
Tourists	3	149	1	10	**163**
Residents	2	10	115	15	**142**
Stakeholders	27	10	14	112	**163**
Total	**32**	**169**	**130**	**137**	**468**

Source: *Author's compilation based on previous research studies*

Residents focused mainly on Objective 3 with 115 articles, followed by 15 articles for Objective 4, 10 for Objective 2, and 2 for Objective 1, totalling 142 articles. ***Stakeholders*** made the highest contribution to Objective 4 with 112 articles, followed by Objective 1 (27

articles), Objective 3 (14 articles), and Objective 2 (10 articles), also totalling 163 articles. Overall, the combined total contributions across all groups and objectives amounted to 468 articles, with Objective 2 receiving the highest total articles (169), followed by Objective 4 (137), Objective 3 (130), and Objective 1 (32).

2.5.6.5 Sampling Method

Various sampling methods exist, mainly categorised into probability and non-probability methods. The researcher usually chooses the method for the study based on the time, space, and type of research to be conducted. Typically, a sampling method is required for both qualitative and quantitative research.

Table 2. 6 Sampling Method

Sampling Method	Objective 1	Objective 2	Objective 3	Objective 4	Total
Random Sampling	4	69	61	24	**158**
Convenience Sampling	0	40	16	4	**60**
Systematic Sampling	0	7	8	5	**20**
Stratified Random Sampling	0	5	11	2	**18**
Other	27	49	34	102	**212**
Total	**31**	**170**	**130**	**137**	**468**

Source: *Author's compilation based on previous research studies*

Table 2. 6 outlines the contributions from different sampling methods across four objectives, providing insight into how the data was collected. ***Random Sampling*** was the most utilised method, contributing 158 responses. The highest responses were for Objective 2 (69), followed by Objective 3 (61), Objective 4 (24), and Objective 1 (4). ***Convenience Sampling*** accounted for 60 responses, primarily contributing to Objective 2 (40), with smaller contributions to Objective 3 (16) and Objective 4 (4).

Systematic Sampling provided 20 responses, focusing on Objective 3 (8), Objective 4 (5), and Objective 2 (7), with no contributions to Objective 1. ***Stratified Random Sampling*** yielded 18 responses, distributed across Objective 3 (11), Objective 2 (5), and Objective 4 (2), while contributing none to Objective 1. The "Othe" category accounted for the largest share of responses (212), with significant contributions to Objective 4 (102), Objective 2 (49), Objective 3 (34), and Objective 1 (27).

Overall, the total contributions for all sampling methods reached 468, with Objective 2 receiving the highest responses (170), followed by Objective 4 (137), Objective 3 (130), and

Objective 1 (31). This highlights that Objective 2 was the primary focus across most sampling methods.

2.5.6.6 Sample Size

It is said that the larger the sample size, the better the result. However, previous research also proved that a smaller sample size can give a better result if chosen carefully. Table 2. 7 provides an analysis of sample sizes used across four objectives, highlighting their distribution and overall contributions. For samples ***less than 100***, there were 177 responses, with the majority contributing to Objective 4 (105). Smaller contributions were made to Objective 1 (28), Objective 2 (24), and Objective 3 (20).

Table 2. 7 Sample Size

Sample Size	Objective 1	Objective 2	Objective 3	Objective 4	Total
Less than 100	28	24	20	105	**177**
101-250	1	25	25	7	**58**
251-500	2	77	54	13	**146**
501 and above	1	43	31	12	**87**
Total	**32**	**169**	**130**	**137**	**468**

Source: *Author's compilation based on previous research studies*

Samples sized ***101-250*** accounted for 58 responses, evenly split between Objectives 2 and 3 (25 each), with minor contributions to Objectives 4 (7) and 1 (1). ***251-500*** sample sizes contributed significantly with 146 responses, most of which were for Objective 2 (77), followed by Objective 3 (54), Objective 4 (13), and Objective 1 (2). Samples ***501 and above*** provided 87 responses, with a strong focus on Objective 2 (43), followed by Objectives 3 (31), 4 (12), and 1 (1).

In the end, the total responses for all sample sizes reached 468, with the largest share coming from samples less than 100. Objective 2 received the highest total responses (169), followed by Objective 4 (137), Objective 3 (130), and Objective 1 (32), indicating varying levels of focus across different sample sizes. Hence, it can be concluded that whether the sample size is small or large, it will give an accurate result based on the study type.

2.5.6.7 Statistical Techniques

Various statistical methods are employed in research studies to analyse data and test hypotheses shown in Table 2. 8. A descriptive study is a foundational approach in many

research projects. It aims to summarise or describe key aspects of the data, providing an overview that can guide further analysis.

Table 2. 8 Statistical Techniques

Statistical Techniques	Objective 1	Objective 2	Objective 3	Objective 4	Total
Descriptive Statistics	1	136	114	39	**290**
t-test	0	15	15	5	**35**
ANOVA	0	13	25	5	**43**
Chi-Square	0	5	5	1	**11**
Factor Analysis	0	45	21	8	**74**
Correlation Analysis	0	24	9	7	**40**
Regression Analysis	0	30	16	3	**49**
PLS-SEM	0	59	44	6	**109**
Mediation Analysis	0	15	2	0	**17**
Moderation Analysis	0	13	5	0	**18**
Cluster Analysis	0	0	8	1	**9**
MANOVA	0	1	1	0	**2**
Mann Whitney Test	0	0	4	0	**4**
Kruskal Wallis Test	0	0	1	1	**2**
Total	**1**	**356**	**270**	**76**	**703**

Source: *Author's compilation based on previous research studies*

Descriptive Statistics was the most frequently used technique, contributing 290 responses, with the highest usage for Objective 2 (136), followed by Objective 3 (114) and Objective 4 (39), and minimal usage for Objective 1 (1). ***PLS-SEM*** was the next most commonly applied technique, contributing 109 responses, heavily focused on Objective 2 (59) and Objective 3 (44), with smaller contributions to Objective 4 (6). ***Factor Analysis*** accounted for 74 responses, with the largest contribution to Objective 2 (45), followed by Objective 3 (21) and Objective 4 (8).

Regression Analysis (49 responses) and ***Correlation Analysis*** (40 responses) were used moderately, with primary contributions to Objectives 2 and 3 and minimal contributions to Objective 4. Methods like ***t-tests***, ***ANOVA***, ***Mediation Analysis***, and ***Moderation Analysis*** were used sparingly, contributing between 17 and 43 responses each. Other techniques such as ***Chi-Square***, ***Cluster Analysis***, ***MANOVA***, and non-parametric tests such as ***Mann-Whitney*** and ***Kruskal-Wallis*** were applied less frequently, collectively contributing fewer responses. Overall, the total contributions across all techniques summed to 703. Objective 2 had the highest statistical application (356), followed by Objective 3 (270), Objective 4 (76), and Objective 1 (1). This indicates that Objective 2 was the primary focus of statistical analysis, employing various techniques.

2.6 Identification of Research Gap

After an extensive review of various research articles and other publications, the researcher found the research gap in the area undertaken for the present study. The following are the multiple reasons for selecting and undertaking the research topic.

2.6.1 Knowledge Gap

Through the researcher's knowledge, it is observed that previous research has focused on cultural tourism. However, the term was found to be more complex to understand. More knowledge or information on the elements covered under ICH must be gained. Many researchers combined cultural categories of tangible and intangible elements for their research work, making it difficult to know which area to focus on. When a new area of research is emerging or is conducted in a different context or population, identifying knowledge gaps can lead to developing new research studies or extending existing research to fill the gap.

2.6.2 Theoretical Gap

Du Cros Model: A growing body of literature has addressed tourism potentialities from different angles. An extensive review of the literature shows that many studies have used the Du Cros model and Mckercher framework (Bjeljac et al., 2012; Li & Lo, 2004; Pobric et al., 2019; Stamenković & Jakšić, 2013) worldwide due to the clarity and simplicity of the model framework. Studies are also conducted using SWOT analysis and GIS model analysis (Collins-Kreiner & Wall, 2007; Mikhailidi, 2014; Pareta, 2013). Further, much work has been carried out on applying the weighted sum method as a multi-criteria decision tool, focusing on the supply side of tourism management (Mamun & Mitra, 2012; Neupane et al., 2013).

Most of the research has evaluated cultural or natural heritages, which form a part of tangible heritage, thus ignoring the other forms of cultural tourism, such as art tourism and rural tourism, representing the forms of ICHs. When it comes to the investigation of any destination attractiveness, it becomes predominant to focus not only on the tangible heritage but also on intangible heritage resources of the supply and demand side of tourism, covering all aspects of cultural tourism to generate a total output in understanding the tourism potentialities at any given destination. Therefore, this study will breach this gap between the

previous and the current literature by providing a new framework of ICH potentialities from both demand and supply perspectives.

TPB Model: Tourism studies have focused on understanding the relationships between the various constructs, such as tourists' motivation (AL Ziadat, 2015; Baloglu, 2000 Hsu & Huang, 2010), destination image (Reza Jalilvand et al., 2012; Sharma & Nayak, 2018; Yang et al., 2009), satisfaction (Amoah et al., 2019; An et al., 2019; Bayih & Singh, 2020; Berhanu & Raj, 2020; Ghorbanzade et al., 2019; Kempiak et al., 2017; Nguyen Viet et al., 2020; Preko et al., 2019; Sharma & Nayak, 2018; Simpson et al., 2020;), and behavioural revisit intention across the country and worldwide. Still, no study seems to have been carried out specifically regarding cultural tourism.

Previous studies also focused on the relationship between travellers' attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and behavioural intentions (Ajzen, 1991), which could only predict a person's attempt to perform a particular behaviour but not the actual performance. Very little research could investigate how memorable tourist experience influences behavioural intentions and determine their basic behaviours in choosing a cultural destination (Gani et al., 2019; Hamid et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2010).

It is also evident that the TPB, a commonly accepted consumer behaviour model, has been widely applied in several contexts, including tourism. However, this model has yet to be used in studies related to cultural tourism destinations. Few studies have been employed to extend the TPB model in tourism studies (Han et al., 2011; Hsieh et al., 2016; Soliman, 2019). However, no comprehensive structural model has been proposed to connect tourists' attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, motivation, destination image, satisfaction, and memorable experiences to the behavioural intention of revisiting, specifically for cultural tourism. Therefore, this gap presents an opportunity for further exploration into how these factors interact in cultural tourism destinations, where unique features and visitor motivations may alter the dynamics of satisfaction and behavioural intention.

The current study attempts to fill the gap by extending the TPB and investigating tourists' behavioural intention and actual behaviour formation process when visiting a cultural destination. Further, the current research also fills the gap previously ignored in many studies by examining the mediating role of tourist satisfaction. Thus, the study will

contribute to the theoretical development of travel behaviour formation by enhancing the sufficiency of a commonly accepted consumer behaviour model.

SET Framework: Previous studies have focused on how tourism affects residents' perceptions of economic, sociocultural, and environmental impacts (Guo et al., 2013; Martín et al., 2017; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Sinclair-Maragh et al., 2015; Wang & Xu, 2015), especially in developed countries (Jimura, 2011; Sharpley, 2014). Fewer studies have explored the residents' lived experiences in cultural tourism destinations, particularly regarding the cultural impact on their communities (Jaafar et al., 2015). Studies that deal with residents' lives permanently at cultural destinations are scarce. Therefore, the perceived cultural impact needs to be investigated in the context of the cultural backgrounds of the places (Pavlić et al., 2019).

Resident perceptions significantly shape their attitudes toward tourism (Vargas-Sánchez et al., 2015), though many past studies have blurred the distinction between perceptions and attitudes (Sharpley, 2014; Sinclair-Maragh et al., 2015). In cultural tourism, these perspectives have often been combined with broader social impacts, making it difficult to pinpoint the specific cultural effects on residents (Bayno & Jani, 2016).

Residents' attitude is a critical factor in support for tourism development. Several scholars have interpreted resident attitude as perceived tourism impact differently, with some equating viewpoints, such as Hanafiah et al. (2013), Tournois & Djeric (2018), and Vargas-Sánchez et al. (2011), have considered perception and attitude as two distinct concepts, with the latter being a subset of the former. Martín et al. (2017) agreed and distinguished between residents' perceptions of the positive and negative impacts of tourism activities on their communities and their overall attitudes toward the tourism phenomena resulting from these perceptions.

Prior research has also focused on analysing resident attitudes toward tourism growth and development (Çelik & Rasoolimanesh, 2021; Gursoy et al., 2002; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Lepp, 2007; Mason & Cheyne, 2000; Mccool & Martin, 1994). However, as Sharpley (2014) mentioned, due to the overlapping or synonymous concepts of attitude and perception, the research fails to examine how residents' attitudes can affect the relationships between their perceived impact and support for tourism, especially in cultural tourism studies.

It should also be highlighted that community attachment and involvement are critical factors in shaping residents' support. Residents who feel empowered through attachment and

participation in tourism planning are more likely to support tourism initiatives (Lee, 2013; Nicholas et al., 2009). Because of community attachment, support for tourism can be expressed in diverse ways, such as voting, donations, and willingness to participate in community meetings in a tourism community (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004). Similarly, involving locals in decision-making gives them control over tourism activities and helps them better understand the associated costs and benefits. This participation fosters trust and a sense of belonging within the community, helping to reconcile the need for economic growth with residents' quality of life (Jaafar et al., 2015). Therefore, further research is needed to explore how community involvement and attachment influence support for cultural tourism.

Moreover, much prior research has focused only on a direct effect on support for tourism development (Martín et al., 2017). However, there is still a gap in understanding how perceived cultural impact and resident attitudes mediate the relationship between the constructs. Therefore, in a broader sense, this study examines the influence of various factors, such as resident's perceived cultural impact, attitudes toward cultural tourism and tourists, community attachment, and involvement, on residents' support for cultural tourism. It also explores the mediating role of perceived cultural impact and resident attitudes in these relationships.

SET has been extended to understand how people and organisations interact to maximise benefits and minimise costs. SET suggests that individuals' attitudes toward tourism are shaped by their assessment of its impact on themselves and their communities (Ward & Berno, 2011). In other words, those who consider the positive effects of tourism are likely to have more favourable attitudes towards tourists and the tourism industry and vice versa (Vong, 2008). Numerous research works have been conducted to explain SET (Rashid, 2020; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015). However, the application of SET in cultural tourism studies has been limited, and this study aims to address that gap.

Though numerous studies have been undertaken on residents' support for tourism, conceptual ideas, findings, and policy implications emerging from existing research may not apply to cultural tourism because of their uniqueness in several aspects. Therefore, an attempt has been made to fill this gap using the revised SET, which will help to test a model of residents' support for cultural tourism in Goa. By applying the revised SET framework,

the current research will bring detailed insight into community support, attachment, involvement, and attitude toward cultural tourism.

CSI and SCTD Model: The theoretical gap is also identified in exploring and measuring the CSI, lacking previous research studies. Studies have only focused on conceptually explaining the indicators (Mathew & Sreejesh, 2017; Soini & Birkeland, 2014; Thimm, 2019; Throsby, 2008). Numerous studies have also attempted to develop conceptual sustainable models, such as Liu and Chen (2015), Liu (2003), Nguyen et al. (2019), Sangchumnong and Kozak (2018), and Stoddard et al. (2012); however, there is still a gap to explain theoretically and practically how these CSI influence SCTD, and to develop a complex SCTD model. Such a result will be helpful to all stakeholders in better marketing cultural tourism.

The culture–tourism relationship holds great potential for all sides involved in local culture and overall sustainability (Terkenli & Georgoula, 2022). It should not be confused with attempting to engineer specific cultural changes socially while promoting cultural sustainability; instead, we are advocating the development of approaches that facilitate, rather than inhibit, the development and embedding of cultural capital around agri-environmental activities (Burton & Paragahawewa, 2011). Despite the broad acknowledgement of the great potential for cultural sustainability and its indicators in the study area, no study seems to have been carried out specifically on ICH resources.

2.6.3 Empirical Gap

To the researcher's knowledge, the study also revealed that existing research needs to be more adequate or conclusive. No research seems to have been carried out to empirically understand the stakeholder's viewpoints and complications toward SCTD. Such views will influence the pathways suitable for achieving sustainable outcomes in cultural tourism. This study attempts to determine the most appropriate model to initiate and establish SCTD in the state in the coming years.

The present study will focus on how empirically cultural tourism can be promoted and sustained for tourism development. Identifying empirical gaps can lead to developing new research studies and models to collect data or refining existing research methods to improve the data quality. It will also help to provide practical applications or effective implementation of research findings in practice.

2.6.4 Methodological Gap

The researchers also noted that the existing methods and techniques, the unit of analysis, and measurement constructs speak about tourism in general. However, those are found to need to be revised, updated, or inappropriate for the present research question and, therefore, need to be modified. Thus, defining the methodology that applies to cultural tourism studies is important. Therefore, identifying methodological gaps can lead to developing new research methods or modifying existing ones to address the research question better.

2.6.5 Geographical Gap

Finally, the geographical gap was identified based on the area or specific region studies. It is observed that Goa, one of India's famous destinations, needs more research in this area. Thus, the researcher can fill out this gap by doing the research.

Chapter 3

Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The methodology employed is an essential component of any research project. The research methodology directs selecting and applying the most suitable and effective methods, materials, and scientific tools. It also provides readers with a clear understanding of the quality of the work undertaken in the study. This framework enhances the research process's overall manageability, efficiency, and impact. Consequently, this chapter delineates the detailed research methodology utilised in this study.

3.2 Research Design

The research design is the foundation and structure for the entire research study. It outlines the overall strategy and provides a systematic and logical plan to address the research questions. This includes guiding the data collection, interpretation, analysis, and discussion processes. Essentially, the research design functions as a blueprint that ensures the study remains focused, organised, and aligned with its objectives.

For the current study, a carefully structured research design was developed and followed to meet the targeted objectives. This design was meticulously planned and executed through five distinct steps, forming the framework for achieving the study's goals. These steps guided the research and were employed to develop a new scale, elaborated in Chapter 7. The systematic approach ensured clarity, coherence, and precision throughout the research process.

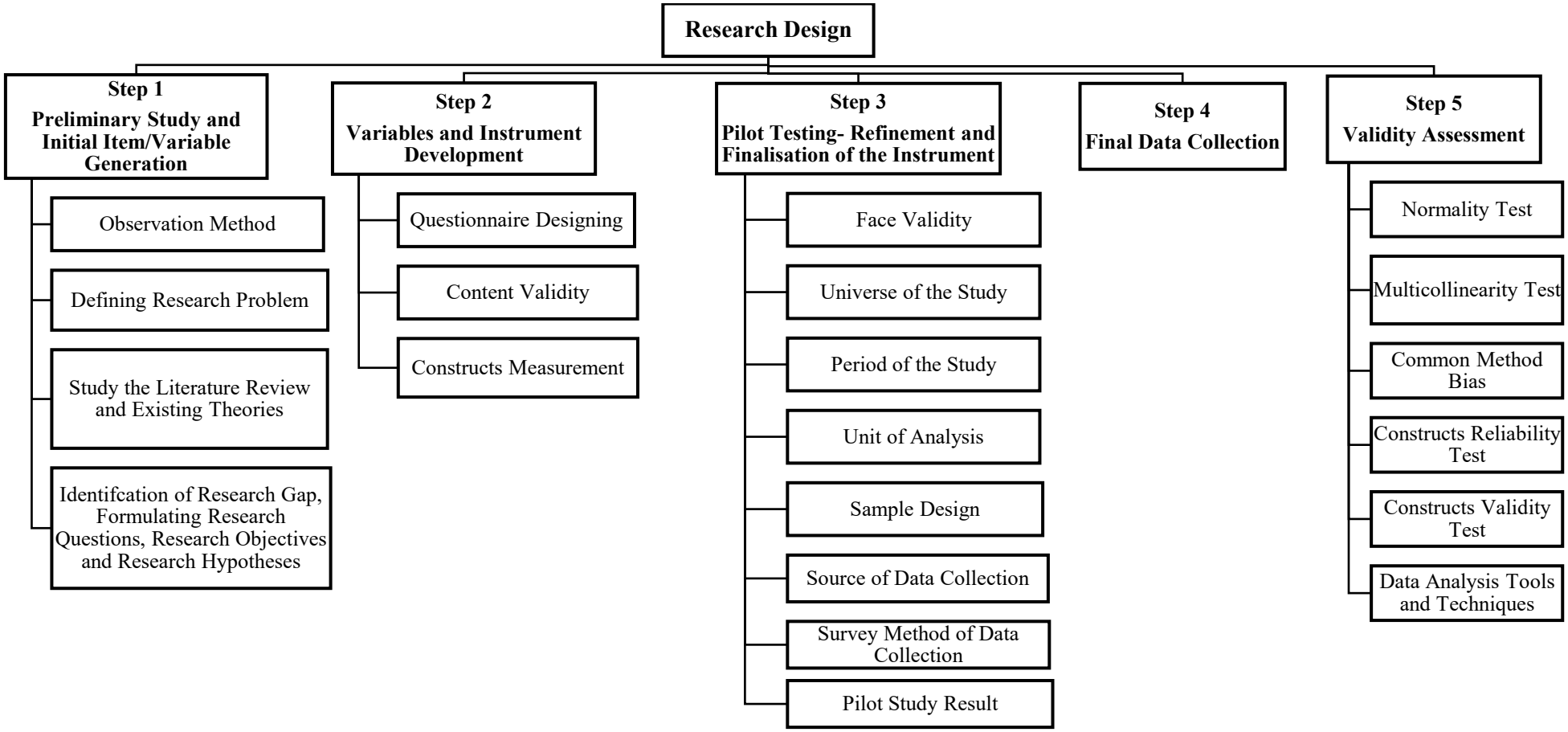


Figure 3. 1 Framework of Research Study

Source: *Author's compilation*

Figure 3. 1 provide a detailed breakdown of how these were applied to the study, illustrating the logical progression and methodological rigour employed to achieve the desired outcomes.

3.2.1 Step 1. Preliminary Study and Initial Item/Variable Generation

3.2.1.1 Observation Method

In the preliminary study, the researcher used observation to determine and verify which places the tourists visit the most and to understand their modus operandi. For this purpose, the researcher spent considerable time learning and observing the respondents' behavioural patterns, mainly at the cultural destination.

An observational study was conducted in December 2021 by visiting different tourist sites of Goa, such as i) Aguada Fort, which is located between the Mormugao peninsula and Calangute beach; ii) Reis Magos Fort, and Church, located on the northern bank of the Mandovi River in Bardez, Goa, opposite to the capital city of Panjim; iii) The Basilica of Bom Jesus Church, located in Old Goa; iv) The religious festivals across Goa. Besides this, an observational method was also employed, complemented by conducting unstructured interviews with industry experts and academicians. Such a subjective method helped the researcher identify the most attractive places and observe their reaction when they reached a particular destination.

3.2.1.2 Defining Research Problem

Defining a research problem is a crucial step in the research process as it sets the direction for the entire study. It involves identifying and clearly articulating a specific issue or question that needs investigation. Defining the research problem begins with a thorough understanding of the broader topic through a literature review, which helps to pinpoint gaps or areas that require further exploration. Once the research problem is identified, it must be precisely framed to ensure clarity and focus, avoiding ambiguity.

Defining the problem involves formulating specific research questions and objectives, establishing the scope of the study, and considering the issue's significance. By grounding the problem in existing literature and theoretical frameworks, the researcher ensures that the study is informed and contextually relevant. Regular evaluation and refinement of the

research problem help to sharpen its focus, ultimately guiding the research methodology and contributing to a clear, impactful study.

3.2.1.3 Study the Literature Review and Existing Theories

A literature survey was conducted by identifying keywords selected based on the preliminary review of the available literature. The study uses different sets of English keywords, using the asterisk wildcard to include the permutation of each phrase and Boolean operators. At least two keywords were combined to enable better literature results.

A Scopus database and other relevant journal websites were used to apply these keywords, which resulted in a reliable and authentic literature survey. At this stage, an attempt has been made to generate variables by interviewing experts and other research scholars and asking direct and indirect qualitative questions to observe the current trend in this area of research. Thus, the observational method, literature survey, and unstructured interview helped the researcher identify the variables initially.

3.2.1.4 Identification of Research Gap, Formulating Research Questions, Research Objectives and Research Hypotheses

Reviewing existing literature to understand the context led to identifying the gaps in the present research. The researcher formulated specific questions, objectives, and hypotheses and decided on the methodology and data collection methods. This foundation sets the direction and scope of the study.

3.2.2 Step 2: Variables and Instrument Development

At the initial stage, the study identified 37 variables that determine the cultural tourism potentialities, 32 that consult about TPB, 25 that deal with the SET framework, and 40 that determine cultural sustainability and SCTD. Further, various demographic attributes are identified to achieve the targeted objectives. Based on this, the initial draft of a structure is created based on the closed-ended questionnaire for tourists and residents.

3.2.2.1 Questionnaire Designing

Questionnaire designing is one of the most challenging tasks in every primary research study. It is a means of creating valid and reliable questions that address the research

objectives, placing them in proper order, and selecting an appropriate administration method. Thus, the researcher in this study framed a questionnaire by identifying all the possible outcomes that could be achieved.

The questionnaire was designed as the survey instrument, including all constructs of the proposed model to investigate the hypotheses of interest. The questions in the questionnaire are based on a review of the literature and specific destination characteristics. The present research mainly framed the two sets of questionnaires; one is for the tourists, and the other one is for the residents. The outline followed for questionnaire formulation is given below.

3.2.2.1.a Questionnaire for Tourists'

This questionnaire consists of four sections. The ***first section*** mainly deals with understanding the behavioural intention toward a cultural destination. Therefore, respondents are asked to tick mark the statement based on their opinion towards factors such as attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, motivation, the destination's image, satisfaction, and memorable experiences.

In the ***second section,*** respondents are asked to evaluate the potentialities of ICH resources, which includes their interest in visiting and experiences of the place visited. The respondents were asked to tick the statements about ICH resources based on market appeal and product design.

The ***third section*** discusses tourists' opinions regarding the CSI and SCTD. Together, 36 statements are asked during the final survey. For all three sections, a 7-point Likert scale was followed where (1) denotes Strongly Disagree, (2) Somewhat Disagree, (3) Disagree, (4) Neutral, (5) Agree, (6) Somewhat Agree, and (7) denotes Strongly Agree.

The ***fourth section*** deals with the tourists' demographic profile, wherein respondents were asked to provide their age, gender, marital status, annual individual income, educational qualification, and occupation. In addition, respondents were also asked to give responses about their number of visits and stays in Goa, their preferences for Goa's cultural attractions, the types of tourists they belong to, the purpose for visiting Goa, and their knowledge and awareness about local culture and cultural tourism.

3.2.2.1.b Questionnaire for Residents'

This questionnaire was circulated among the residents and thus dealt with four sections. In the ***first section,*** respondents were asked to give their opinions about their attachment and involvement in cultural activities, their perceived impact of culture, and their attitude and support for cultural tourism.

In the ***second section,*** the respondents were asked to give their opinion on the potentialities of intangible cultural resources. Here, respondents are asked to provide their opinion about the cultural significance and robustness. The ***third section*** deals with CSI and SCTD, wherein respondents are asked to rate the various statements according to their opinions. Like the questionnaire designed for tourists, all three sections mentioned above utilise a 7-point Likert scale. On this scale, 1 represents Strongly Disagree, while 7 represents Strongly Agree.

The ***fourth section*** deals with the demographic profile of the respondents, wherein respondents are asked to provide details of their age, gender, income, education qualification, annual individual income, and occupation. Further, respondents were also asked to give opinions on knowledge and awareness about local culture and cultural tourism.

3.2.2.2 Content Validity

Content validity is a non-statistical type that systematically examines the test content to determine whether it covers a representative sample of the behaviour domain to be measured or the extent to which a measuring instrument provides adequate coverage of the topic under study. The content validity is good if the instrument contains a representative sample of the universe; its determination is mainly judgmental and intuitive (Shadish et al., 2002). It can also be determined using a panel of persons who judge how well the measuring instruments meet the standard.

Therefore, the first draft of the questionnaire was circulated among experts in tourism, such as academicians, PhD holders, and industry experts with more than five years of experience in the cultural and tourism industry, and the identified dimensions and their variables were validated. The two academic experts, two industrial experts from the Department of Tourism (DOT), one industrial expert from the Goa Tourism Development Corporation (GTDC), and

one industrial from the Directorate of Art and Culture have chosen who has vast experience in culture and tourism studies. In total, 06 experts for content validity were approached.

The experts were instructed to rate each of the variables of importance and necessity based on the content's relevance, clarity, and simplicity. The rating sheet asks the rater to indicate the following for all the variables. Here, relevance is indicated on a scale of 1-4 whether the specified variable is relevant as a measure for which it is intended. The ratings are given as 1- Not relevant, 2- Variable needs some revision, 3- Relevant but needs minor revision, and 4- Very relevant.

The clarity indicated on a scale of 1-4 whether the specified variable has clarity in understanding. The ratings are given as 1- Not clear, 2- Variable needs some revision, 3- Clear but needs minor revision, 4- Very clear. The simplicity is also indicated on a scale of 1-4, depending on whether the specified variable is simple to understand. The ratings are given as 1- Not simple, 2- Variable needs some revision, 3- Simple but needs minor revision, and 4- Very simple. The scale has been designed in such a way that it will help to test the variables and get accurate results.

In addition, the experts were also asked to provide feedback on ambiguity, wording, and content about variables. Subsequently, the opinions and suggestions of tourism field experts were provided as relevant inputs to the content, adding to what had been identified from the literature.

3.2.2.3 Constructs Measurement

The study's ***first objective*** mainly concerns the four constructs used to study the ICH resource's potentialities. Market Attractiveness (MA) was measured by 9 variables, Product Design (PD) by 8 variables, Cultural Significance (CS) by 7 variables, and Robustness (RB) by 13 variables. Together, 37 variables are measured. Each set of variables was carefully revised, and the evaluation process was thorough, ensuring the reliability of the study's findings in assessing the tourism potential of ICH (See Annexures I, III, and IV).

The ***second objective*** was achieved by measuring the 9-constructs and the demographic profile of the tourists. The 9 constructs include the Tourist Attitude (TA), measured by 4-variables; Tourists' Subjective Norms (SN), measured by 3-variables; Tourists' Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC), measured by 3-variables; Tourist Motivation (TM), measured

by 4-variables; Tourist Destination Image (TDI), measured by 4-variables; Tourist Satisfaction (TS), measured by 4-variables; Tourist Memorable Experience (TME), was measured by 5-variables; and Tourists' Behavioural Intention to Revisit (BIR), was measured by 5-variables. For this, the variables measurement scale is adapted from previous literature (See Annexures I and III). Altogether, 32 variables were measured for the selected constructs. The Tourists' Actual Behaviour (AB) of the tourists was measured using only two statements based on ordinal data. In this regard, the first question was asked to the tourists', "How many times did you visit Goa?", options were given as one time, two times, three times, and more than three times. The second question was, "How many days did you stay in Goa?". The tourists' actual behaviour variables were adapted from Hsu and Huang (2010) (See Annexures I and III).

The ***third objective*** was achieved by gathering insights from residents on their perceptions and attitudes towards support for cultural tourism. It focused on six key constructs for understanding the community's stance on tourism and its cultural impact. These constructs were adapted from prior research to fit the context of the present study, ensuring the use of validated measures (Çelik & Rasoolimanesh, 2021; T. Lee, 2013; López et al., 2018; Papastathopoulos et al., 2019; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015; Szromek et al., 2020). Here, Community Attachment (CA) was measured by 4-variables; Community Involvement (CI) by 4-variables; Residents' Perceived Cultural impact (PCI) by 4 variables; Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural Tourism (ACT) by 4-variables; Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural Tourists (ATCT), by 5-variables; and Residents' Support for Cultural Tourism (SFCT), were measured by 4-variables each. Altogether, 25 variables were measured for the study (See Annexures I and IV).

The ***fourth objective*** was achieved by measuring the constructs identified based on the development new scale since there was no properly developed scale for CSI and SCTD. Through a literature review and expert opinion in tourism studies, it was decided to include 36 variables for the final survey (See Annexures I, III, and IV).

3.2.3 Step 3: Pilot Testing- Refinement and Finalisation of the Instrument

Further, face validity was conducted through pilot testing of the questionnaire. Pilot testing was conducted to check the instrument's reliability before collecting the final data. As this

study is also developing a new scale, it is important to consider the respondents at the forefront and those receiving benefits from the study.

3.2.3.1 Face Validity

Face validity estimates whether the test appears to measure a specific criterion. However, it does not guarantee that the test measures phenomena in that domain and is very close to content validity. Content validity depends upon a theoretical basis for assuming a test assessing all the domains of a particular criterion; meanwhile, face validity relates to whether the test appears to be a good measure (Haynes et al., 1995). This judgment is made on the face of the test. Thus, a pilot survey was conducted to check the appropriateness and suitability of the measurements taken in the study. The study helped the researcher to make necessary changes to the instrument.

Face validity also indicates the selection of suitable tools and techniques for statistical primary data analysis. Therefore, a sample of 50 tourists' and 50 residents', covering 10% of the total sample size, was chosen, and responses were collected with the help of interviews. The data were then edited, coded, analysed, and interpreted, and the results were verified. After the data analysis of the pilot survey, the final interview schedule was made by incorporating the required additions and deletions of the variables. Thus, the pilot study made the survey instrument more reliable and authenticated. It also gave specific directions for the study.

3.2.3.2 Universe of Study

The present study is mainly conducted in Goa, India, which is considered a universe of study. Goa is blessed with various flora and fauna, beaches, and cultural destinations, and the current climate makes Goa an attractive tourist destination. Goa is in the western region of India, sharing borders with the Arabian Sea to the west, Maharashtra to the north, and Karnataka to the south and east. With a strong Western influence, Goa has always had a more contemporary mindset.

The rich cultural heritage has been tarnished by the rapid industrialisation that has become commonplace in the rest of India. Goa is where one can find people accepting the presence of all major religions without any ego or hesitation. This is where people follow tradition and stay ahead of the times and trends (Gomantak Times, 2024a, 2024b). Goa's culture is

very laid back and relaxed. Goa's culture is a diverse tapestry that merges various elements, resulting in a unique blend of traditions, art forms, and flavours. It reflects the harmonious coexistence of different religious and cultural influences, making it a fascinating destination for cultural exploration (Gomantak Times, 2024c).

Goa's rich cultural heritage has significantly influenced its tourism industry. The unique cultural elements of the region attract tourists from around the world. Spanning approximately 3,702 square kilometres, it is India's smallest state by area. However, it boasts a significant cultural and economic presence due to its rich history, thriving tourism sector, and unique blend of cultural influences. Goa's distinct cultural heritage stems from over 450 years of Portuguese colonial rule, deeply influencing its architecture, language, cuisine, and religious practices. This fusion of Indian and Western traditions has made Goa a key hub for cultural tourism, with visitors drawn to its historic churches, temples, festivals, and traditional art forms like music, dance, and crafts. Goa is home to two UNESCO World Heritage Sites, including the Churches and Convents of Old Goa and the Western Ghats, crucial to its cultural identity and tourism potential (Gomantak Times, 2024a, 2024b).

Cultural tourism is one of the most prominent sectors in Goa, attracting millions of tourists each year. However, balancing tourism growth with preserving Goa's cultural and natural resources is a pressing concern. Studying Cultural Sustainability Indicators (CSI) in this region is essential for several reasons: ***Firstly,*** Goa's unique culture faces challenges from modernisation, commercialisation, and mass tourism, potentially eroding traditional practices and values. Sustainable cultural tourism can ensure that cultural heritage is preserved while benefiting the local community.

Secondly, economically, tourism plays a crucial role in Goa, contributing 16.43% to the state's Gross State Domestic Product (GSDP) and employing approximately 35% of the population (IBEF, 2024). Goa's economic growth is driven by the strong performance of its industrial sectors, such as fishing, tourism, and pharmaceuticals (DPSE, 2023b, 2023c). The Goa foreign tourist arrival in 2021-2022 was approximately 0.32 lakh (DPSE, 2023c), increasing to approximately 2.92 lakh (DPSE, 2023b, 2023a). Similarly, the domestic tourist arrival in 2021-2022 was 34.09 lakh (DPSE, 2023c), which has increased to approximately 76.69 lakh in 2022-2023 (DPSE, 2023b, 2023a).

The economy has seen steady growth, with tourism being the largest segment in the services sector, drawing both domestic and international visitors. At current prices, Goa's GSDP stands at Rs. 1,00,002.25 crore (US$ 12.87 billion) in 2023-24 and is expected to stand at Rs. 1,21,309.02 crore (US$ 14.65 billion) in 2024-25. At current prices, Goa's GSDP was Rs. 914.16 billion (US$ 11.15 billion) in 2022-23. The GSDP (in Rs.) increased at a CAGR of 9.17% between 2016-17 and 2023-24 (IBEF, 2024). The economy has seen steady growth, with tourism being the largest segment in the services sector, drawing both domestic and international visitors. However, unchecked growth can strain local resources and affect community well-being. Therefore, sustainable tourism models focusing on cultural sustainability can enhance long-term economic viability while safeguarding cultural assets.

Thirdly, given its reliance on tourism and the cultural appeal of its heritage, Goa is an ideal region for exploring how cultural sustainability can be integrated into long-term tourism strategies. Preserving ICH, such as festivals, religious practices, and local art forms, is crucial for enhancing tourist satisfaction while maintaining local identity. Tourism development in Goa should balance economic growth with the sustainability of its cultural resources. Therefore, studying the SCTD through ICH in Goa, focusing on its unique mix of heritage and tourism dependency, can provide insights into developing models that protect culture while supporting economic growth.

3.2.3.3 Period of the Study

The data for the present research were collected from the respondents and secondary sources of information during the five consecutive years from 2020 to 2024.

3.2.3.4 Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis for the present study is classified into two categories: cultural tourists and the residents of Goa. Cultural tourists are those who intentionally or unintentionally visit Goa's cultural destinations. They are thus distinguished into five types: purposeful, sightseeing, serendipitous, casual, and incidental cultural tourists. They are also classified into domestic and foreign tourists. The data shows that most tourists are from within the country compared to foreign countries. For the sample survey of tourists, a clear distinction is drawn between the types of tourists who visit the state.

On the other hand, residents are the individuals living in the study area on a full-time basis and who live at a particular place for a prolonged period (at least a year to be familiar with it); that practices, follow and show involvement in ICH resources in some or the other way. For the study, the sample of residents included officials of the DOT, Goa; GTDC; tour operators operating in Goa; officials of the Directorate of Art and Culture; locals; and the ICH practitioners who, in one way or another, follow and practice the culture of Goa. Thus, one individual tourist and one resident are the sampling units of the study. Such sampling units above 18 years of age during the study period are considered the primitive respondents of this research.

3.2.3.5 Sample Design

In most research studies, examining or studying the entire universe has become almost impossible; the only alternative is sampling. Generalisations about the population are made based on the sample's data. Sampling is an element of the population studied to make conjectures about the whole population. Thus, a good sample is a miniature version of the people. The sampling procedure can be either probability sampling or non-probability sampling, depending upon the need of the study.

The sample design encompasses all aspects of grouping units on the frame, determines the sample size, allocates the sample to the various classifications of frame units, and selects the sample. Choices in sample design are influenced by many factors, including the desired level of precision and detail of the information to be produced, the availability of appropriate sampling frames, the availability of suitable auxiliary variables for stratification and sample selection, the estimation methods that will be used and the available budget in terms of time and resources.

3.2.3.5.a Sample Technique

Based on the purpose and objectives of the study, the current study applied the proportionate stratified random sampling technique. This technique indicates that the sample size of each stratum is proportionate to the population size of the stratum when observed against the total population. It is one type of stratified random sampling, a kind of probability sampling method, and it has been used by several researchers in similar fields (Haarhoff, 2018; Lehto et al., 2004).

Therefore, the researcher found a need to apply proportionate stratified random sampling. The selection of proportionate strata is based on the number of tourists who visited Goa over the past years and the number of residents who lived there. Therefore, here, each district was defined as one stratum. Thus, the following proportionate stratification formula was applied to calculate the required samples in each stratum. The sample size distribution calculation is shown below as per the stratified sample formula:

$$\text{Sample of the strata} = \frac{\text{Size of entire sample}}{\text{Population size}} x \text{ layer size}$$

3.2.3.5.b Sample Size

After selecting the sampling technique, the next important step is choosing the appropriate sample size. The sample size in a survey most typically refers to the number of units selected from which data is gathered. It is an essential feature of any empirical study that aims to make inferences about a population from a sample. Most researchers agreed and accepted that larger samples would be more representative than smaller ones; their increased cost could outweigh the benefits of larger samples (Cochran, 1991; Hair et al., 2013). There are different ways to determine the sample size for the population. However, the present study used the Krejcie and Morgan table (See Annexure II) and the following formula to determine the sample size if the target population is finite (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970).

Formula: $s=X^2$ NP (1-P) ± d2 (N—1) + X^2 P (1—P)

Where s = required sample size.

X^2 = the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (0.05 = 3.841).

N = the population size.

P = the population proportion (assumed to be 0.50 since this would provide the maximum sample size.

d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (0.05).

As the present study's population is finite and known, this formula will help to determine the sample size. Krejcie and Morgan (1970) also gave the table (See Annexure-II), which makes it easy to decide on the sample size of the population. From the sample size formula and table, it can be understood that if the total known population exceeds 2, 50, 000, a finite and standard sample can be chosen as 384.

Table 3. 1 Showing Sample Size Distribution according to Districts of Goa

Respondents		Total Population	Sample Size as per Formula	Questionnaire Distributed and Received	Valid Response Received	Valid Response Rate
Tourists	North Goa	55, 70, 268	282	367	349	**96.40%**
	South Goa	23, 90, 832	102	133	133	
	Total	**79, 61, 100**	**384**	**500**	**482**	
Residents	North Goa	8, 18, 008	215	280	247	**93.4%**
	South Goa	6, 40, 537	169	220	220	
	Total	**14, 58, 545**	**384**	**500**	**467**	

Source: *Author's compilation based on data from the Census Population of Goa (website) and the Planning and Statistics Department (website).*

Table 3. 1 shows the known population of tourists is 78, 03, 744, and the resident population is 14, 58, 545 drawn from the Directorate of Planning, Statistics, and Evaluation - DPSE, (2023a), (2023c), and Ministry of Home Affairs, (2011), to derive the sampling distribution. As the population size has crossed 2, 50, 000 in both units of analysis, choosing a sample size of 384 each is advisable. However, the final sample selected for the tourists and residents is 500 each for simplicity and accuracy.

Further, a proportionate stratified random sampling technique is used wherein the sample is distributed among two strata, which include North Goa (367 tourists') and South Goa (133 tourists') in case of tourists' and North Goa (280 residents') and South Goa (220 residents') in case of residents. In addition to that, the sample distribution was proportionately divided taluka-wise, consisting of a 5%-10% sample for the lowest population of taluka and a 15%-25% sample for the highest population of taluka. The proportion was made for more detailed and accurate results without any biases.

3.2.3.6 Sources of Data Collection

The data was collected from the two main sources. They are as follows:

3.2.3.6.a Primary Data

Primary data was collected from a structured questionnaire by interviewing the respondents personally at the selected location to gather first-hand information. For this purpose, two questionnaires were prepared and circulated among the respondents. The first set of questionnaires was distributed among domestic and foreign tourists, whereas the second set was circulated among residents, tourism officials, and tour operators. All the tourists were approached at cultural destinations such as tangible and intangible heritage areas. To avoid

a sample bias, a sizeable portion of the tourists were approached in coastal areas. At the same time, the residents were interviewed by visiting personally at their houses, at the site, and during practising cultural activities. The entire survey of the tourists and residents was conducted in North Goa and South Goa. Besides this, additional information of primary significance was also collected through personal interviews of tourism officials and other leading personalities in the tourism field. The observation method was used to gain first-hand insights into various aspects of tourism. Initially, the pilot study was conducted to pre-test the questionnaire. At last, the reframed and modified questionnaires were used for the survey.

3.2.3.6.b Secondary Data

The secondary data was collected by referring to various books, journals, theses, published articles, and websites. Such data helped in understanding the theoretical and conceptual background of the study. Factual recent data was also collected to support the analysis. The required data was collected by visiting the district and the central library of Goa, Goa University Library, and the official websites such as GTDC, DOT, Census Population, and Planning and Statistics Department.

3.2.3.7 Survey Method of Data Collection

The present study followed the survey method through a questionnaire design distributed among the respondents via in-hand. Besides structured and unstructured interviews, informal discussions with tourists, residents, operators, tourism officials, and academicians are also carried out using this method. This made it possible to collect many responses with personal interaction while getting first-hand information by covering a wider geographical area. This method was adopted to achieve the objective through field investigation of the study.

3.2.3.8 Pilot Test Results

The questionnaire was circulated among 100 respondents, including 50 residents' and 50 tourists from Goa. The 100 respondents are chosen as 10% of the total sample selected for the study. The collected data was processed through the SPSS Package (SPSS 20) to check for the reliability of the factors. For the pilot study, the data entry was scrutinised for missing

data, unengaged responses, and incorrect value entries. Thoroughly screening the data ensures that the accuracy and reliability pave the way for subsequent analysis.

Table 3. 2 Shows the Pilot Study Results of the Demographic Profile of the Tourists (n=50)

Demographic Attributes		Frequency (n=50)	Percent (%)
Nationality	Indian	45	90.0
	Foreigner	5	10.0
Gender	Male	35	70.0
	Female	15	30.0
Age (In Years)	18-27	9	18.0
	28-37	24	48.0
	38-47	5	10.0
	48-57	9	18.0
	Above 58	3	6.0
Occupation	Government Employee	10	20.0
	Private Employee	32	64.0
	Business	6	12.0
	Senior Citizen/ Pensioner	2	4.0
Marital Status	Married	35	70.0
	Unmarried	15	30.0
Education Qualification	Up to 12th Grade	3	6.0
	Graduation	26	52.0
	Post Graduation	19	38.0
	Other	2	4.0
Annual Income (In Rs.)	< Rs. 2 Lakh	1	2.0
	Rs. 2-4 Lakh	11	22.0
	Rs. 4-6 Lakh	4	8.0
	Rs. 6-8 Lakh	12	24.0
	> Rs. 8 Lakh	22	44.0

Source: *Author's Compilation based on primary data*

Table 3. 2 provides a demographic analysis of 50 tourists, revealing that the respondents are predominantly Indian, male, educated, and financially well-off. They tend to be young to middle-aged professionals, indicating a loyal and affluent audience.

Table 3. 3 Shows the Pilot Study Results of the Demographic Profile of the Residents (n=50)

Demographic Attributes		Frequency (n)	Percent (%)
Gender	Male	26	52
	Female	24	48
Age	18-27	21	42
	28-37	8	16
	38-47	8	16
	48-57	9	18
	Above 58	4	8

Demographic Attributes		Frequency (n)	Percent (%)
Marital Status	Married	23	46
	Single	25	50
	Widow	2	4
Education Qualification	Up to 10th Grade	12	24
	Up to 12th Grade	14	28
	Graduation	11	22
	Post Graduation	6	12
	Other	7	14
Annual Income (In Rs.)	Less than Rs. 1 Lakh	31	62
	Rs. 1-2 Lakh	9	18
	Rs. 2-3 Lakh	3	6
	Rs. 3-4 Lakh	4	8
	More than Rs. 4 Lakh	3	6
Family Composition (In Numbers)	Two	7	14
	Three	10	20
	More than 3	33	66
District	North-Goa	24	48
	South-Goa	26	52

Source: *Author's Compilation based on primary data*

Table 3. 3 shows the demographic characteristics, which suggests a young and equal number of genders with a predominant proportion of single individuals. Most respondents have modest annual incomes and larger family sizes. Educational levels vary, with a significant number holding basic school-level qualifications. The representation from North and South Goa is almost equal.

Table 3. 4 Showing Pilot Study Result of the Reliability of Dimensions of Tourism Potentialities

Constructs	No. of Variables	Cronbach Alpha
Market Attractiveness (MA)	09	0.660
Product Design (PRD)	08	0.566
Cultural Significance (CS)	07	0.145
Robusticity (RB)	13	0.734

Source: *Author's Compilation based on primary data*

Table 3. 4 provides an overview of the reliability of the constructs measured in the study. While the constructs MA and RB demonstrate acceptable to good reliability, the PRD and CS show low reliability. They may require reviewing and refining the variables to improve their measurement consistency. To improve their measurement consistency, the variables may require reviewing and refining.

Table 3. 5 Showing Pilot Study Result of the Reliability Test of Extended TPB Constructs

Constructs	No. of Variables	Cronbach Alpha
Tourist Attitude (TA)	04	0.799
Tourists Subjective Norms (SN)	03	0.734
Tourists Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC)	03	0.695
Tourists Motivation (TM)	04	0.569
Tourists Destination Image (TDI)	04	0.329
Tourists Satisfaction (TS)	04	0.472
Tourists Memorable Experience (TME)	05	0.649
Tourists' Behavioural Intention to Revisit (BIR)	05	0.485

Source: *Author's Compilation based on primary data*

Table 3. 5 outlines the reliability of various constructs related to tourists. While TA and SN exhibit strong and acceptable reliability, other constructs like TM, TDI, TS, and BIR demonstrate low to very poor reliability. This suggests a critical review and refinement of the variables within these constructs to enhance their internal consistency and overall reliability.

Table 3. 6 Showing Pilot Study Result of the Reliability Test of Revised SET Framework

Constructs	No. of Variables	Cronbach Alpha
Residents' Community Attachment (CA)	04	0.107
Residents' Community Involvement (CI)	04	0.767
Residents' Perceived Cultural Impact (PCI)	04	0.376
Residents' Attitude towards Cultural Tourism (ACT)	04	0.080
Residents' Attitude towards Cultural Tourists (ATCT)	04	0.580
Residents' Support for Cultural Tourism (SFCT)	05	0.719

Source: *Author's Compilation based on primary data*

Table 3. 6 presents the reliability of constructs related to residents' perceptions and attitudes are measured. The constructs CI and SFCT exhibit good reliability. However, CA, PCI, and ACT are unreliable, requiring significant variable revisions. Moderate reliability for ATCT suggests room for improvement.

Table 3. 7 Showing Pilot Study Result of the EFA of CSI and SCTD

Constructs	No. of Variables	Factor-wise Cronbach Alpha
Factor 1	06	0.724
Factor 2	04	0.871
Factor 3	04	0.825
Factor 4	06	0.748
Factor 5	03	0.573
Factor 6	02	0.575
Factor 7	03	0.589
Factor 8	02	0.390

Constructs		No. of Variables	Factor-wise Cronbach Alpha
Factor 9		02	0.524
Factor 10		01	NA
Factor 11		01	NA
Factor 12		01	NA
Overall Cronbach Alpha		40	0.768
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy			.654
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	**Approx. Chi-Square**		1635.237
	Degree of Freedom		780
	Significance Value		0.000
Total % of Variance Explained			67.111

Source: *Author's Compilation based on primary data*

The result disclosed that the factor loading value of the variable lies within the stipulated limit of 0.50 except for 04 variables, which include Variable 09, Variable 14, Variable 15, and Variable 21. Therefore, from the expert and respondent's viewpoints, all 04 variables are discarded, and the remaining 36 variables are appropriate for the final data collection. However, the experts' suggestions for revising or modifying a few variables were also incorporated.

3.2.4 Step 4: Final Data Collection

The final data collection process was initiated in October 2022 and ended in November 2023 using self-administered questionnaires, which the researcher hand-delivered and personally interviewed the respondents to get more accurate data. The respondents were asked if they would participate in the survey, and then the questionnaire was circulated. While the questionnaire was circulated, a list of cultural tourism products was attached to familiarise the respondents with the research area and provide unbiased data. In the end, out of 500 tourist questionnaires, 482 were found useful. On the other hand, out of 500 resident questionnaires distributed, 467 were chosen for the final study, resulting in a response rate of 96.4% and 93.4%.

The questionnaires that were incomplete or contained missing information were excluded from the analysis. These discarded responses did not meet the criteria for inclusion, as they lacked sufficient data to ensure accurate and reliable results. By removing such questionnaires, the study maintained the integrity and quality of the dataset, ensuring that only complete and valid responses were considered for further analysis.

3.2.5 Step 5: Validity Assessment

In the last step, the collected data is organised, analysed, and interpreted to draw conclusions that address the research questions and hypotheses. This step also includes identifying real-world applications of the findings and offering actionable insights or recommendations based on the study's results. A detailed procedure has been followed to analyse the data.

3.2.5.1 Normality Test

The normality test is used to determine whether a regular distribution well models a data set and to compute how likely it is for a random variable underlying the data set to be. Normality is an important assumption in many statistical analyses. A theoretical normal distribution can be determined for each SD and mean combination. The asymmetry skewness and kurtosis values ranging from -2 and +2 are acceptable to prove (Curran et al., 1996; George & Mallery, 2010; Henly, 1993).

3.2.5.2 Multicollinearity Test

Multicollinearity occurs when two or more predictor variables (indicators) in a regression or SEM are highly correlated. This high correlation can lead to issues in estimating the relationships between variables, making it difficult to determine each predictor's unique contribution. The VIF is the most widely used method to assess and detect multicollinearity. It measures how much the variance of an estimated regression coefficient increases due to collinearity with other predictors.

A VIF value of 1 indicates no correlation between the predictor and other variables. A VIF value between 1 and 3 generally suggests no significant multicollinearity. If the value ranges from 3.33 $\leq$ to 5 VIF values, it is recommended that the data is free from collinearity (Alauddin & Nghiemb, 2010; Hair et al., 2016). A VIF greater than 5 indicates high multicollinearity, which may require addressing by removing or combining correlated predictors.

3.2.5.3 Common Method Bias using the Harman Single Factor Method

Common method bias refers to the potential distortion in research findings that arises when data is collected using a single method or source, leading to systematic measurement errors. In the context of surveys or self-reported data, common method bias occurs when the

relationship between variables is influenced not only by the constructs of interest but also by the method used to collect the data, such as respondents' tendencies to answer in a socially desirable way or a common response style.

Harman's single-factor method is used to assess common method bias. This method helps determine whether a single factor accounts for most of the variance in the data, which could indicate the presence of common method bias. In this method, all variables from the measurement model (for example, survey variables from multiple constructs) are subjected to a factor analysis without specifying any factors. The resulting factors are then examined to see if one single factor emerges that explains the majority of the variance in the data (typically, over 50%). If one factor dominates the variance, common method bias may be problematic, as it indicates that the data is not discriminating well between different constructs (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

3.2.5.4 Construct Reliability Test

3.2.5.4.a Cronbach Alpha

It is the consistency of scales over time and internal consistency that is used to measure how much of the variability in the observed scores. It represents the variability in the calculated reliability score measured using Cronbach Alpha (CA). The reliability coefficient is the number that reflects whether the score obtained is a stable indication (Dick & Hagerty, 1971). The reliability default value ranges from 0 to 1.

In social science research, reliability is preferred to have more than 0.70. Therefore, the model's reliability tests were conducted based on CA, surpassing the recommendation of 0.70 (Cronbach, 1951). A reliability coefficient exceeding 0.60 in social psychology research is usually acceptable (Hair, Black, et al., 2013; Robinson et al., 1991). A higher number means higher stability or consistency. There seems to be no absolute standard to evaluate the reliability coefficient. However, George and Mallery (2019, 2010) have revealed evaluation standards for researchers to assess their analysis results. Generally, excellent reliability coefficients are around 0.90. Still, if the value crosses 0.90, the data may be redundant; good is about 0.80, adequate is around 0.70, questionable is around 0.60, poor is around 0.50, and below 0.50 is unacceptable.

3.2.5.4.b Composite Reliability

The Composite Reliability (CR) measures the internal consistency reliability of a latent construct in SEM. It assesses the extent to which the indicators or observed variables that make up a latent construct are consistent in their measurement. In other words, CR reflects how well the variables within a construct "hang together" to represent the same underlying dimension.

The concept of composite reliability is derived from the work of Fornell & Larcker, (1981), and it is widely used in SEM to ensure that the constructs are reliably measured by their indicators. CR is similar to Cronbach's alpha but is considered more suitable in the context of reflective models in SEM because it accounts for the different loadings of indicators rather than assuming that all indicators contribute equally.

The CR denotes the mutual variance of a group of observed variables by assessing a specific construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Generally, a CR of a minimum of 0.60 is estimated to be appropriate (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). In exploratory research, a CR value of 0.70 or higher is generally considered acceptable for ensuring internal consistency reliability (Hair et al., 2011, 2013, 2014).

3.2.5.5 Constructs Validity Test

Construct validity demonstrates how the constructs hypothetically relate to one another to measure a concept based on the theories underlying research. The measurement models and path coefficients were examined with the help of PLS-SEM in Smart PLS 4. Examining the measurement model is to confirm the required construct validity level before analysing the constructs' inter-relationship in the structural model. Therefore, the construct validity test is conducted based on convergent and discriminant validity.

3.2.5.5.a Convergent Validity

Convergent validity refers to the extent to which different measures or instruments that aim to assess the same construct are positively correlated, providing evidence that they capture the same underlying concept. It is a critical component of construct validity, ensuring that a measurement tool accurately reflects the theoretical concept it is intended to measure.

Convergent validity is typically evaluated using statistical methods such as correlation coefficients, where a strong positive correlation (> 0.7) indicates good convergent validity, or through factor analysis, where variables measuring the same construct should load strongly onto the same factor. Establishing convergent validity strengthens the credibility of the measurement instrument and ensures consistency across multiple tools, reinforcing the robustness of the research findings.

The model's convergent validity tests were conducted based on the two criteria:

Standardised (Outer) Loadings: Standardised (outer) loadings refer to the correlation coefficients between observed variables (indicators) and their corresponding latent construct in a measurement model. They reflect how well each indicator represents the underlying construct it is intended to measure. High standardised loadings, typically greater than 0.70, are acceptable, as they indicate that the indicator has a strong and reliable relationship with the construct (Anderson et al., 1988). These loadings are crucial in assessing the validity and reliability of the measurement model. Values below 0.70 may suggest that the indicator contributes less to explaining the construct and might require further evaluation, such as modification or removal. By analysing standardised loadings, researchers can ensure that the indicators used in the study are both relevant and representative of their intended constructs, thus improving the robustness of the overall model.

Average Variance Extracted (AVE): The AVE is an important measure for assessing convergent validity in SEM, indicating how much variance in the indicators is explained by the latent construct. For convergent validity to be established, the AVE should be at least 0.50, meaning the construct explains more than half of the variance in its indicators. In other words, more than 50% of the variance in the indicators is accounted for by the underlying construct, reflecting good convergent validity. If the AVE is below 0.50, it suggests poor convergent validity. However, as Fornell & Larcker, (1981) noted, a lower AVE may still be acceptable if the CR and CA are acceptable. Additionally, for second-order constructs, the AVE should also be ≥ 0.50 (Hair, et al., 2013).

3.2.5.5.b Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs in a theoretical model, both conceptually and empirically. It ensures that the indicators of a specific construct measure only that construct and not others, confirming that

each construct represents a unique aspect of the phenomenon under study. Discriminant validity is critical for establishing the overall validity of a measurement model because it verifies that constructs are not only internally consistent but also meaningfully different from one another.

The discriminant validity is measured based on three criteria:

Fornell and Larcker Criterion: The Fornell and Larcker Criterion suggests that the shared variance between pairs of constructs should be lower than the linked AVE. The intercorrelation matrix suggests adequate discriminant validity of the measurement model as the square root of a specific construct's AVE exceeds the corresponding construct's intercorrelation score (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio: The HTMT ratio is a modern approach to assessing discriminant validity in PLS-SEM. The HTMT ratio method proposed by Henseler et al. (2015) measures the degree of correlation between different constructs by comparing the average correlations between indicators of distinct constructs to the average correlations between indicators of the same construct. The HTMT ratio helps determine whether constructs are sufficiently distinct from one another, which is essential for ensuring that a model is valid. An HTMT ratio of 0.85 or 0.90 is considered an acceptable threshold. If the HTMT ratio exceeds this value, it may indicate a lack of discriminant validity, meaning that the constructs are too similar or overlap in what they measure.

Cross Loadings: Cross loadings refer to the correlation or loading of an indicator (observed variable) on multiple constructs (latent variables) in a measurement model. In PLS-SEM, an indicator should load strongly on its assigned construct but may also load on other constructs to some extent. Cross-loadings assess discriminant validity, ensuring that constructs are distinct and that indicators measure only their intended construct. High cross-loadings on unintended constructs may indicate overlap or redundancy, undermining the model's validity. The study evaluated discriminant validity at the variable level through the cross-loadings matrix. While there is no universal threshold, the loading on the intended construct should be higher by at least 0.10 compared to other constructs. A smaller difference may suggest inadequate construct differentiation.

3.2.5.6 Data Analysis Tools and Techniques

3.2.5.6.a Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Analysis

Descriptive statistics and frequency analysis were employed to review the respondents' profiles comprehensively. In descriptive statistics, the mean and standard deviation were utilised to summarise key numerical data points, offering insights into central tendencies and variations within the dataset. On the other hand, frequency analysis was used to categorise and quantify responses, highlighting the distribution and proportion of different demographic characteristics or other variables of interest. Together, these methods facilitated an in-depth understanding of the respondents' attributes, allowing researchers to identify patterns and trends within the group.

3.2.5.6.b Modified Du Cros Matrix

Furthermore, the first objective was examined using the Du Cros model, which addresses manual data calculation based on the criteria. In this case, the approach proposed by Du Cros (2001) was utilised, as it is considered one of the most effective approaches for studying the potential of cultural tourism.

Many previous studies have utilised this approach to identify and evaluate tourism potential in areas such as Bjeljac et al. (2012), Laing et al. (2014), Pobric et al. (2019), and Stamenković and Jakšić (2013). However, this approach has been modified according to the study's needs and tries to test the reliability and validity of the missing constructs in the original model (Refer to Section 4.3).

3.2.5.6.c Correlation Matrix

Correlation analysis is a statistical technique to assess the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables (Bryman & Bell, 2015). As Tabachnick and Fidell (2019) noted, it quantifies the degree of association between two variables and helps determine whether changes in one variable correspond to changes in the other. The correlation coefficient, commonly referred to as Pearson's r, indicates the strength and direction of this linear relationship, ranging from -1 to 1 (Field, 2013). A value of -1 signifies a perfect negative correlation, 1 indicates a perfect positive correlation, and 0 represents no correlation. Correlation analysis is a valuable tool for uncovering relationships between

variables and can assist in predicting the value of one variable based on another (Black & Babin, 2019).

3.2.5.6.d Exploratory Factor Analysis

Building scale typically starts with an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). This method helps identify and characterise the measured variables by condensing the data from observed variables into smaller sections (Iacobucci, 2010). According to the validation requirements provided by Lewis et al. (2005) and Straub and Gefen (2004), factor analysis ought to be carried out with the help of EFA. In this regard, the EFA test was run for the first sub-objective of the fourth objective.

The Principal Components Analysis (PCA) and varimax rotation were used to run EFA on all 36 questionnaire variables in SPSS 20. At the same time, varimax rotation diminishes the total number of variables with high loading against each factor and further reduces smaller loadings. PCA extracts the largest variances and places them into the first factor. Using Bartlett's and the Kaiser-Meyer Olkin tests, total variance explanation and sampling adequacy were evaluated to see whether the data fit factor analysis.

3.2.5.6.e Partial Least Squares-Structural Equation Modelling

Data analysis was conducted using Partial Least Squares-Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM), considered one of the most well-known and extensively utilised methods. This method is employed for the second, third, and fourth objectives. The rationale for employing this technique is that it has been utilised to examine various theories and models in academia, including research in the social sciences (Hair et al., 2011, 2012, 2014).

It is considered a fusion of multivariate statistical techniques, such as factor analysis, discriminant analysis, regression, or path analysis, in which the relationship between the theoretical constructs (represented by latent factors) is depicted by regression or path coefficients between the factors (Hair, Black, et al., 2013). The PLS-SEM is a method for specifying and estimating models of linear associations among variables that can be measured or observed. Those directly measured are called Measured Variables (MV). Conversely, those hypothetical constructs that are latent or cannot be directly measured are referred to as Latent Variables (LV).

A structural equation model is a proposed pattern of directional and non-directional linear associations among a set of MVs and LVs, where a directional association implies some directional impact of one variable on another, while a non-directional association, largely correlational, implies no directional impact. Additionally, it provides a means to examine the mediating and moderating associations between the constructs. The primary benefits of PLS-SEM over other statistical techniques are that it allows for the simultaneous estimation of a series of independent multiple regression equations and can incorporate latent variables into the analysis, accounting for measurement errors in the estimation process (Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2013).

PLS-SEM was employed to analyse the direct relationships between the constructs for the second and third objectives. Many studies have used the PLS-SEM approach to investigate the two main theories applied in social sciences, such as the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), which examines human behavioural intention (Abbasi et al., 2020; Han et al., 2010; Hsieh et al., 2016; Shen & Shen, 2020), and the Social Exchange Theory (SET), which explores cost-benefit analysis (Chuang, 2010; Jani, 2018; Rashid, 2020; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015). Furthermore, sub-objective 2 of the fourth objective of the study was also analysed using PLS-SEM to examine the CSI influence on SCTD, after new scale development. The path analysis was estimated with a bootstrap of 5000 samples in Smart PLS 4.

To examine this data, a Smart PLS 4 was utilised. This is particularly suitable for the current investigation compared to other software for various reasons. First, the models employed in this study consist of a complex combination of first- and second-order constructs, for which covariance-based structural equation modelling would require a considerably larger sample size. Since PLS-SEM is based on Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regressions, it has a minimum requirement for sample size (Hair et al., 2012). Second, Smart PLS 4 can be used with non-normal data, as it is less restrictive when employed with these biases (Hair et al., 2014). Therefore, this application is found to be useful for the current study.

3.2.5.6.f Mediation Analysis

Mediation analysis is a statistical method used to explore how an independent variable (X) influences a dependent variable (Y) through an intermediary variable known as the mediator (M). This approach helps identify whether the effect of X on Y is direct, indirect (via M), or

a combination of both. The process typically begins by testing the total effect of X on Y to determine the overall relationship. Next, the relationship between X and the mediator (path a) and the mediator's influence on Y (path b) are examined.

Finally, the direct effect of X on Y (path c) is assessed while accounting for the mediator's influence. If the indirect effect (product of paths a and b) is significant, it suggests mediation (VanderWeele, 2016). This analysis provides insights into the underlying mechanisms or processes driving the relationship between variables, making it particularly useful in psychology, social sciences, and marketing research (Mackinnon, 2008).

Mediation analysis was performed using the bootstrapping method with 5,000 iterations in Smart PLS 4.0 software. The mediation analysis has been applied to the second and third objectives. The process involved three key steps: evaluating the total, indirect, and direct effects to assess the mediating role. The significance of the mediation effects was determined through bootstrapped confidence intervals and p-values. This analysis provided insights into how the indirect construct acts as an intermediary, influencing the direct relationships between the predictors and the dependent variable, thereby offering a deeper understanding of the underlying causal mechanisms.

3.2.5.6.g Moderation Analysis

Moderation analysis examines whether a variable (Z) influences the direction and/or strength of the relationship between an independent variable (X) and a dependent variable (Y). Essentially, moderation explores interactions to identify when relationships between variables occur. Unlike mediators, which explain how or why a relationship exists, moderators focus on the conditions under which the relationship changes. Interestingly, depending on the research question, some variables can function as moderators or mediators. Moderation is tested by identifying significant interactions between the independent variable (X) and the moderating variable (Z). To minimise multicollinearity and simplify interpretation, it is essential to centre both the moderator and the independent variable (Cohen, 2008).

Centring involves subtracting the variable’s mean from each value, which can be performed using the scale function. The moderation analysis should satisfy the following assumptions. i) The dependent and independent variables should be measured continuously. ii) There should be a moderator variable that is a nominal variable with at least two groups. iii) The

variables of interest (dependent, independent, and moderator variables) should have a linear relationship, which you can check with a scatterplot. iii) The data must not show multicollinearity. iv) There should be no significant outliers, and the distribution of the variables should be approximately normal.

Moderation analysis was conducted using Smart PLS 4 for the third sub-objective of the fourth objective to explore how demographic characteristics influence the relationship between the CSI and SCTD. The analysis involved generating interaction terms between the moderator and independent variables. To assess the significance of these interaction effects, bootstrapping with 5,000 iterations was employed. The path coefficients of the interaction terms were analysed to evaluate the strength and significance of the moderation effects, offering valuable insights into how demographic characteristics shape the relationship between CSI and SCTD.

3.3 Typology of Cultural Tourism

Over the years, the definitions of cultural tourism have emphasised the different attributes of culture, relationships with people, way of life, heritage, arts, experience, and so on. Similar to the issues in defining the term, difficulties are also encountered in identifying cultural tourism typology. The main points bent on structuring definitions are either to include a whole series of principles and variables related to the term or to isolate specific variables that best represent the overall concept. The fact is that, either implicitly or explicitly, such variables or principles need to be more effectively used to observe, measure, and evaluate what is and what is not cultural tourism.

ECTARC (1989) has provided a list of sites that attract cultural tourists. It includes archaeological sites and museums, architecture (ruins, famous buildings, whole towns), art, sculpture, crafts, galleries, festivals, events, music, and dance (classical, folk, contemporary), drama (theatre, films, dramatists), language and literature study, tours, religious festivals, pilgrimages, and complete (folk or primitive) cultures and sub-cultures.

The study conducted in Belgium by Munsters (1994) also has insight into cultural tourism typology. In his research, he divided the typology into attractions and events. Attractions include monuments such as religious buildings, public buildings, historic houses, castles and palaces, parks and gardens, defences, archaeological sites, industrial-archaeological

buildings, museums- folklore museums and art museums, routes- cultural-historic routes, and art routes, theme parks- cultural-historic parks, archaeological parks, and architecture parks. On the other hand, events include cultural-historic events- religious, secular, folk, art, art exhibitions and art festivals, events, and attractions- and open monument days.

Cultural tourism is like 'Heritage Tourism,' the consumption of historical and cultural heritage, which gives testimony to the past (Poria et al., 2004; Poria & Ashworth, 2009) and is linked to the places, artefacts, and activities represented by stories and people from times gone by; it also includes cultural, historical, and natural resources (Ashworth, 1995). Richards (2002) states that despite cultural tourism being historically associated with heritage in Europe (mainly monuments and museums), there is clear evidence that popular culture and other intangible forms of heritage are beginning to be incorporated into the definition (Du Cros, 2001).

Furthermore, Richards and Wilson (2006) state that intangible heritage has become fully integrated into the definition, and other cultural products such as iconic places or structures, themed attractions, or large-scale events. Other terms, such as "art tourism", "ethnic tourism", "indigenous tourism", and "rural tourism", are often used interchangeably but are hard to distinguish between them. Experts opine that the boundaries are nebulous here, and distinctions are only sometimes possible or practical. In their study, Smith and Robinson (2005) have divided cultural tourism resources into several subsectors or typologies due to their diversity and complexity, including heritage, art, creative, experiential, urban, rural, and indigenous cultural tourism.

Therefore, defining and categorising typologies of cultural tourism remains complex due to its multifaceted nature and the broad scope of elements it encompasses, ranging from heritage sites and monuments to intangible cultural expressions and contemporary popular culture. Over time, the concept has evolved to include traditional forms like museums and historical sites, intangible heritage, iconic structures, and cultural experiences. The typologies proposed by various researchers reflect an effort to structure and differentiate cultural tourism's diverse attributes systematically.

However, the overlapping terms and broad range of attractions highlight the challenges of creating clear boundaries. Ultimately, a comprehensive understanding of cultural tourism requires embracing its diversity and recognising that it intersects with various forms of

heritage, artistic expression, and experiential learning, making it an inclusive and dynamic aspect of tourism.

3.4 Typology of Cultural Tourists

According to the definition given by the UNWTO (1995), a tourist (or overnight visitor) is a "visitor (domestic, inbound or outbound) classified as a tourist (or overnight visitor) if their trip includes an overnight stay, or as a same-day visitor (or excursionist) otherwise. Thus, this definition distinguishes between ***'tourists',*** who stay at least 24 hours at their destination, and ***'excursionists',*** who travel for less than 24 hours. However, the term ***'tourist'*** also distinguishes the term 'cultural tourist,' as the term is often presented in the scientific literature as a tourist motivated by tourism consumption (Richards, 2002). However, Silberberg (1995) stated that not all cultural tourists consume culture similarly, as some may have a more superficial, even accidental, contact, whereas others may have a more profound one.

Several authors have distinguished between the typology of cultural tourists. G. J. and Ashworth (1990) have distinguished between 'intentional' and 'incidental' cultural tourists. The intentional cultural tourist, where the visitor is drawn to the different cultural attractions at a destination, and the 'incidental' cultural tourist, whose primary motivation for travelling is not the cultural attractions themselves, serve merely as complementary attractions.

Richards (1996) also distinguishes between the "specific cultural tourist" as a habitual consumer who shows more interest in particular places and the "general cultural tourist" as a sporadic and incidental consumer. Further, Richards (2001) also stated that cultural tourists travel to experience and engage with a destination's cultural heritage, arts, traditions, and customs. Their main motivation is to explore and learn about the place's culture, including monuments, museums, historical sites, festivals, music, and other cultural activities. Hughes (2002) categorises cultural tourists into four groups: primary cultural tourists, multi-primary cultural tourists, incidental cultural tourists, and accidental tourists.

Similar to other studies, McKercher and Du Cros (2002) also proposed a framework and studied the distinguishes between the five types:

(i) the highly motivated cultural tourist,

(ii) the sightseeing tourist (whose interest lies in visiting the main tourist attractions and the most iconic the destination has to offer);

(iii) the casual cultural tourist (culture is an element of little importance);

(iv) the incidental cultural tourist (culture is not an element of interest and contact is, therefore, superficial); and

(v) the serendipitous discoverer (culture is not an interest, but, by contrast, when there is contact, they become enormously involved and have a great experience).

3.5 Operational Definitions of the Study

The researcher has used the following definitions for the present research study.

Table 3. 8 Shows Operational Definitions of the Study

Operational Definitions	Adopted/Adapted from Previous Studies
Culture: "The set of distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual, and emotional features of society or a social group, and that it encompasses, in addition to art and literature, lifestyles, ways of living together, value systems, traditions, and beliefs".	UNESCO (2003)
Tourism: Tourism is the "total of the operation, mainly of an economic nature, which directly relates to the entry, stay and movement of domestic and foreign tourists inside and outside a certain country, city or region".	UNWTO (1995)
Cultural Tourism: "A tourism activity in which the visitor's essential motivation is to learn, discover, experience and consume the tangible and intangible cultural attractions/products in a tourism destination". These attractions/products relate to a set of distinctive material, intellectual, spiritual, and emotional features of a society that encompasses arts and architecture, historical and cultural heritage, literature, music, creative industries, and the living cultures with their lifestyles, value systems, beliefs, and traditions.	UNWTO (2017)
Tangible Cultural Heritage: "Tangible cultural heritage consists of all the physical elements of heritage that can be touched and seen by human eyes. It includes monuments, coins, historic sites, machinery, and other artefacts".	UNESCO, (2009)
Intangible Cultural Heritage (ICH): "The ICH means the practices, representations, expressions, knowledge, and skills- as well as the instruments, objects, artefacts, and cultural spaces associated addition to - that community, groups, and in some cases, individuals recognise as part of their cultural heritage. It comprises traditions, beliefs, values, performing arts, rituals, knowledge and practices, fairs and festivals, and traditional craftsmanship – knowledge and technique".	UNESCO (2009)
Tourists: Tourists are "travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business, and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited".	UNWTO (1995)

Operational Definitions	Adopted/Adapted from Previous Studies
Domestic Tourists: A domestic tourist is "any person who travels within the country where he resides to a place other than his usual place of residence for at least 24 hours and one night, for a purpose other than exercising a gainful activity". Tourists who travel only within the boundaries of their own country are classified as domestic tourists.	UNWTO (1995)
Foreign Tourists: Foreign tourists, also known as international tourists, are "the individuals who travel to a country other than their usual country of residence for a period not exceeding 12 months and whose main purpose of visiting is other than an activity remunerated from within the country visited. This includes travel for leisure, business, health, education, and other purposes".	Richards (2001)
Cultural Tourist: "Cultural tourists are individuals who travel to experience and engage with the cultural heritage, arts, traditions, and customs of a destination. Their main motivation is to explore and learn about the place's culture, including monuments, museums, historical sites, festivals, music, and other cultural activities".	Richards (2001)
Purposeful Cultural Tourist: "A tourist for whom cultural tourism is the primary motivation and has an intense and elaborate cultural experience".	McKercher and Du Cros, (2002)
Sightseeing Cultural Tourist: "A tourist who travels to cultural attractions for a primary reason, but the experience could be more profound and varied".	McKercher and Du Cros, (2002)
Serendipitous Cultural Tourist: "A tourist who is not primarily motivated by culture but gets into a deep cultural experience by chance".	McKercher and Du Cros, (2002)
Casual Cultural Tourist: "A type of tourist for whom culture is a weak motivation for travel and seeks a shallow experience".	McKercher and Du Cros, (2002)
Incidental Cultural Tourist: "A tourist for whom culture is not a stated motive but who visits cultural attractions and has shallow experiences".	McKercher and Du Cros, (2002)
Residents: Residents are "the individuals living in the study area on a full-time basis and who live at a particular place for a prolonged period (at least a year to be familiar with it) and who practice, follow and show involvement in ICH resources in some or other way".	Author's Definition
Stakeholders: Stakeholders can be broadly categorised into tourists and residents. "Tourists are individuals who travel to a destination with the primary goal of experiencing and engaging with its cultural heritage, arts, traditions, and customs. They are motivated by a desire to explore and learn about the local culture, including visiting monuments, museums, and historical sites, attending festivals, enjoying music, and participating in other cultural activities. On the other hand, residents are individuals who live in the study area on a full-time basis and have resided there for an extended period, typically at least a year, to develop a deep familiarity with the place. They actively practice, follow, and engage with ICH resources in various ways, playing a crucial role in preserving and promoting the cultural identity of their community".	Author's Definition
Tourism Potentialities: "Tourism Potentialities is this assessment that evaluates the attractiveness of the historical city as a whole, including the main features that attract people to visit the places due to the improvement of the flexibility of the destination, infrastructure, tourism, culture, and environment".	Du Cros (2001)

Operational Definitions	Adopted/Adapted from Previous Studies
Potential Demand: "Refers to the untapped or prospective interest among tourists who are likely to engage in activities related to ICH. This includes interest in traditions, practices, expressions, knowledge, and skills representing a community's cultural identity, such as festivals, rituals, oral traditions, or craftsmanship. Understanding potential demand helps identify opportunities for attracting new visitors and enhancing sustainable tourism development by leveraging ICH resources".	Author's Definition
Market Attractiveness: "Refers to the appeal and potential of ICH as a tourism product to draw and retain visitors. It encompasses factors such as the uniqueness and authenticity of the ICH, the level of interest it generates among target audiences, its competitive position in the tourism market, and the economic, social, and cultural benefits it can offer. High market attractiveness indicates strong potential for ICH-based tourism to succeed and contribute to sustainable destination development".	Author's Definition
Product Design Needs: "Refer to the requirements and considerations for creating tourism offerings centred around ICH. This involves developing experiences that effectively showcase ICH elements, such as traditions, rituals, performances, and craftsmanship, in a way that is engaging, educational, and accessible to tourists. Product design needs to encompass aspects like tourists, experience, expectations, and good quality interpretations to ensure that the tourism product aligns with the expectations of tourists and the preservation of the cultural heritage".	Author's Definition
Potential Supply: "Refers to the available but underutilised or undeveloped ICH assets that can be offered to tourists. This includes traditions, practices, rituals, craftsmanship, and other cultural expressions that can attract visitors but may not yet be fully integrated into tourism experiences. Developing this potential supply involves preserving, showcasing, and sustainably utilising these ICH resources to create unique and authentic tourism offerings. The model incorporates cultural significance and robusticity as sub-indicators of potential supply".	Author's Definition
Cultural Significance: "Refers to the deep cultural, historical, and social value ICH holds for a community or society. It represents the practices, traditions, rituals, and expressions that define a group's identity, beliefs, and way of life. In tourism, cultural significance highlights the importance of preserving these heritage elements as tourist attractions and vital components of a community's cultural fabric. It underscores the role of ICH in fostering cross-cultural understanding, respect, and sustainable tourism that benefits both the visitors and the local community".	Author's Definition
Robusticity: "Refers to the strength, resilience, and sustainability of ICH in the context of tourism. It indicates how well ICH elements can withstand external pressures, such as commercialisation or mass tourism, while maintaining their authenticity, cultural integrity, and significance. A robust ICH resource can adapt to changes in the tourism landscape, ensuring its continued relevance and preservation for future generations while providing meaningful and authentic experiences for visitors. Robusticity also emphasises the long-term viability of cultural heritage in the tourism sector".	Author's Definition

Operational Definitions	Adopted/Adapted from Previous Studies
Tourist Attitude: "An attitude is a person's positively or negatively valued predisposition, created by learning and experience, to respond and behave consistently toward specifically defined targets, such as a product or a tourist destination. In tourism, attitude is the predispositions or feelings toward a travel destination or service based on multiple perceived product attributes".	Ajzen (1991)
Tourists' Subjective Norms: "Subjective norm refers to an individual's perception of social references or relevant others' beliefs that they should or should not perform such behaviour. Because people always turn to groups for their standards of judgment, any person(s) who served as a reference group could have a crucial influence on individuals' beliefs, attitudes, and choices".	Ajzen (1991)
Tourists' Perceived Behavioural Control: "Perceived behavioural control is about an individual's perceptions of their ability to perform a given behaviour. Several resources or opportunities could dictate the likelihood of behavioural achievement".	Ajzen (1991)
Tourists' Behavioural Intention to Revisit: "Behavioural intention is an individual's attempt or plan to perform a particular behaviour. It represents an individual's expectancies on a specific behaviour in each setting and can be operationalised as the likelihood to act".	Ajzen (1991)
Tourists' Actual Behaviour: "Actual behaviour refers to the specific actions an individual performs due to their intentions, which are influenced by their attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. It represents executing the intended behaviour in real-world scenarios, reflecting the culmination of motivational factors and external constraints or facilitators".	Ajzen (1991)
Tourists' Satisfaction: "The level of contentment experienced by tourists when the perceived performance of a destination's services, products, or overall experience meets or exceeds their expectations. This concept plays a crucial role in tourism management as it influences tourists' likelihood of revisiting a destination and recommending it to others".	Pizam et al., (1978)
Tourists' Motivation: "Tourist motivation is defined as "a set of needs and desires that drive individuals to engage in travel behaviour, influencing their choice of destinations, activities, and experiences to achieve personal satisfaction and fulfilment".	(Pearce, 1988)
Tourists' Destination Image: "The sum of all the tangible and intangible attributes of a place that a tourist perceives. It includes all the elements that make a location attractive to tourists, such as its natural environment, infrastructure, cultural heritage, and the experiences it offers".	Lawson and Baud Bovy (1977)
Tourists' Memorable Experience: "Memorable tourism experiences are selectively constructed from tourist experiences and can be remembered and recalled after a trip".	Zhang et al. (2018),
Residents' Community Involvement: "Community involvement is the degree to which community people work together to achieve common goals that benefit everyone".	Jaafar et al., (2015)
Residents' Community Attachment: "Community attachment is the people's strong positive feelings, rootedness, and sense of belongingness towards the community".	Brehm et al., (2004)

Operational Definitions	Adopted/Adapted from Previous Studies
Residents' Perceived Cultural Impact: "This is the process by which people become aware of and perceive cultural differences that, in a way, positively and negatively impact them".	Author's Definition
Resident's Attitude Towards Cultural Tourists: "Refers to a resident's evaluation of cultural tourists who visit destinations, which could be positive or negative (favourable or unfavourable)".	Author's Definition
Resident's Attitude Towards Cultural Tourism: "A resident's evaluation of cultural tourism based on their learning and experience, which could be positive or negative (favourable or unfavourable)".	Author's Definition
Resident's Support for Cultural Tourism: "Residents who consider cultural tourism valuable and believe the cost is minimal compared to the benefits will be inclined to enter the exchange and support cultural tourism".	Author's Definition
Cultural Sustainability: "Cultural Sustainability refers to the ability of people or a people to keep or adapt components of their culture that separate them from other people".	Mowforth and Munt, (2008)
Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development: "Sustainable cultural tourism development is defined as a movement aiming at the principle of using conservation for cultural, historical, and natural values and seeking to benefit future generations as it meets the needs of current generations".	Author's Definition

Source: *Author's compilation based on previous research studies*

3.6 Chapterisation of the Scheme

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter introduces the foundation of the research, focusing on cultural tourism and its sustainability, with a specific emphasis on ICH resources. It provides the background of the study, offering context on why cultural tourism and sustainability are significant research areas. This chapter also clarifies the definitions of key terms related to cultural tourism and sustainability, laying the groundwork for the study's scope. It identifies the research problem, poses questions that the research seeks to answer, and presents research questions and objectives that guide the investigation. Each objective is discussed in detail, explaining its relevance to the study, and the scope of the research is outlined, specifying the boundaries and limitations of the work.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter reviews the existing literature in the present research study, identifying research gaps and justifying the need for the current study. It categorises past studies based on conceptual frameworks, journal sources, authorship patterns, and network analysis.

Methodologically, the chapter classifies studies by approach (qualitative or quantitative), data collection techniques, sampling methods, sample sizes, and statistical tools. This overview highlights research trends, sets a benchmark, and underscores the unique contributions of the current study.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

This chapter details the research methodology employed in the study, describing the overall research design. It includes the population and sampling framework, detailing how samples are chosen to ensure representation. It identifies data sources and describes the questionnaire design, explaining the structure and types of questions used for data collection. The chapter also explains the tools and techniques for analysis, including the typology of cultural tourists and tourism, helping to categorise different types of tourists and cultural tourism experiences. Additionally, operational definitions relevant to the study are provided, ensuring clarity and consistency in the research terminology.

Chapter 4: Assessing the Potential Demand and Supply of Cultural Tourism through ICH Resources

This chapter presents the theoretical framework for assessing the tourism potential of ICH resources. It incorporates a modified version of the Du Cros model, an analytical tool for evaluating cultural tourism's potentialities. The chapter provides an in-depth analysis of the measurement model for the constructs, using relevant statistical techniques to validate each construct. The modified Du Cros matrix is applied to interpret the data and analyse the strengths and weaknesses of the cultural tourism offerings, providing a foundation for strategic recommendations.

Chapter 5: Factors Influencing Tourists' Behavioural Intentions to Revisit ICH Resources

This chapter uses an extended TPB model to analyse cultural tourists' behaviour. It begins by explaining the conceptual framework of TPB, which examines key factors influencing tourists' satisfaction, behavioural intention to revisit and actual behaviour. The chapter then discusses hypotheses formulation and measurement of constructs. A detailed descriptive analysis of the demographic profile of tourists is provided. The measurement model for tourists' perspectives is presented, followed by path coefficients and mediating analysis to

understand the relationships between constructs. This analysis reveals key factors influencing tourists' satisfaction, behavioural intention to revisit and actual behaviour.

Chapter 6: Factors Influencing Residents' Support for Cultural Tourism through ICH Resources

This chapter extends the research by applying a revised SET framework to understand residents' perspectives on cultural tourism. It begins with an overview of SET and its application to tourism studies, followed by hypothesis formulation and construct measurement. A descriptive analysis of residents' demographic profiles is conducted, followed by a measurement model of residents' perspectives. Path coefficient and mediating analyses are used to investigate the relationships between constructs, exploring how residents perceive the costs and benefits of cultural tourism. The findings offer insights into residents' support for cultural tourism.

Chapter 7: Designing a Model for Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development through ICH Resources

This chapter integrates insights from previous chapters to propose an integrated model for managing stakeholder perceptions in SCTD. It outlines how and who can implement the model, specifying the roles of various stakeholders such as government bodies, tourism operators, cultural organisations, and local communities. It also discusses key factors before implementing the model. The integrated model balances stakeholders' interests, fostering a collaborative approach to SCTD.

Chapter 8: Findings, Discussions, Conclusion, Managerial and Practical Implications, and Scope for Future Research

The final chapter summarises the study's key findings and discusses its managerial and practical implications for policymakers and tourism managers. It provides conclusions that address the research questions and objectives, highlighting the main insights gained from the study. Additionally, this chapter includes recommendations and suggestions for future research directions, outlining areas where further investigation could enhance understanding of cultural tourism and sustainability. The chapter concludes by discussing the research's future scope, proposing potential exploration areas, and indicating how the research could evolve in response to emerging trends and challenges in cultural tourism.

Chapter 4

Assessing the Potential Demand and Supply of Cultural Tourism through ICH Resources

4.1 Introduction

Chapter 4 analyses cultural tourism's potential demand and supply dynamics through ICH. As cultural tourism continues to grow globally, understanding the balance between demand and supply is essential for developing strategies that ensure sustainable growth and maximise the benefits for tourists and host communities.

The Du Cros model has been adapted to examine the various demand and supply factors relevant to ICH. By comparing demand and supply factors, this chapter also highlights potential gaps and opportunities within the cultural tourism sector.

4.2 Theoretical Framework

Tourists' choice of a destination is often influenced by its attractiveness and ability to satisfy their interests. Thus, evaluating a destination's potential helps to identify and prioritise its resources across regions or provinces. This process also assesses a destination's readiness and capabilities, enabling the ranking of destinations based on their importance. Key factors in evaluating destination potential include destination value or equity, physical attributes, infrastructure readiness, accessibility, environmental quality, reputation, and safety.

Over the years, various models have been developed to assess the tourism potential of destinations, manage heritage assets, and explore opportunities for tourism development (Deng et al., 2002; Maitland, 2006; Melián-González & Garcí-Falcón, 2003; Moscardo, 1996; Razzu, 2005). The valorisation of tourist destinations involves evaluating and confirming the unique attributes that make them appealing to visitors. Destinations that receive high scores in this process are more likely to achieve significant tourist presence (Besermenji et al., 2020; Stanojlović et al., 2010).

A comprehensive evaluation of a destination's cultural significance should include market appeal and robusticity as the two key aspects. The market appeal focuses on the destination's ability to attract tourists, while robusticity measures the capacity for tourism without causing harm to the heritage sites (Li & Lo, 2004; McKercher & Du Cros, 2002).

Although cultural assets are often viewed as having strong potential to serve as primary tourist attractions, the assumption that they inherently guarantee positive outcomes has led some communities to invest heavily in heritage assets, sometimes resulting in negative consequences (McKercher et al., 2004). To avoid these pitfalls, the valorisation process is essential for sustainable cultural tourism planning. The valorisation approach assesses the value and potential of heritage assets to ensure their development as tourism resources align with conservation goals. By examining the relationship between economic benefits and conservation management, valorisation helps to create cultural tourism destinations without depleting resources or causing damage to heritage sites (Besermenji et al., 2020; Du Cros, 2001).

Past research has utilised Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats (SWOT) analysis and the Geographic Information Systems (GIS) models (Collins-Kreiner & Wall, 2007; Mikhailidi, 2014; Pareta, 2013) to evaluate tourism management. Additionally, significant efforts have been made to apply multi-criteria decision-making tools, such as the weighted sum method, emphasising the supply side of tourism management (Mamun & Mitra, 2012; Neupane et al., 2013). Hilary Du Cros introduced a holistic model for the tourism valorisation of heritage assets, integrating cultural and tourism sub-indicators alongside a graded evaluation system. The model assesses the tourism sector, heritage management, and the robusticity of heritage assets, offering a comprehensive framework for sustainable tourism development (Besermenji et al., 2020; Du Cros, 2001).

4.2.1 Du Cros Model of Tourism Potentialities

4.2.1.1 Introduction to the Du Cros Model

Cultural resources are aesthetic, have economic worth in a particular city, and should be analysed to give the foundation for developing tourism products (Stamenković & Jakšić, 2013). The Hilary Du Cros approach is a comprehensive and academically validated model of tourism valorising cultural resources. Its fundamental goal is to investigate the feasibility of incorporating cultural variables into the long-term growth of tourism.

Du Cros (2001) incorporated various tourist sub-indicators and a grading system into the valuation. The model is highly sophisticated because it ranks the tourism and heritage asset management industry. The matrix contains a grading system of sub-indicators that suggest the elements for assessing the two major indicators, the 'market appeal' and 'robustness' of heritage assets, that are synthesised to create a ***'market appeal/robustness assessment framework'*** (Refer to Figure 4. 1 and Table 4. 1).

The ***market appeal axis*** consists of two primary dimensions:

- The first dimension is ***market attractiveness,*** which assesses the overall ambience and environment, the destination's reputation, the ability to convey compelling stories, and compatibility with other activities or attractions.
- The second dimension is ***product design needs,*** which includes accessibility, proximity to other historical attractions, availability of amenities, and public openness.

Similarly, the ***robustness axis*** also includes two dimensions:

- The first dimension is ***cultural significance,*** which assesses the destination's aesthetic, historical, educational, and social value.
- The second dimension focuses on ***robusticity,*** examining the impact of potential vulnerabilities, the condition of repairs and maintenance, effective management plans, and the ability to handle increased visitation sustainably.

The market appeal and robustness are critical factors because a heritage asset can only succeed as a tourism attraction if it has both. The asset will only thrive with compelling reasons for visitors to come. Furthermore, unregulated tourist visitation can undermine the cultural values associated with the site. Of the two dimensions in the matrix, robustness is particularly significant for heritage managers due to its strong connection to the cultural values of the heritage site. In contrast, market appeal is paramount to the tourism industry, reflecting the site's desirability and value as a tourist destination.

Each dimension comprises sub-criteria assessed individually according to various variables using a three-, four-, five-, or six-point scale, ensuring the objectivity of the assessment process. The total scores for each dimension are then plotted, and the cultural assets are represented in a matrix. The strength of this framework lies in its identification of four key areas to consider when evaluating the potential of cultural heritage. The assessment process

classifies cultural assets based on their appeal to tourists and ability to effectively manage visitor traffic, ensuring the fairness of the results.

Each variable selected for this study was meticulously evaluated and rated using a scaled point system (Refer to Figure 4. 1). Once all grades have been assigned to the indicators in each subset, the asset's position on the continuum can be plotted on a matrix. The implications of an asset's placement within the matrix can vary significantly.

For instance, the areas A1 and A2 signify high market appeal and high to moderate robustness, making them ideal for substantial tourism activity. However, areas B1 and B2 feature high to moderate market appeal but low robustness; thus, the management approach plays a crucial role in ensuring that visitation upholds the cultural values of the asset. Lastly, areas C1 and C2 indicate high to moderate robustness with moderate market appeal.

Robustness	**High**	D1	C1	A1
		D2	C2	A2
	Low	D3	B2	B1
		Low		**High**
		Market appeal		

Figure 4. 1 Matrix indicating the relationship between the continuums of Robusticity and Market Appeal

Source: *Du Cros (2001)*

Conservation and visitor management programs must be implemented to optimise the market appeal of the heritage asset. D1, D2, and D3 indicate low market appeal, suggesting that these assets are unlikely to attract significant visitation (McKercher et al., 2005). Using this grading method, the researchers intended to thoroughly examine Goa's ICH assets' potential for cultural tourism.

The Du Cros model uses 3 x 3 matrices related to the 9-cell "market appeal/ robustness matrix" labelled M (i, j) (i, j = 1, 2, 3). Each axis is divided into low, medium, and high sectors depending on the score obtained in the previous scoring procedure and which cell it belongs to. Based on the analysis performed (Refer to Table 4. 1), a 9-cell "Market Appeal/ Robustness Matrix" marked by M (i, j) (i, j = 1, 2, 3) is set, and for each cultural good is determined which cell it belongs to, depending on the rating obtained in the previous grading procedure (Du Cros, 2001).

Table 4. 1 Market Appeal/Robustness Matrix

Robustness	**41-60**	M (1,1)	M (1,2)	M (1,3)
	21-40	M (2,1)	M (2,2)	M (2,3)
	0-20	M (3,1)	M (3,2)	M (3,3)
		0-20	**21-40**	**41-60**
		Market Appeal		

Source: *Du Cros, (2001)*

In the Table 4. 1 cells are defined as follows:

M (1,1) – high robustness and low market appeal;

M (1,2) – high robustness and moderate market appeal;

M (1,3) – high robustness and high market appeal;

M (2,1) – moderate robustness and low market appeal;

M (2,2) – moderate robustness and moderate market appeal;

M (2,3) – moderate robustness and high market appeal;

M (3,1) – low robustness and low market appeal;

M (3,2) – low robustness and moderate market appeal;

M (3, 3) – low robustness and high market appeal.

4.2.1.2 Application of Du Cros Model

The Du Cros model is valuable for assessing tourism potentialities by balancing heritage conservation with tourism development. It evaluates the compatibility between a site's cultural or natural significance and tourism appeal, emphasising sustainable use. By identifying a site's position, stakeholders can determine whether it requires conservation efforts, tourism development, or a balanced approach. This model is particularly useful in ICH resources like Goa, where it can guide strategies to enhance visitor experiences while safeguarding cultural heritage.

Its application ensures that tourism growth does not compromise the long-term preservation of cultural assets, promotes sustainable development, and enriches tourists' experiences and community well-being. Several studies have applied the Du Cros model of tourism potentialities, mainly for cultural and natural resources, considering various factors. These factors have been presented in Table 4. 2.

Table 4. 2 Factors Influencing Tourism Potentialities: A Review of Previous Research

Factors	Authors'
Market Attractiveness	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Du Cros (2001); Io (2011); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); and Stamenković and Jakšić (2013)
Market Appeal	
Product Design Need	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Du Cros (2001); Io (2011); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); and Stamenković and Jakšić (2013)
Cultural Significance	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Du Cros (2001); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); and Stamenković and Jakšić (2013)
Robusticity	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Du Cros (2001); Io (2011); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); and Stamenković and Jakšić (2013)
Cultural Value	Kuo and Wu (2013); Laing et al. (2014); Landorf (2016); McKercher and Ho (2006); and Sheng and Lo (2010)
Physical Value	Kuo and Wu (2013); Laing et al. (2014); Landorf (2016); McKercher and Ho (2006); Sheng and Lo (2010)
Product Value	Kuo and Wu (2013); Laing et al. (2014); Landorf (2016); McKercher and Ho (2006); and Sheng and Lo (2010)
Experiential Value	Kuo and Wu (2013); Laing et al. (2014); Landorf (2016); McKercher and Ho (2006); and Sheng and Lo (2010)
Marketing effort	Sheng and Lo (2010)
Leadership	Sheng and Lo (2010)
Sustainability value	Landorf (2016)

Source: *Author's compilation based on previous research studies*

These studies have offered a comprehensive perspective on tourism potential by either applying the original framework of the Du Cros Model or adapting its components to suit specific contexts. The model's robust analytical structure has been utilised to evaluate the balance between heritage conservation and tourism development. In some cases, researchers have directly employed the original factors of the model, such as the robustness of the asset and its market appeal, to identify areas of high potential or vulnerability.

In other instances, the model has been modified to incorporate additional variables or contextual factors, such as community engagement, environmental sustainability, or evolving market trends, allowing for a more nuanced understanding of tourism potentialities. These adaptations have expanded the model's applicability, enabling tailored assessments that address destinations' unique challenges and opportunities.

4.3 Modified Du Cros Model of Cultural Tourism Potentialities

Many tourism studies have been conducted on diverse cultural tangible attractions using the Du Cros model (Laing et al., 2014; Li & Lo, 2004; Stamenković & Jakšić, 2013). According to Du Cros (2001), further research can be conducted to develop and test the criteria for

assessing the heritage places for placement within the proposed matrix. In this regard, Bjeljac et al. (2012) have applied a modified Du Cros model to evaluate tourism and management of natural heritage sites and the capacity of a natural asset to receive visitors. Thus, the scope to modify the model further, its methodology, and its applicability in different areas. Therefore, the present research has modified the Du Cros model to analyse the potential of cultural tourism demand and supply through ICH resources in two key ways.

Firstly, the Du Cros model has faced criticism in past research for not adequately defining its constructs. Specifically, the model lacks clarity in how its key elements are conceptualised, which makes it difficult to apply consistently across different contexts. Several studies have pointed out that the model's constructs (Refer to Table 4. 2) are not operationalised in a clear, measurable way. This lack of definition results in varied interpretations and inconsistent findings when empirical research uses the model. Furthermore, the boundaries between these constructs are often vague, making it hard to distinguish between them or to understand their relationships.

To improve the model's utility and applicability, it is crucial to establish precise definitions for each construct. This includes providing clear criteria for measurement and ensuring that the constructs are theoretically sound and operationally feasible. Additionally, there needs to be a more nuanced discussion of how these constructs interact within specific cultural and tourism contexts. The Du Cros model could better guide future research and practice in cultural tourism and related areas by refining the constructs and establishing clearer definitions.

Therefore, the modified model's key dimensions and sub-indicators are explained below in the context of cultural tourism potentialities. The ***first dimension*** is the ***potential demand,*** which refers to the untapped or prospective interest among tourists who are likely to engage in activities related to ICH. This includes an interest in traditions, practices, expressions, knowledge, and skills representing a community's cultural identity, such as festivals, rituals, oral traditions, or craftsmanship. Understanding potential demand helps identify opportunities for attracting new visitors and enhancing sustainable tourism development by leveraging ICH resources. The model incorporates market attractiveness and product design needs as sub-indicators of potential demand.

Market attractiveness refers to the appeal and potential of ICH as a tourism product that draws and retains visitors. It encompasses factors such as the uniqueness and authenticity of the ICH, the level of interest it generates among target audiences, its competitive position in the tourism market, and the economic, social, and cultural benefits it can offer. High market attractiveness indicates strong potential for ICH-based tourism to succeed and contribute to sustainable destination development.

Product design needs refer to the requirements and considerations for creating tourism offerings centred around ICH. This involves developing experiences that effectively showcase ICH elements, such as traditions, rituals, performances, and craftsmanship, in a way that is engaging, educational, and accessible to tourists. Product design needs to encompass aspects like tourists, experience, expectations, and good quality interpretations to ensure that the tourism product aligns with the expectations of tourists and the preservation of the cultural heritage.

The ***second dimension*** is the ***potential supply,*** which refers to the available but underutilised or undeveloped ICH assets that tourists can offer. This includes traditions, practices, rituals, craftsmanship, and other cultural expressions that can attract visitors but may not yet be fully integrated into tourism experiences. Developing this potential supply involves preserving, showcasing, and sustainably utilising these ICH resources to create unique and authentic tourism offerings. The model incorporates cultural significance and robusticity as sub-indicators of potential supply.

Cultural significance refers to the deep cultural, historical, and social value ICH holds for a community or society. It represents the practices, traditions, rituals, and expressions that define a group's identity, beliefs, and way of life. In tourism, cultural significance highlights the importance of preserving these heritage elements as tourist attractions and vital components of a community's cultural fabric. It underscores the role of ICH in fostering cross-cultural understanding, respect, and sustainable tourism that benefits both the visitors and the local community.

Robusticity refers to the strength, resilience, and sustainability of ICH in the context of tourism. It indicates how well ICH elements can withstand external pressures, such as commercialisation or mass tourism, while maintaining their authenticity, cultural integrity, and significance. A robust ICH resource can adapt to changes in the tourism landscape,

ensuring its continued relevance and preservation for future generations while providing meaningful and authentic experiences for visitors. Robusticity also emphasises the long-term viability of cultural heritage in the tourism sector.

Thus, the modified Du Cros model focuses on both tourists and residents as the two primary stakeholder groups, incorporating a comprehensive set of cultural and tourism sub-indicators to capture the distinct characteristics and core attributes of ICH resources. The revised model has identified Potential Demand (PDE) and Potential Supply (PSU) as the primary dimensions for consideration.

Secondly, a valuation scale was developed for each analysed sub-indicator, with numerical scoring applied to quantify the responses. Given that the number of variables under each dimension is unequal, the scale matrix was revised to suit the study's specific needs, ensuring consistency in measurement and interpretation. The uneven distribution of variable score values in the original Du Cros model complicates the calculation of tourists' valorisation. To address this, it became necessary to recalibrate the matrix values to ensure consistency across the scale for each dimension. Consequently, each dimension was assigned a specific number of variables with equal score values.

MA comprises 9 variables, PRD comprises 7 variables, CS includes 7 variables, and RB encompasses 13 variables. These variables were evaluated using a 7-point Likert scale. For example, the total score for MA was calculated as 9 variables x 7 points = 63, for PRD as 8 variables x 7 points = 56, for CS as 7 variables x 7 points = 49, and for RB as 13 variables x 7 points = 91. These dimension-specific values were further aggregated to derive the total potential scores, with MA totalling 119 and RB totalling 140. This flexible approach allows researchers to refine the matrix by adding or excluding variables based on the study's evolving requirements.

A proportionate method was employed to standardise the interpretation of results across dimensions with varying variable counts. The potentiality levels for each dimension were categorised as follows: scores $\leq 33.33\%$ represent low potential, scores between 33.34% and 66.66% indicate moderate potential, and scores $\geq 66.67\%$ denote high potential. This classification simplifies comparative analysis and provides a clear framework for assessing ICH resources' potential in terms of both supply and demand (Refer to Table 4. 3).

Additional statistical analyses were performed to ensure the robustness of the model. Data normality was assessed to confirm the distribution's appropriateness for further study. The reliability and validity of the dimensions were tested using several established metrics, including CA to assess internal consistency, CR to confirm construct reliability, AVE to evaluate convergent validity, and DV to ensure distinctiveness between constructs. These rigorous validation processes enhance the credibility of the findings and ensure that the model provides an accurate and reliable framework for analysing the potential of ICH resources.

Moreover, the study's methodology and flexible scaling framework offer a foundation for further research, enabling other researchers to adapt or refine the matrix to fit specific contexts, objectives, or datasets, thus expanding the model's applicability to broader cultural and tourism studies.

Table 4. 3 Modified Potential Demand/Supply Matrix

Potential Supply	**≥ 66.67%**	M (1,1)	M (1,2)	M (1,3)
	33.34% - 66.66%	M (2,1)	M (2,2)	M (2,3)
	≤ 33.33%	M (3,1)	M (3,2)	M (3,3)
		≤ 33.33%	**33.34% - 66.66%**	**≥ 66.67%**
		Potential Demand		

Source: *Author's compilation*

The Table 4. 3 shows the revised cells, which are defined as follows:

M (1,1) – high potential supply and low potential demand;

M (1,2) – high potential supply and moderate potential demand;

M (1,3) – high potential supply and high potential demand;

M (2,1) – moderate potential supply and low potential demand;

M (2,2) – moderate potential supply and moderate potential demand;

M (2,3) – moderate potential supply and high potential demand;

M (3,1) – low potential supply and low potential demand;

M (3,2) – low potential supply and moderate potential demand;

M (3, 3) – low potential supply and high potential demand.

The subjective nature of indicators means that some ratings must be applied arbitrarily based on the evaluator's emotions rather than objective criteria. For example, 'atmosphere' and 'social value' are difficult to quantify. Additionally, test results show that assets tend to cluster at or near the centre of the matrix. This is because the two dimensions that combine

to form each axis can be mutually exclusive. Due to this reason, the researcher first tested the reliability and validity of the constructs.

Based on the results, a few variables with lower factor loadings were removed, and then the result was found based on an aggregate score that approached the average. Finally, the model weights all metrics equally or nearly equally. Based on the conducted valuation, the ***"modified potential demand/supply matrix"*** is set up, and later, depending on its score within the scoring process, one of the matrix cells is allotted. Tourism evaluation identifies market attractiveness and the need for product design in ICH areas as key sub-indicators of potential demand. In contrast, cultural significance and the robustness of ICH areas are emphasised as key sub-indicators of potential supply in Goa. This comprehensive approach ensures a thorough understanding of all aspects of cultural products, thereby generating a complete picture of a destination's tourism potential.

This study aims to bridge the gap between previous and current literature by introducing a new framework that evaluates cultural tourism potentialities from both the supply and demand perspectives. The study advances a comprehensive framework to assess cultural tourism's potential demand and supply through ICH. By systematically evaluating the components of ICH using the Du Cros Model, the study provides a nuanced understanding of how intangible cultural assets can be leveraged to attract tourists.

4.4 Results and Interpretation

4.4.1 Data Distribution and Normality

Table 4. 4 Shows the Multicollinearity Test Result and Summary Statistics of the Variables

Constructs	Variable Codes	VIF	Mean	SD	Kurtosis	Skewness
Market Attractiveness (MA)	MA2	1.939	2.965	1.263	-0.738	0.160
	MA3	2.351	2.940	1.297	-0.617	0.295
	MA4	2.358	3.087	1.316	-0.698	0.228
	MA5	2.346	3.141	1.285	-0.710	0.117
	MA6	1.769	3.135	1.249	-0.737	0.038
Product Design (PRD)	PRD5	1.855	3.176	1.224	-0.441	0.293
	PRD6	2.216	3.183	1.272	-0.656	0.073
	PRD7	2.414	3.365	1.222	-0.444	-0.061
	PRD8	2.353	3.390	1.206	-0.464	-0.058
Cultural Significance (CS)	CS1	1.787	2.017	0.677	-0.813	-0.021
	CS2	1.743	2.137	0.731	-1.108	-0.219
	CS4	1.516	2.056	0.744	-1.190	-0.090

Constructs	Variable Codes	VIF	Mean	SD	Kurtosis	Skewness
Robusticity (RB)	RB3	1.998	3.328	1.406	-0.744	0.142
	RB4	2.256	3.270	1.210	-0.422	0.111
	RB5	1.844	3.400	1.216	-0.383	-0.136
	RB11	2.316	3.452	1.206	-0.400	-0.114
	RB12	2.370	3.546	1.222	-0.510	-0.054

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: VIF- *Variance Inflation Factor;* ***SD-*** *Standard Deviation*

Table 4. 4 shows cultural tourism potentiality constructs multicollinearity test and summary statistics. The study found that the VIF value ranges between 1.516 (CS4) and 2.414 (PRD7), indicating no multicollinearity. Further, the mean value ranges from 2.017 (CS1) to 3.546 (RP12), and the SD ranges from 0.677 (CS1) to 1.406 (RB3). Similarly, kurtosis lies between -1.190 (CS4) and -0.383 (RB5), whereas skewness ranges between -0.219 (CS2) and 0.295 (MA3). This shows that the values are within the threshold limit of -2 to +2 (Curran et al., 1996; George & Mallery, 2010; Henly, 1993). Hence, the results proved to be acceptable to carry out the further analysis.

4.4.2 Testing of Biasness in the Data

Table 4. 5 Shows the Result of Common Method Bias using the Harman Single Factor Method

Constructs	Variable Codes	Initial Eigen Values		
		Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Market Attractiveness (MA)	MA2	4.439	26.113	26.113
	MA3	3.877	22.803	48.916
	MA4	1.496	8.799	57.715
	MA5	1.172	6.896	64.611
	MA6	0.906	5.329	69.940
Product Design (PRD)	PRD5	0.799	4.697	74.637
	PRD6	0.608	3.579	78.216
	PRD7	0.593	3.491	81.706
	PRD8	0.524	3.083	84.790
Cultural Significance (CS)	CS1	0.467	2.748	87.537
	CS2	0.404	2.376	89.913
	CS4	0.359	2.114	92.027
Robusticity (RB)	RB3	0.315	1.853	93.880
	RB4	0.283	1.665	95.545
	RB5	0.270	1.587	97.131
	RB11	0.251	1.479	98.611
	RB12	0.236	1.389	100

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Table 4. 5 shows the total extraction method used to identify common method biases. The results indicate that the cumulative sum of squared loadings is below 50%, at 26.113%, demonstrating that the selected factors are free from biases.

4.4.3 Reliability and Validity of Measurement Model

The model's reliability and convergent validity tests in below Table 4. 6 show that all the CA presented surpassed the recommendation of 0.70 (Cronbach, 1951), as the values of CA range from 0.755 (CS) to 0.872 (PD). The CR denotes the mutual variance of a group of observed variables by assessing a specific construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 4. 6 Shows the Reliability and Convergent Validity of Cultural Tourism Potentialities Dimensions

Constructs and Variables	SL
Potential Demand (PDE) [CA=0.872; CR= 0.873; AVE= 0.494]	
Market Attractiveness (MA) [CA= 0.845; CR= 0.846; AVE= 0.619]	
MA2 <- Goa's ICH is known	0.779
MA3 <- Goa's ICH has a national or important icon or symbol	0.806
MA4 <- Goa's ICH tells a "good" or "interesting story."	0.824
MA5 <- Goa's ICH has an aspect to distinguishes it clearly from other attractions	0.814
MA6 <- Goa's ICH has appealed to special needs or uses that would also attract tourists (e.g., festivals)	0.706
Product Design (PRD) [CA= 0.853; CR= 0.855; AVE= 0.694]	
PRD5 <- Goa's ICH attraction has the potential to offer a unique experience	0.784
PRD6 <- Goa's ICH attraction is providing a participatory, engaging, and entertaining experience	0.845
PRD7 <- Goa's ICH attraction is meeting different tourists' expectations	0.858
PRD8 <- Goa's ICH is providing good quality interpretation (personal interpretation/guided tour, audio guide, signage of exhibits)	0.844
Potential Supply (PSU) [CA= 0.848; CR= 0.848; AVE= 0.485]	
Cultural Significance (CS) [CA= 0.755; CR= 0.755; AVE= 0.671]	
CS1 <- Goa's ICH has aesthetic value	0.843
CS2 <- Goa's ICH has historical value	0.831
CS4 <- Goa's ICH has social value	0.783
Robusticity (RB) [CA= 0.831; CR= 0.831; AVE= 0.597]	
RB3 <- Goa's ICH has a management plan and policy	0.783
RB4 <- Goa's ICH has monitoring and maintenance	0.793
RB5 <- Goa's ICH has the potential for ongoing involvement and consultation of key stakeholders	0.752
RB11<- Goa's ICH has the possibility of modifications (as part of product development) to have negative impacts on the fabric of the asset)	0.755
RB12<- Goa's ICH has the possibility of modifications (as part of product development) to have negative impacts on the lifestyle and cultural traditions of the local community)	0.780

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: SL- *Standardised Loadings;* ***CA-*** *Cronbach Alpha;* ***CR-*** *Composite Reliability;* ***AVE-*** *Average Variance Extracted*

The CR for the constructs ranges between 0.831 (RB) and 0.873 (PDE), which is above the recommended threshold of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2012, 2013); thus, the measurement model has satisfactory internal consistency reliability. Moreover, the AVE was estimated for every construct. The AVEs should be higher than 0.50. However, if the AVE value is below the threshold limit, but the CA and CR are acceptable, the AVE value can also be accepted (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The Table 4. 6 shows that all the constructs have substantial AVE scores within the thumb rule of ≥ 0.50 (Hair, et al., 2013).

In addition, for the second-order constructs, the AVE score should also be ≥ 0.50 (Hair et al., 2013). The result shows that the AVE scores of the second-order constructs PDE and PSU are 0.494 and 0.485, respectively. These values are near the acceptable threshold limit of ≥ 0.50. Therefore, the second-order constructs are used in the study.

The findings revealed that all variables were meaningfully linked to their hypothesised variables, and the size of every SL was above the 0.70 threshold, which is evidence of convergent validity (Anderson et al., 1988), ranging from 0.706 (MA6) to 0.858 (PRD7). However, 20 variables were discarded as their values were below the 0.70 threshold limit, resulting in the selection of only 17 variables for the final study.

Table 4. 7 Shows the Discriminant Validity- Fornell-Larcker Criterion

Constructs	PDE		Constructs	PSU	
	MA	**PRD**		**CS**	**RB**
MA	0.787		**CS**	0.819	
PRD	0.514	0.833	**RB**	0.528	0.773

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: PDE- *Potential Demand;* ***PSU-*** *Potential Supply;* ***MA-*** *Market Attractiveness;* ***PRD-*** *Product Design;* ***CS-*** *Cultural Significance;* ***RB-*** *Robusticity*

Table 4. 7 evaluates discriminant validity using the Fornell and Larcker F., (1981) for the constructs under PDE (MA; PRD) and PSU (CS; RB). For PDE, the square root of the AVE for MA (0.787) is more significant than its correlation with PRD (0.514), and the square root of the AVE for PRD (0.833) exceeds its correlation with MA, confirming adequate discriminant validity between these constructs.

Similarly, for PSU, the square root of the AVE for CS (0.819) is higher than its correlation with RB (0.528), and the square root of the AVE for RB (0.773) exceeds its correlation with CS, establishing strong discriminant validity. These results indicate that each construct is

distinct and captures unique aspects of the data, supporting the robustness of the measurement model.

Table 4. 8 Shows the Discriminant Validity- Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (HTMT) – Matrix

Constructs	PDE		Constructs	PSU	
	MA	PRD		CS	RB
MA			**CS**		
PRD	0.604		**RB**	0.666	

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: PDE- *Potential Demand;* ***PSU-*** *Potential Supply;* ***MA-*** *Market Attractiveness;* ***PRD-*** *Product Design;* ***CS-*** *Cultural Significance;* ***RB-*** *Robusticity*

Table 4. 8 evaluates that, for PDE, the correlation between MA and PRD is 0.604, below the commonly accepted threshold of 0.85, as Henseler et al. (2015) proposed, indicating that the constructs are distinct. The PSU correlation between CS and RB is 0.666, also below the threshold, further supporting discriminant validity. These results confirm that the constructs are conceptually distinct and adequately separate, reinforcing the validity of the measurement model for further structural analysis.

Table 4. 9 Shows Cross Loadings

Potential Demand		
Codes and Constructs	**MA**	**PRD**
MA2	0.779	0.448
MA3	0.806	0.371
MA4	0.824	0.360
MA5	0.814	0.410
MA6	0.706	0.430
PRD5	0.378	0.784
PRD6	0.432	0.845
PRD7	0.428	0.858
PRD8	0.470	0.844
Potential Supply		
Codes and Constructs	**CS**	**RB**
CS1	0.843	0.427
CS2	0.831	0.410
CS4	0.783	0.461
RB11	0.440	0.755
RB12	0.432	0.780
RB3	0.393	0.783
RB4	0.377	0.793
RB5	0.397	0.752

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: PDE- *Potential Demand;* ***PSU-*** *Potential Supply;* ***MA-*** *Market Attractiveness;* ***PRD-*** *Product Design;* ***CS-*** *Cultural Significance;* ***RB-*** *Robusticity*

Table 4. 9 presents the cross-loadings for the constructs under PDE (MA; PRD) and PSU (CS; RB), providing evidence of the constructs' reliability and validity. The variables for each construct demonstrate strong loadings on their respective constructs, with values exceeding the threshold of 0.70, confirming convergent validity. Specifically, in the PDE dimension, the loadings of MA range from 0.706 to 0.824, while for PRD, they range from 0.784 to 0.858. In the PSU dimension, the CS loadings range from 0.783 to 0.843, and the RB loadings range from 0.752 to 0.793. Moreover, cross-loadings for all variables remain significantly lower than the loadings on their intended constructs, ensuring discriminant validity, which indicates that each construct is distinct and captures unique aspects of the data.

4.4.4 Tourists Valorisation

Table 4. 10 below presents a detailed assessment of the cultural tourism potential of ICH in Goa using the modified Du Cros matrix. As some variables are discarded due to the low factor loading, the matrix value has also been revised. The final matrix values are calculated as follows: MA has 5 variables at 7-point, totalling 35; the PRD has 4 variables at 7-point, totalling 28; CS has 3 variables at 7-point, totalling 21; and the RB has 5 variables at 7-point, totalling 35. Altogether, the final matrix values for MA are 63, and for RB are 56. Potential demand result shows two main aspects: ***market attractiveness and product design.*** The market attractiveness of Goa's ICH is rated at an average value of 2 to 3 in the evaluation process. The ICH in Goa is well known, having a national and important icon symbol, and tourists see that. It also has a distinguishing aspect compared to other forms of cultural heritage and special needs that would attract large numbers of tourists. These characteristics are essential, and they help a lot in tourism promotion.

Regarding cultural product design, the ICH of Goa has the potential to develop new or existing products and offer a unique experience. The product design is rated on an average of 3 to 4 values. Tourists feel that such an ICH in Goa provides a participatory, engaging, and entertaining cultural experience. It also meets the expectations of providing good-quality products, interpretations, signage, and audio guides. From a tourist's perspective, there is significant potential demand for cultural tourism. The result of the potential supply is also shown in ***cultural significance and robusticity***. The residents have given lower ratings towards cultural significance regarding aesthetic, historical, and social values, with an average score of 2. The cultural importance of Goa tourism, especially intangible

heritage, gets the lowest marks because it is a historical, educational, and aesthetic place and is rare in the region.

Table 4. 10 Analysis of the Touristic Valorisation based on the Modified Du Cros Model

Touristic Valorisation		Matrix Score	Total Value	Percent (%)
Potential Demand (PDE)		**63**	**(n= 28.382)**	**45.047**
Market Attractiveness (MA)		**35**	**15.268**	**43.622**
MA2 <- Goa's ICH is known		1-7	2.965	8.471
MA3 <- Goa's ICH has a national or important icon or symbol		1-7	2.940	8.400
MA4 <- Goa's ICH tells a "good" or "interesting story"		1-7	3.087	8.820
MA5 <- Goa's ICH has an aspect to distinguishes it clearly from other attractions		1-7	3.141	8.974
MA6 <- Goa's ICH has appealed to special needs or uses that would also attract tourists (e.g., festivals)		1-7	3.135	8.957
Product Design (PRD)		**28**	**13.114**	**46.835**
PRD5 <- Goa's ICH attraction has the potential to offer a unique experience		1-7	3.176	11.343
PRD6 <- Goa's ICH attraction is providing a participatory, engaging, and entertaining experience		1-7	3.183	11.368
PRD7 <- Goa's ICH attraction is meeting different tourists' expectations		1-7	3.365	12.017
PRD8 <- Goa's ICH is providing good quality interpretation (personal interpretation/guided tour, audio guide, signage of exhibits)		1-7	3.390	12.107
Potential Supply (PSU)		**56**	**(n= 23.206)**	**41.439**
Cultural Significance (CS)		**21**	**6.210**	**29.571**
CS1 <- Goa's ICH has aesthetic value		1-7	2.017	9.605
CS2 <- Goa's ICH has historical value		1-7	2.137	10.176
CS4 <- Goa's ICH has social value		1-7	2.056	9.790
Robusticity (RB)		**35**	**16.996**	**48.560**
RB3 <- Goa's ICH has a management plan and policy		1-7	3.328	9.509
RB4 <- Goa's ICH has monitoring and maintenance		1-7	3.270	9.343
RB5 <- Goa's ICH has the potential for ongoing involvement and consultation of key stakeholders		1-7	3.400	9.714
RB11 <- Goa's ICH has the possibility of modifications (as part of product development) to have negative impacts on the fabric of the asset.		1-7	3.452	9.863
RB12 <- Goa's ICH has the possibility of modifications (as part of product development) to have negative impacts on the lifestyle and cultural traditions of the local community)		1-7	3.546	10.131
Robustness	**≥ 66.67%**	M (1,1)	M (1,2)	M (1,3)
	33.34% - 66.66%	M (2,1)	**M (2,2)**	M (2,3)
	≤ 33.33%	M (3,1)	M (3,2)	M (3,3)
		≤ 33.33%	**33.34% - 66.66%**	**≥ 66.67%**
		Market Attractiveness		

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

On the other hand, robustness has been rated on an average of 3 to 4 values in terms of good management plans and policies, good monitoring and maintenance, and the involvement of key stakeholders. However, the big problem for future touristic development of Goa's intangible heritage is the possibility of a negative impact on the local community in terms of the fabric of the assets, lifestyle, and cultural traditions of the local community because of the fast increase in the number of tourists and possibilities of modifications, commodification, and transformation.

Thus, it can be seen that ***Potential Demand*** = 15.268 + 13.114 = 28.382 (45.047%) and ***Potential Supply*** = 6.210 + 16.996 = 23.206 (41.439%), which means that Goa's ICH belongs to cell M (2, 2) which includes the moderate potential demand and moderate potential supply (Refer to Table 4. 10).

Chapter 5

Factors Influencing Tourists' Behavioural Intentions to Revisit ICH Resources

5.1 Introduction

Chapter 5 delves into the intricate dynamics of tourists' revisit behavioural intentions, specifically focusing on ICH resources. It aims to analyse the factors that influence tourists to return to a cultural destination they have previously visited. Therefore, this chapter reviews the various dimensions, such as tourists' attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, tourist satisfaction, motivation, destination image, and memorable experiences, studied under the extended model of TPB.

The chapter also checks how behavioural intentions of revisiting influence the tourists' actual behaviour. Moreover, this chapter contributes to understanding the mediating role of tourists' satisfaction. Ultimately, this analysis bridges the gap between behavioural intentions and actual revisiting behaviour, offering valuable insights for cultural destination management and sustainable tourism development.

5.2 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework discussed in the literature remains popular and has been applied to various social behaviours (Ajzen, 1991; Armitage & Conner, 2001), with solid predictive value, particularly for those not entirely under personal control. The evolution of travellers' behaviour remains a central research focus in tourism studies. Effective tourism marketing and planning require a deep understanding of the factors influencing travel behaviours. Consequently, the literature is rich with studies exploring tourist behaviour. In this regard, behavioural theories have been applied to examine how various factors influence their behavioural intentions when selecting a travel destination (Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006).

The Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), developed by Ajzen and Fishbein (1970), is a frequently studied model for understanding consumer behaviour formation. TRA explains rational or volitional human behaviour by positing that an individual's behaviour can be

directly predicted by their behavioural intentions. By identifying behavioural precursors, such as attitudes and subjective norms, researchers have sought to influence, modify, and predict target consumer behaviours across various social contexts (Sheppard et al., 1988; Trafimow, 2009). However, these efforts have often produced differing perspectives on the consumer behaviour formation process.

TRA itself has undergone numerous revisions and alternative conceptualisations. A Sheppard et al. (1988) meta-analysis revealed that less than 20% of the 87 reviewed studies adhered strictly to Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) original model. In response, Ajzen (1991) and Ajzen and Driver (1992) introduced the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) as an extension of TRA, addressing behaviours not entirely under volitional control. TPB incorporates social and psychological factors, such as subjective norms and attitudes, into consumer decision-making.

The TPB model has since been applied to predict behaviours related to hotel selection (Buttle & Bok, 1996) and destination choice (Lam & Hsu, 2006). These studies primarily focused on the relationship between travellers' attitudes and behavioural intentions, which predict an individual's attempt to engage in a specific behaviour but not necessarily the actual execution. Despite this, limited research can be seen in exploring how travellers influence behavioural intentions to revisit their destinations and how these, in turn, determine their actual behaviour when selecting a travel destination (Hsu & Huang, 2010).

5.2.1 Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)

5.2.1.1 Introduction to TPB

The TPB, first proposed in the mid-1980s by Dr. Icek Ajzen, is a theoretical perspective widely used to represent the frameworks for predicting behavioural intentions (Fielding et al., 2008). According to this theory, ***intention*** elucidates the people willing to conduct a specific ***behaviour*** (Ajzen, 1991). Thus, ***behavioural intention*** is defined as an individual's expectancies about a particular behaviour in a given setting and can be operationalised as the likelihood to act (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The basic premise of TPB is that individuals' behaviour is governed by their intentions, which are influenced by their attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. Dr Ajzen's insights on behavioural intention have been used to understand individual participation in leisure time.

The TPB posits that people are likely to perform a particular type of behaviour if they believe that such behaviour will lead to a particular and valuable outcome, that their important referents will value and approve of the behaviour, and that they have the necessary abilities, resources, and opportunities to carry out such behaviour (Ajzen, 1985). Unlike the TRA, TPB incorporates attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, and behavioural intention to explain and predict behaviour (Ajzen, 1991).

The first predictor of intention in TPB is ***attitude,*** which relates to the level of individuals with unfavourable or favourable evaluations of their behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). In tourism, attitude is a person's predisposition, created through learning and experience, evaluated positively or negatively, to react to specifically defined goals, such as a product or a tourist destination, and to behave consistently. In tourism, an attitude is the predisposition or feelings towards a destination or service based on several perceived attributes of the tourism product (Moutinho, 1987). Attitude denotes a positive or negative tendency toward specific behaviour, such as visiting a holiday destination (Lam & Hsu, 2006).

The second predictor of intention is ***subjective norms,*** which refers to the perceived social pressures to perform or not a particular behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Subjective norms refer to the person's perception of social relations or the relevant beliefs of others that they should or should not engage in such behaviour. Because people always turn to specific groups to determine their standards of judgment, any person who serves as a reference group could have a crucial impact on an individual's beliefs, attitudes, and decisions (Moutinho, 1987).

The third predictor of intentions is ***perceived behavioural control,*** which measures the person's perceptions of how easy or difficult it is to perform the behaviour based on their perceived ability and access to necessary resources. Various resources or opportunities could determine the likelihood of behavioural performance (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Driver, 1992), such as the available resources (Liska, 1984). The inclusion of perceived behaviour control provides information about potential constraints on the action as perceived by the intention to perform and indirectly by the perceived behavioural control when the behaviour is not under complete volitional control. This factor reflects beliefs regarding the resources and opportunities needed to perform a behaviour. It comprises two key components: the first pertains to the availability of necessary resources, such as time, money, and other essentials, while the second focuses on an individual's confidence in their ability to execute the behaviour effectively (Ajzen, 1991).

According to TPB, perceived behavioural control coupled with behavioural intention can predict behavioural performance or actual behaviour. The last component's assumption adds that a person's perceived control equals actual control and is better at predicting future behaviour from behavioural intentions than the first two components alone (Ajzen, 1991). Furthermore, Ajzen (1991) argues that perceived behavioural control, directly and indirectly, affects subsequent behaviour through behavioural intention. Thus, Ajzen asserts that the impact of each factor on intentions can differ based on the specific behaviour and context. Although the TRA, a former model proposed by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), could adequately predict behavioural intentions under volitional control in circumstances with constraints for the action, the mere formation of an intention is insufficient to predict the behaviour (Refer to Figure 5. 1).

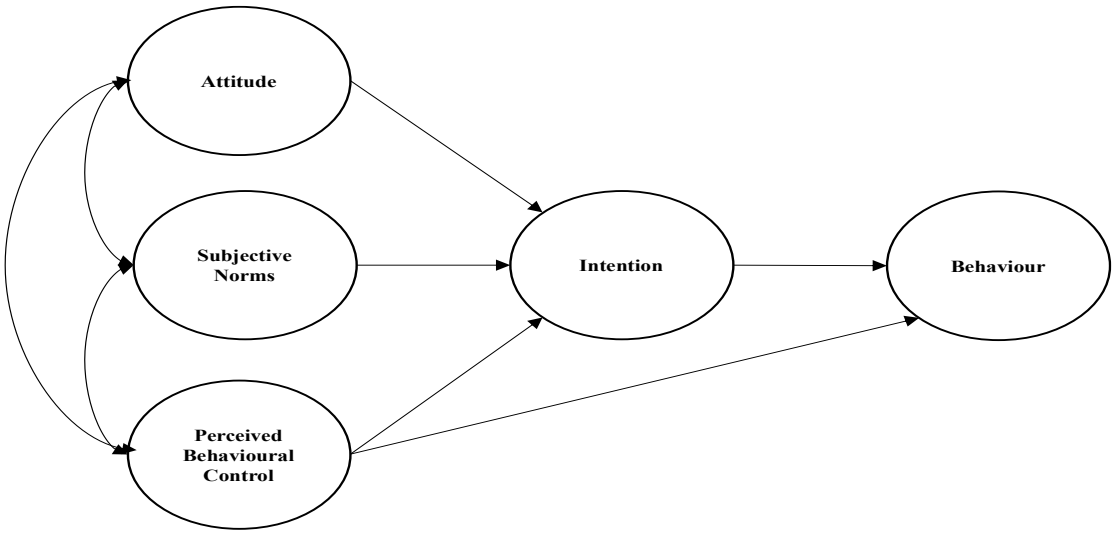


Figure 5. 1 Original Model of TPB given by Icek Ajzen (1985)

Prior research on destination choice intentions has been largely grounded in the TPB model (Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006; Sparks & Pan, 2009), proclaiming that behavioural intention is a consequence of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 1991). TPB has been applied to examine various social behaviours (Abbasi et al., 2020; Bianchi et al., 2017; Hsieh et al., 2016; Shen & Shen, 2020; Shen et al., 2009) with strong predictive utility. Although the model's efficacy has been validated in predicting a wide range of intentions and behaviours, its sufficiency in predicting tourist behaviours is still being questioned.

In addition to the core constructs of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control, some scholars have proposed incorporating additional factors to enhance the predictive power of the TPB. These include, such as tourists' motivation (AL Ziadat, 2015; Baloglu, 2000; Hsu & Huang, 2010), destination image (Reza Jalilvand et al., 2012; Sharma & Nayak, 2018; Yang et al., 2009), satisfaction (Amoah et al., 2019; An et al., 2019; Bayih & Singh, 2020; Berhanu & Raj, 2020; Ghorbanzade et al., 2019; Kempiak et al., 2017; Nguyen Viet et al., 2020; Preko et al., 2019; Simpson et al., 2020); and memorable experience (Ali et al., 2015; Hung et al., 2014); might also contribute to strengthening TPB's explanatory power.

However, a significant critique of TPB is its limited focus on motivation. Bagozzi and Nataraajan (2000) argued that while attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control explain the reasons for action, they lack the motivation to energise the behaviour. In tourism, previous studies have highlighted the pivotal role of attitude in predicting, describing, and influencing tourists' behavioural intentions (Bianchi et al., 2017; Han & Kim, 2010). Subjective norms and perceived behavioural control also positively influence actual visit behaviour (Chen & Tung, 2014; Han & Kim, 2010). Research by Han and Kim (2010) and Lam and Hsu (2004, 2006) found that increases in favourable attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control enhance the likelihood of destination revisits.

5.2.1.2 Application of TPB Model

The TPB existed almost 40 years ago, and it has been proven that the theory helps predict people's behaviour. The TPB is a theory for predicting the formulation and execution of plans and actions. The fundamental propositions of TPB are that people are likely to perform a particular type of behaviour if they believe that such behaviour will lead to a specific and valuable outcome, that their essential referents will value and approve of the behaviour, and that they have the necessary abilities, resources, and opportunities to carry out such behaviour.

The TPB model's efficacy has been validated in predicting various intentions and behaviours (Ajzen, 1991). Several studies have explained TPB, considering the factors influencing tourists' behavioural intentions to revisit. These factors have been presented in Table 5. 1.

Table 5. 1 Factors Influencing Tourists' Behavioural Intentions to Revisit: A Review of Previous Research

Factors	Authors'
Tourists Attitude	Abbasi et al. (2020); Ajzen (1991); Ajzen and Fishbein (1970); Chen and Tung (2014); Han et al. (2010), (2011); Han and Kim (2010); Hsieh et al. (2016); Jackowitz et al., (2016); Lam and Hsu, (2004), (2006); Moutinho, (2007); Shen and Shen, (2020); Shen et al., (2009)
Subjective Norms	
Perceived Behavioural Control	
Destination Image	Abbasi et al. (2020); Han and Kim (2010); Lee (2009); Reza Jalilvand et al. (2012); Soliman (2019); and Yang et al. (2009)
Tourists Motivation	Hsu and Huang (2010); Huang and Hsu (2009); Lee (2009); and Soliman, (2019)
Memorable Experience	Amoah et al. (2019); Han et al. (2010); Hsieh et al. (2016); Lam and Hsu (2006); Shen et al. (2009); Yu-Ju et al. (2010); and Zhang et al. (2018)
Visitor Satisfaction	Abbasi et al. (2020); Amoah et al. (2019); Han and Kim (2010); and Preko et al. (2019)
e-Word of Mouth	Soliman (2019)
Destination Familiarity	Bianchi et al. (2017); and Soliman (2019)
Self-Concept	Bianchi et al. (2017)
Place Attachment	Shen and Shen (2020)
Perceived Risk	Abbasi et al., (2020); Hsieh et al., (2016); and Quintal et al., (2010)
Perceived Uncertainty	Quintal et al., (2010)
Environmental Concern	Chen and Tung, (2014)
Perceived Service Quality	Abbasi et al., (2020); Han and Kim, (2010); and Hasan et al., (2020)
Perceived Value	Abbasi et al., (2020); and Hasan et al., (2020)
Perceived Moral Obligation	Chen and Tung, (2014)
Expectation of Tourists	Han et al. (2011)

Source: *Author's compilation based on previous research studies*

These studies are sufficient to assess the potential of tourists to revisit, as this is considered a relatively accurate predictor of future behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

5.3 Extended TPB Model

The TPB is an expanded version of the TRA and encompasses volitional and non-volitional control in explaining an individual's behaviour (Ajzen, 1985; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1970). Ajzen (1991) stated that the TPB is, in principle, open to modification by changing the paths in the TPB and thus can include additional predictors if it can be demonstrated that they capture a more significant proportion of the variance in intention and behaviour after the original constructs of TPB are accounted for. This modification process is known as theory broadening and deepening (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001).

The TPB has been revised in different contexts based on the assumptions that the theoretical mechanisms of the TPB are better understood by altering the path to be more appropriate in a particular context and by including the significant antecedents for a possible increase in the ability to predict an intention and behaviour. The behavioural intention in cultural tourism studies is the likelihood of tourists visiting or revisiting a destination and recommending others to participate in cultural tourism activities. It refers to an individual's judgment of their engagement in a certain behaviour and reflects their willingness to invest effort in demonstrating it (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

In tourism, behavioural intention refers to desirable behaviour that tourists are expected to exhibit (Lee et al., 2007). The tourist's intention to visit is formed through a rational decision and choice process (Gemar et al., 2019). It is presumed that specific intentions accurately predict concrete behaviours. They evaluate their experience and determine their satisfaction levels after receiving a service. This evaluation outcome indirectly influences their subsequent behaviour. According to the TRA, behavioural intention is the optimal tool for predicting behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Thus, it is a key variable for research on tourists' psychological behaviour. To maintain long-term customer relationships, managers of cultural tourism destinations must consider how to generate positive behavioural intentions after the tourism experience.

Satisfaction is the degree to which the perception or performance of the tourist destination, service, or product experienced by tourists' is greater than or meets their expectations. It is recognised as one of the most critical competitive advantages for the destination since the fundamental goal of tourism stakeholders is to evaluate both the adequacy and effectiveness of tourism products in terms of facilities and services that create an unforgettable destination experience for tourists (Pizam et al., 1978).

Previous studies on tourist satisfaction have employed widely recognised models to identify key factors that significantly influence satisfaction levels (Chandra Bagri & Kala, 2015; Phu et al., 2020; Shafiq et al., 2019; Sukiman et al., 2013). It is found that factors such as atmosphere and climate of a spiritual and cultural nature, the variety of tourism activities, and hospitality and safety (Chandra Bagri & Kala, 2015), tangibility, reliability, empathy, assurance, and responsiveness are the most satisfying for tourists' (Phu et al., 2020; Shafiq et al., 2019).

Other factors, such as poor condition and repainting, have caused fluctuations in tourist satisfaction and have a negative impact (Chami, 2018). Several research scholars, policymakers, and cultural organisations have studied tourists' satisfaction, behavioural intentions (visit or revisit intention and recommendation behaviour), and actual behaviour from different perspectives and have extended the TPB model by adding various other constructs, thus, better predicting future behaviour.

Below is a detailed explanation of factors influencing the tourists' satisfaction, behavioural intentions to revisit, and actual behaviour towards ICH resources.

5.3.1 The Influence of Tourists' Attitudes on Their Satisfaction and Behavioural Intentions to Revisit

The TPB is frequently applied to understand tourist behaviour and satisfaction, particularly in cultural tourism. Research emphasises the interconnected roles of TPB's core elements, such as attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control, in shaping tourist satisfaction with ICH resources. Positive attitudes toward a destination's culture significantly enhance tourist satisfaction, especially when experiences are perceived as authentic and enriching (Moral-Cuadra et al., 2019).

Attitude has been identified as the strongest predictor of satisfaction (Lee, 2009). Positive attitudes towards cultural authenticity, supportive social influences, and high perceived control enrich the cultural tourism experience. This factor shapes tourists' perceptions and satisfaction, influencing future behaviours such as revisiting and recommending the destination. Soliman (2019) recorded the visitors' intentions to revisit Egypt as the most significant direct and positive influence on intention to visit Egypt by attitude, compared to subjective norms and perceived behaviour control. Research on medical tourism found that attitude is the most critical predictor of medical service utilisation (Boguszewicz-Kreft et al., 2020). Jackowitz et al. (2016) aimed to understand the behavioural intention among coastal tourists and found that visitors have a positive environmental attitude toward carrying out the intention. Similarly, attitudes toward behaviours were also significant in heritage tourism research, which labelled behavioural prediction beliefs (Yamada & Fu, 2012).

Likewise, many other studies, such as Armitage and Conner (2001), Bianchi et al. (2017), Han et al. (2010, 2011), Hasan et al. (2019), Hsieh et al. (2016); Lam and Hsu (2004); Li et al., (2016); Reza Jalilvand et al., (2012); and Shen et al., (2009) mentioned that tourist

attitudes have a significant direct impact and are one of the best predictors of revisit and behavioural intentions. However, Lam and Hsu (2006) imply that attitudes did not significantly influence behavioural intention among potential Taiwanese travellers' when choosing Hong Kong as a travel destination. Based on the assumption, the following hypotheses are framed:

H_1: *Tourists' attitude significantly influences their satisfaction towards ICH resources.*

H_2: *Tourists' attitude significantly influences their behavioural intention to revisit ICH resources.*

5.3.2 The Influence of Tourists' Subjective Norms on Their Satisfaction and Behavioural Intentions to Revisit

Subjective norms are a core component of Ajzen's TPB (Ajzen, 1991), representing the perceived social pressure to perform or not perform a specific behaviour. When tourists feel socially supported when visiting a cultural destination, their satisfaction increases. For instance, shared cultural experiences during group travel can further elevate satisfaction (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Ajzen (1991) points out that the relative importance of these three predictors of intention varies by behaviour or situation. Some research studies also found that although attitude plays a vital role in behavioural intentions, the effect only as such, may be considered marginal (Hsu & Huang, 2010) and thus favour subjective norms as the highest predictors of behavioural intention.

Quintal et al. (2010) found that the attitudes-intentions relationship and the attitudes-behaviour relationship were compared to subjective norms and found a significant positive predictor of intention to visit Australia. In addition, subjective norms also influence attitudes. Lam and Hsu (2006) also imply that subjective norms significantly influence behavioural intentions. Furthermore, the results of Hasan et al. (2020) suggest that travellers' subjective norms positively influence short- and long-haul travellers' intentions to visit Chile as a vacation destination. In contrast, in understanding Penang Hill's revisit intention, Abbasi et al. (2020) found that attitude and subjective norms are unrelated to the tourist's revisit intention. This implies that not all tourists' have a positive attitude and social pressure to revisit Penang Hill. Shen et al. (2009) found that attitudes and subjective norms are not valid predictors of visitor intent to visit a World Heritage site in China. Yamada and Fu (2012)

used the TPB model and identified that the importance of normative beliefs associated with subjective norms was insignificant.

Although extensive research has been conducted on the influence of subjective norms on behavioural intentions (Han et al., 2010, 2011; Han & Kim, 2010; Hsieh et al., 2016; Shen & Shen, 2020), there remains a noticeable gap in the literature regarding the direct relationship between subjective norms and tourists' satisfaction. Given the role of subjective norms in shaping social expectations and behaviours, it is crucial to examine their influence on satisfaction levels in tourism contexts. Addressing this gap could provide valuable insights into how social influences impact tourists' emotional and cognitive evaluations of their travel experiences. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed to explore this relationship:

H_3: *Tourists' subjective norms significantly influence their satisfaction towards ICH resources.*

H_4: *Tourists' subjective norms significantly influence their behavioural intention to revisit ICH resources.*

5.3.3 The Influence of Tourists' Perceived Behavioural Control on Their Satisfaction and Behavioural Intentions to Revisit

Perceived behavioural control is a central component of Ajzen's TPB, which evaluates the impact of perceived ease or difficulty in performing a behaviour on intentions and actual behaviours (Ajzen, 1991). Within tourism studies, perceived behavioural control is increasingly examined as a determinant of tourist behaviour and satisfaction, particularly in contexts where perceived control over experiences influences the overall enjoyment of a destination.

It reflects an individual's confidence in their ability to navigate and manage circumstances during travel successfully. Tourism includes control over factors such as transportation, financial resources, language barriers, and the ability to access desired activities. When tourists perceive high levels of control over their experiences, it can lead to positive emotions, reduced stress, and higher satisfaction. Yamada and Fu (2012) used the TPB model and identified the importance of control beliefs related to perceived behavioural control found to be significant. Perceived behavioural control is the strongest predictor of

intention to visit Chile for vacation for both short- and long-haul travellers' (Hasan et al., 2020). Many researchers have studied perceived behavioural control to explore its relations (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1970; Chen & Tung, 2014; Han et al., 2011; Han & Kim, 2010; Lam & Hsu, 2006).

In the case of cultural and heritage tourism, a literature review identifies minimal research using TPB. Yamada and Fu (2012) partially support this argument; these authors claim that more research needs to be reported examining the most prominent beliefs in the tourism or museum environment. Among the few previous contributions, such as Shen et al. (2009) have adopted the TPB to study visitors to world heritage sites. The study suggested past experiences and involvement in cultural tours. Their results confirmed that perceived control, cultural tour involvement, and past experiences were valid predictors of visitor intention. In contrast, subjective norms and attitudes were not.

Lam and Hsu (2004, 2006) conducted two empirical studies with Chinese and Taiwanese people to predict the intention. It was noted that perceived behavioural control was related to the behavioural intention of mainland Chinese and Taiwanese tourists. Similarly, Sparks and Pan (2009) found that perceived behavioural control correlates with the behavioural intention of mainland Chinese tourists when choosing Australia as a travel destination. Although much of the research has focused on the influence of perceived behavioural control on behavioural intentions (Ajzen, 1991), very few studies have empirically examined the relationship between perceived behavioural control and tourist satisfaction. This presents a significant gap in tourism research, considering that perceived behavioural control can be pivotal in shaping tourists' satisfaction.

Perceived behavioural control can manifest in various ways, such as tourists' perceptions of their ability to navigate a destination, access services, or manage unforeseen challenges during their trip. High levels of perceived control are typically associated with fewer barriers to enjoying a trip and greater confidence in managing travel logistics, which can, in turn, enhance satisfaction levels (Prayag & Ryan, 2012). Therefore, exploring the relationship between these two factors is both relevant and valuable. Based on the literature review and the identified research gap in understanding the influence of perceived behavioural control on tourist satisfaction, the following hypotheses are proposed to examine the relationship between perceived behavioural control and tourist satisfaction and behavioural intentions to revisit ICH resources.

H_5: *Tourists' perceived behavioural control significantly influences their satisfaction towards ICH resources.*

H_6: *Tourists perceived behavioural control significantly influences their behavioural intention to revisit ICH resources.*

5.3.4 The Influence of Tourists' Motivation on Their Satisfaction and Behavioural Intentions to Revisit

According to Devesa et al. (2010), Yoon and Uysal (2005), and Žabkar et al. (2010), tourist satisfaction is fundamental for successful destination marketing. The level of satisfaction a tourist experiences directly motivates their likelihood to share or promote the destination to potential visitors. Prior studies have established a link between tourists' satisfaction and their motivation to choose a destination. For instance, Preko et al. (2019) identified both pull and push factors based on the push and pull motivation theory. These factors encompass natural and ecological heritage, historical and cultural attractions, service quality, accessibility, value for money, relaxation, knowledge-seeking, novelty, and ego-enhancement, influencing travel satisfaction.

In alignment with these findings, Bayih and Singh (2020) also explored the push and pull motivation theory, identifying that pull factors, such as cultural heritages, events, festivals, and natural attractions, as well as push factors like knowledge-seeking and family togetherness, significantly and positively affect tourists' overall satisfaction. Additionally, Albaity and Melhem (2017) found a strong positive relationship between novelty-seeking and tourist' satisfaction. Further, Lee (2009) and Simpson et al. (2020) confirmed the significant impact of tourist motivation on satisfaction. Based on this body of empirical evidence, the proposition is formulated that tourists' motivation significantly influences their satisfaction with ICH resources.

In developing the TPB, Ajzen (1991) noted that intention captures the motivating factors influencing behaviour and indicates how much effort people expend to carry out the behaviour. This implies that motivation is related to behavioural intention. The study by Huang and Hsu (2009) also supports the study of Ajzen (1991). Huang and Hsu (2009) stated that the four underlying factors of travel motivation positively impact the intention to visit again: novelty, knowledge, relaxation, and shopping. The shopping factor was the most potent motivating factor affecting revisit intention. Özel and Kozak (2012) found differences

in travel behaviour to demographic characteristics of cultural tourists in Turkey's national cultural tourism market.

Bayih and Singh (2020), examining domestic tourism, found that both the pull and push factors of travel motivation significantly impact revisit intent and willingness to recommend the destination to others. Simpson et al. (2020) also showed that the tourist's motive directly influences the visitor's intention to revisit Sri Lanka or stay in an eco-lodge. Extending the TPB model, AL Ziadat (2015), Baloglu (2000), and Hsu and Huang (2010) said that the tourist's motivation directly influences behavioural intention to visit a travel destination. Therefore, the following hypotheses are formulated:

H_7: *Tourists' motivation significantly influences their satisfaction towards ICH resources.*
H_8: *Tourists' motivation significantly influences their behavioural intention to revisit ICH resources.*

5.3.5 The Influence of Tourists' Destination Image on Their Satisfaction and Behavioural Intentions to Revisit

Satisfaction is traditionally understood as a tourist's post-purchase evaluation of a destination (Oliver, 1980). Numerous studies support the connection between destination image and tourist satisfaction. For instance, Wang and Hsu (2010) investigated the relationship between destination image and tourist satisfaction visiting Zhang-Jia-Jie, a world heritage site in China. The result demonstrates that a more positive perception of the destination image leads to greater tourist satisfaction.

Similarly, in wellness tourism, Sharma and Nayak (2018) found a strong link between overall destination image and satisfaction. Furthermore, Hasan et al. (2019) also confirmed the positive impact of destination image on satisfaction, suggesting that destination marketers should aim to shape tourists' holistic image perceptions, especially regarding natural attractions at beach destinations. Additional research by Alcocer and Ruiz (2019), Lee (2009), Maleki and Gholamian (2020), Nguyen Viet et al. (2020), and Ramseook-Munhurrun et al. (2015) also reinforces the significant positive relationship between destination image and satisfaction.

However, Chen and Tsai (2007) and Nguyen and Cheung (2016) presented a nuanced view, arguing that while destination image may not directly influence satisfaction, it initiates a

pathway involving "destination image -> trip quality -> perceived value -> satisfaction -> behavioural intentions". This pathway underscores the role of destination image as a foundational element in shaping the trip quality and perceived value, ultimately influencing satisfaction and subsequent behavioural intentions.

It seemed evident to investigate the association between destination image and behavioural intention because it was discovered to be an excellent predictor of behavioural intention. In this regard, Tasci and Gartner (2007) have summarised the effect of destination image on varied customer behaviour, such as destination preferences, Word of Mouth (WOM), recommendation, and visit/revisit intention. Previous studies based on destination attributes have also discovered positive relationships with behavioural intention, such as Xu et al. (2018), which found that affective images better predict behavioural intentions than cognitive images. A study on island tourism investigated the causal relationships by proposing a revisiting behavioural intention model, which found that the destination image significantly influences tourists' novelty, hedonics, perceived values, and revisiting behavioural intentions (Cheng & Lu, 2013). While investigating the structural relationship between the factors, Reza Jalilvand et al. (2012), Sharma and Nayak (2018), and Yang et al. (2009) realised that destination image has a positive and significant relationship with travel intention.

Similarly, Nguyen Viet et al. (2020) investigated the direct relationship between destination factors such as attractiveness, accommodation service, and intent to return. In contrast, Chen and Tsai (2007) proposed that the destination has a direct and indirect relationship with behavioural intention. According to a study by Wang and Hsu (2010), the overall tourism destination image only indirectly impacts behavioural intentions. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H_9: *Tourists' destination image significantly influences their satisfaction towards ICH resources.*

H_{10}: *Tourists' destination image significantly influences their behavioural intention to revisit ICH resources.*

5.3.6 The Influence of Tourists' Memorable Experience on Their Satisfaction and Behavioural Intentions to Revisit

Customer experiences are pivotal in shaping memory, influencing satisfaction and intentions to revisit (Knutson et al., 2010). This connection between memorable experiences and

satisfaction has been documented across various tourism contexts. For example, Quadri-Felitti and Fiore (2012) found that memories formed during wine tourism significantly enhance tourists' satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Similarly, in the context of cruise holidays, Hosany and Witham (2010) observed that memorable experiences greatly impact tourists' overall satisfaction and their likelihood to recommend the experience to others.

Research on creative tourism by Ali et al. (2015) further supports these findings, revealing that tourists' unique and creative experiences strongly influence satisfaction levels. Other studies, such as those conducted by Chen and Chen (2010a) and Domínguez-Quintero et al. (2018), have confirmed a strong correlation between the quality of the experience and tourists' satisfaction. In alignment with this, the relationship is also pronounced in ICH tourism, which established that a high-quality cultural experience directly impacts tourist satisfaction. Experience quality represents the psychological outcome of a tourist's engagement in a tourism activity and is a precursor to satisfaction. Thus, satisfaction can be viewed as the tourist's fulfilment response following the tourism experience (Lu et al., 2022). Across these studies, evidence consistently suggests that the quality of the experience is a key driver of satisfaction among tourists, reinforcing the idea that enhancing experience quality can lead to higher satisfaction and positive behavioural outcomes.

Previous studies have also looked at the impact of MTEs on behavioural intentions, revisit intention, and loyalty, such as Gani et al. (2019), which looked at the experiential attributes of visitors to the National Mosque and Islamic Arts Museum and revealed that visitors' revisit intention is strongly linked to escapism, aesthetic, and entertainment experiences, except educational experiences (Mansour & Ariffin, 2016), which has a weak linkage. Tourists had a positive experience, which led to a clear intention to return and recommend the place to family and friends (Amoah et al., 2019; Berhanu & Raj, 2020). Thus, longer-term remembered experiences strongly impact revisit intentions (Barnes et al., 2016). Furthermore, Mansour and Ariffin (2016) have backed up the findings of cultural heritage tourism studies. MTE, such as learning about the host culture, traditions, customs, and indigenous people alongside the heritage site's authenticity (Teo et al., 2014).

The Heritage Visitor Experience (HVE) Model demonstrates that heritage experiences influence pre-visit motivation and decision-making (Kempiak et al., 2017). The key factors that shape the visitor's experience are followed by the post-visit aspect, which includes additional factors such as WOM referral that encourage tourists to return to the heritage site.

According to Kim et al. (2010), the behavioural intention to revisit the same destination, re-practice the same tourist activity, and generate word-of-mouth publicity is positively affected by memorable experiential components of involvement, hedonism, and local culture.

Hamid et al. (2020) found that emotional experiences, such as joy, love, positive surprise, and place dependence, influence visitors' intentions to revisit UNESCO World Heritage sites in developing countries. The creative tourism industry has a favourable relationship between innovative experiences, memorability, and revisiting intentions (Ali et al., 2015; Hung et al., 2014). Huang and Hsu (2009) mentioned that previous visits on intention could help revisit behaviour to resemble a rational and planned activity. While examining tourists' experiences at a heritage attraction in Lukang, Taiwan, Yu-Ju et al. (2010) discovered that recreation, religion, destination, direct, and sale promotion have significant relationships with the intention to revisit. Chandralal and Valenzuela (2013), MTEs, in terms of novelty-seeking travellers', do not aim to return to the same destination even though they have had a memorable experience. Still, they tend to recommend MTEs to others. To determine whether data from the current study aligns with these previous findings, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H_{11}: *Tourists' memorable experiences significantly influence their satisfaction towards ICH resources.*

H_{12}: *Tourists' memorable experience significantly influences their behavioural intention to revisit ICH resources.*

5.3.7 The Influence of Tourists' Satisfaction on Their Behavioural Intentions to Revisit

Satisfaction is considered the key indicator of behavioural intentions or the intention to revisit or to recommend. Therefore, establishing the relationships between tourist satisfaction and behavioural intention becomes essential for the destination's sustainability. A satisfied tourist would always exhibit the character of positive behavioural intention (Chen & Chen, 2010a), leading to loyalty and positive word of mouth and vice versa. The influence of various factors on tourists' behavioural intentions has been extensively studied, providing a comprehensive understanding of what drives repeat visits and recommendations. For instance, Adam et al. (2015) emphasised that tourists' satisfaction with service quality and

destination attributes significantly impacts their revisitation intentions, highlighting that positive destination experiences foster loyalty.

Similarly, Amoah et al. (2019), An et al. (2019), and Berhanu and Raj (2020) observed that tourist satisfaction plays a crucial role in attracting potential tourists' and revisiting behavioural intentions. Lee (2009) confirmed high satisfaction levels from wetland tourism experiences significantly enhance revisitation intentions. Nguyen Viet et al. (2020) demonstrated that destination image plays a dual role, directly impacting satisfaction and indirectly influencing behavioural intentions, particularly in destinations with natural and historical appeal. In wellness tourism, Sharma and Nayak (2018) highlighted the role of overall destination image and satisfaction in fostering tourist loyalty, showing a strong connection between wellness experiences and positive behavioural intentions. Similarly, An et al. (2019), Bayih and Singh (2020), Ghorbanzade et al. (2019), Kempiak et al. (2017), and Simpson et al. (2020) underscored the importance of satisfaction in influencing tourists to recommend destinations.

Wang and Hsu (2010); and Žabkar et al. (2010) emphasised that a favourable destination image and high satisfaction levels are pivotal in shaping tourists' behavioural intentions, making them more likely to return and share their experiences with others. These studies underscore the importance of tourist satisfaction in influencing behavioural intentions, highlighting destination marketing strategies' critical role in enhancing satisfaction and fostering loyalty. Therefore, based on the above discussion, the present study proposes the following hypothesis:

H_{13}: *Tourists' satisfaction significantly influences their behavioural intention to revisit ICH resources.*

5.3.8 The Influence of Tourists' Behavioural Intention to Revisit ICH Resources on Their Actual Behaviour

The TPB deals adequately with the relationship among attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, intention, and behaviour. However, how an intention is implemented in tourists' actual behaviour needs to be addressed (Hsu & Huang, 2010). In the TPB, tourists' actual behaviour refers to the specific actions an individual performs due to their intentions, which are influenced by their attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control.

It represents executing the intended behaviour in real-world scenarios, reflecting the culmination of motivational factors and external constraints or facilitators (Ajzen, 1991). According to Ajzen and Fishbein (1970), behavioural intention is considered the primary determinant and best predictor of behaviour among all the antecedents of behaviour. However, some studies also found that intention using the TPB model cannot sufficiently predict actual behaviour. For instance, Hsu and Huang (2010), in their research, found that behavioural intention can only explain 5% of the variance in tourists' actual behaviour and infers that a satisfactory model cannot be generated with the actual behaviour. Ziadat (2015) noted that revisit intention and perceived behaviour control significantly impact actual visit behaviour. In contrast, perceived behaviour control yields an insignificant effect on revisit intention.

Revisit intention, however, does not mediate the relationship between perceived behaviour control and actual visit behaviour. In examining drivers' speeding behaviour, Paris and Van den Broucke (2008) noted that the actual speeding behaviour was not significantly predicted by intention and perceived control. Alonso et al. (2015) also investigated that perceived behavioural control and intention seem to lead to actual intention to perform the behaviour. Therefore, the present study proposes the following hypothesis:

H_{14}: *Tourists' behavioural intention of revisiting ICH resources significantly influences their actual visit behaviour.*

5.3.9 Simple Mediating Effect of Tourists' Satisfaction

Previous studies conducted in the context of tourism on behavioural intention were inspired by the TPB, which postulates that behavioural intention is a consequence of behavioural attitudes, subjective norms, and the control of perceived behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). On the other hand, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control also positively affect actual visiting behaviour (Chen & Tung, 2014). Thus, preferable attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behaviour lead to increased resistance to revisiting a travel destination (Lam & Hsu 2004, 2006). Furthermore, a study by Han and Kim (2010) shows that the intention to repeat is positively and significantly related to the core constructs of the TPB model.

Research has demonstrated that satisfaction significantly mediates in the TPB model, particularly in understanding how TPB constructs influence tourists' behavioural intentions, including revisit intentions and word-of-mouth recommendations. Studies on nature-based

tourism have examined the causal relationships among tourist attitudes, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions. Lee et al. (2007) and Lee (2006) highlight that a positive attitude in isolated inland destinations, river tracing tours, and national forest recreation areas indirectly influences behavioural intentions through satisfaction. In these cases, the TPB model adapts to include satisfaction as a mediating variable, where satisfaction serves as a key factor connecting tourists' attitudes to their intention to revisit or recommend. While these models have been widely studied for nature-based tourism, such as in forest recreation and adventure tourism settings, there is still a gap in the literature regarding cultural tourism. Previous research has evidence that satisfaction, directly and indirectly, influences various dimensions and behavioural intentions, such as destination image (Albaity & Melhem, 2017; Alcocer & Ruiz, 2019; Ramseook-Munhurrun et al., 2015); experience quality (Hamid et al., 2020); and tourists' motivation (Preko et al., 2019).

Past research confirmed that tourist satisfaction is a successful mediating variable in behavioural tourism models (Lee et al., 2007). Abbasi et al. (2020) mentioned a significant mediating effect of satisfaction, perceived service quality, destination image, perceived value, and revisit intention. Berhanu and Raj (2020) mentioned that overall satisfaction partially mediated the relationships between travel motivations and revisit intention. Similarly, satisfaction served as a partial mediator in the relationship between experience and recollection (Wang, 2004) as well as between experience and behavioural intentions (Ali et al., 2015). In addition, Albaity and Melhem, (2017) also stated that tourist satisfaction positively mediates the relationship between novelty seeking and destination image. Perceived value and image directly influence satisfaction and positively affect behavioural intentions (Ghorbanzade et al., 2019).

Furthermore, a study conducted in China by Wang and Hsu (2010) found that overall destination image has significantly and positively influenced but indirectly affects behavioural intention through satisfaction. Tavitiyaman and Qu's (2013) study also stated that the destination image alone could not directly drive a traveller's future behavioural intention. Still, Overall satisfaction is required to force the action of revisiting the purpose and the recommendation. Lee (2009) supported the findings of Wang and Hsu (2010) and concluded that not only destination image but tourists' attitude and motivation directly affect satisfaction and indirectly affect future behaviour, thus proving that satisfaction significantly mediates within the behavioural model. Preko et al. (2019) suggested that the push and pull

motivational factors will significantly increase positive satisfaction, which could affect their future behaviour. Thus, it is deduced that the satisfaction of the tourists, which might also stimulate patronage of the same tour in the future or evoke recommendations of destinations to potential tourists, is one of the explanatory factors of tourists' behavioural intentions. Therefore, based on the above discussion, the present study proposes the following hypotheses:

H_{15}: *Tourists' satisfaction mediates the relationships between their attitudes and behavioural intention to revisit ICH resources.*

H_{16}: *Tourists' satisfaction mediates the relationships between their subjective norms and behavioural intention to revisit ICH resources.*

H_{17}: *Tourists' satisfaction mediates the relationship between their perceived behavioural control and behavioural intention to revisit ICH resources.*

H_{18}: *Tourists' satisfaction mediates the relationships between their motivation and behavioural intention to revisit ICH resources.*

H_{19}: *Tourists' satisfaction mediates the relationships between their destination image and behavioural intention to revisit ICH resources.*

H_{20}: *Tourists' satisfaction mediates the relationships between their memorable experiences and behavioural intention to revisit ICH resources.*

Traditional TPB identifies three core factors determining behavioural intentions: attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. This study builds on previous research by expanding the TPB model to include additional constructs, such as tourist satisfaction, travel motivation, destination image, and memorable experience, to examine their influence on cultural tourists' intentions to revisit a destination. This extended TPB model, a significant advancement in the field, explains the factors influencing tourists' satisfaction and behavioural intention to revisit.

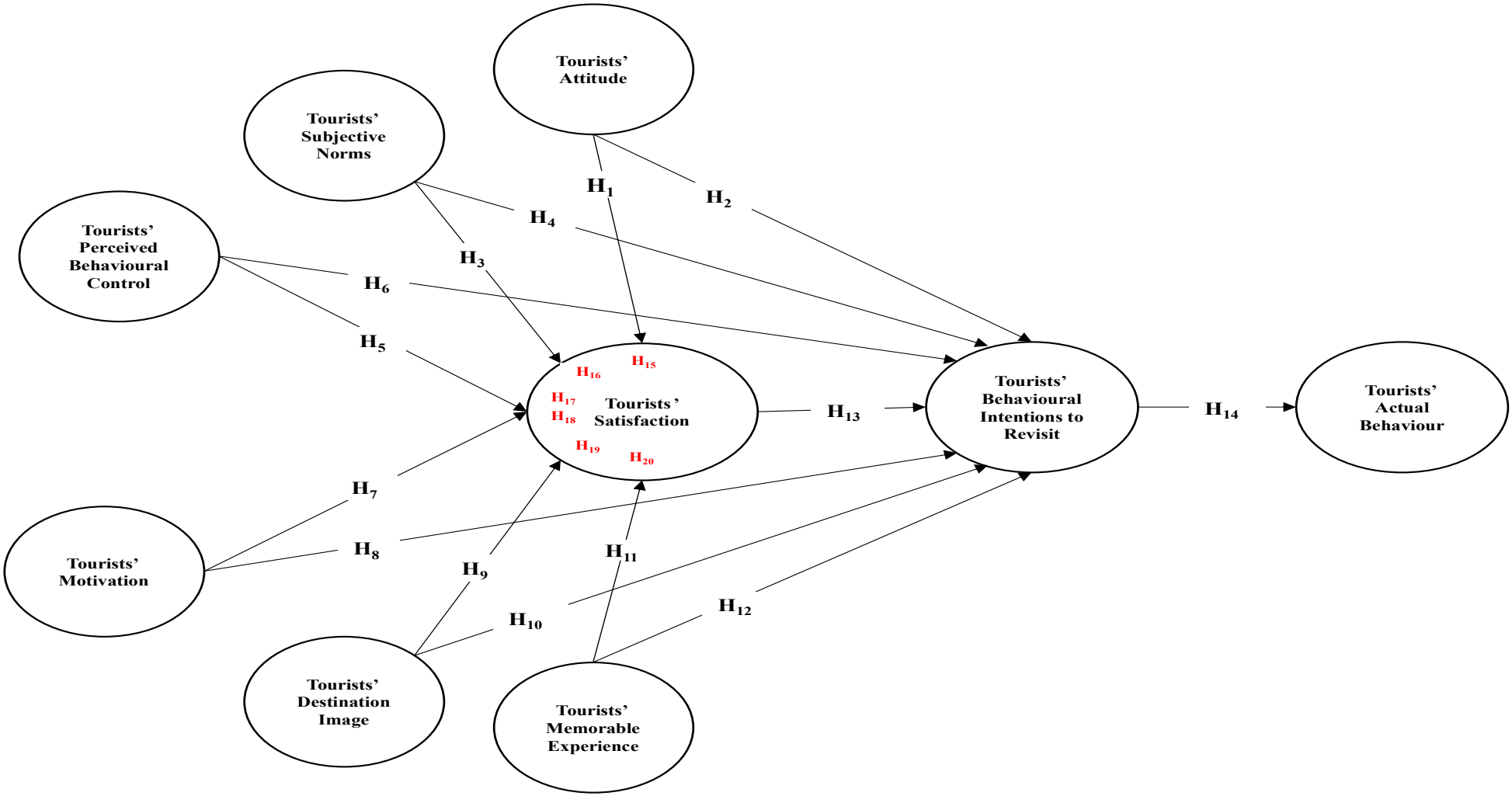


Figure 5. 2 Conceptual Research Model- Extended TPB Model

Source: *Author's compilation*

Note: *Direct Relationships Hypotheses are highlighted in* ***Black****; Simple Mediating Relationships Hypotheses are highlighted in* ***Red***

Figure 5. 2 explains why an individual might plan or intend to revisit a destination. This study aims to extend this foundational model by integrating constructs that prior research, such as Hsu and Huang (2010) and Soliman (2019), have been suggested as additional determinants of behavioural intention in tourism contexts. In the present research, each construct plays a distinct role in shaping a tourist's behavioural intentions, with tourist satisfaction as a pivotal mediating factor in linking attitude, subjective norms, perceived control, tourists' motivation, destination image, and memorable experiences to behavioural intention.

The study's extended TPB model proposes that these constructs directly affect behavioural intention to revisit and create indirect pathways through satisfaction, with tourist satisfaction as a mediator. Additionally, this model addresses a noted gap in tourism research concerning the relationship between behavioural intention and actual behaviour. While intentions are predictive, they do not always result in tourists' actual behaviour due to intervening factors. This study examines this link by proposing a model where behavioural intention and tourist satisfaction mediate the relationship between all TPB dimensions (including the added constructs) and the actual act of revisiting.

Thus, this research contributes significantly to cultural tourism's theoretical and practical domains. Theoretically, it advances the TPB framework by incorporating satisfaction, motivation, destination image, and memorable experience, creating a more comprehensive model that better accounts for cultural tourists' complex decision-making processes. This expanded TPB model provides deeper insights into how multiple facets of the tourist experience interact to shape revisit intentions.

Practically, the study offers destination managers, tourism marketers, and policymakers actionable insights into strategies for boosting tourist satisfaction, cultivating strong destination images, and designing experiences that motivate tourists to return. By understanding these dynamics, stakeholders in cultural tourism can develop targeted marketing strategies, enhance visitor experiences, and foster better tourism practices that encourage repeat visits and positive word-of-mouth.

5.4 Results and Interpretation

5.4.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Table 5. 2 Shows the Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents (n=482)

Attributes		Frequency (n)	Percent (%)
Nationality	Indian	385	79.9
	Foreigner	97	20.1
Gender	Male	306	63.5
	Female	176	36.5
Age (In Years)	18-30	149	30.9
	31-44	190	39.4
	45-59	117	24.3
	60 and above	26	5.4
Occupation	Government Employee	89	18.5
	Private Employee	236	49.0
	Business	92	19.1
	Other	65	13.5
Marital Status	Married	305	63.3
	Unmarried	177	36.7
Education Qualification	Up to 10th Grade	26	5.4
	12th Grade	84	17.4
	Graduation	187	38.8
	Post Graduation	167	34.6
	Other	18	3.7
Annual Individual Income (Indian Rs/US Dollars)	< Rs. 4 Lakhs (< $5, 400)	172	35.7
	Rs. 4-8 Lakhs ($5, 400-$10, 700)	183	38.0
	> Rs. 8 Lakhs (> $10, 700)	127	26.3

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Table 5. 2 meticulously describes the demographic attributes of tourists, detailing their frequency and percentage distribution. The findings elucidate that the demographic profile of the respondents comprises seven main attributes: nationality, gender, age (in years), occupation, marital status, education qualification, and annual income. In terms of nationality, among the 482 total respondents, a substantial 79.9% identified as domestic tourists, whereas 20.1% were classified as foreign tourists.

Regarding gender, most respondents were male, consisting of 63.5%, while females represented 36.5%. The most predominant age group among tourists was 31-44 years, accounting for 39.4% of the sample. This was followed by 30.9% in the 18-30 age range, 24.3% in the 45-59 age range, and only 5.4% of respondents were aged 60 years or older. Concerning occupation, a significant proportion, 49%, identified as private employees.

Government employees and business owners were nearly equally represented, comprising 18.5% and 19.1%, respectively. The remaining 13.5% fell into the other category, which included homemakers, unemployed individuals and retirees. The survey showed that 63.3% of tourists were married, while 36.7% were unmarried or single, indicating a notable difference in marital status representation.

Regarding education, 38.8% held graduate degrees, and 34.6% had postgraduate degrees, with 5.4% completing up to the 10th grade, 17.4% finishing 12th grade, and 3.7% having no formal qualifications. Regarding annual income, 35.7% of respondents earned Rs. 4 lakhs, 38% earned between Rs. 4 and Rs. 8 lakhs, and 26% had incomes exceeding Rs. 8 lakhs. These results offer insight into the demographics of the tourist population surveyed.

5.4.2 Data Distribution and Normality

Table 5. 3 below shows the data normality and multicollinearity tests of constructs applied to study the tourist's perspectives. The table shows that the VIF value of all the variables is in the bracket of 1.183 (AB1, AB2) to 3.241 (SN2), which shows that the variables do not have any issue with multicollinearity. The mean values range from 2.496 (AB2) to 5.046 (BIR5), whereas the SD values range from 1.029 (AB2) to 1.882 (SN3).

Table 5. 3 Shows the Multicollinearity Test Result and Summary Statistics of the Variables

Constructs	Variable Codes	VIF	Mean	SD	Kurtosis	Skewness
Tourists' Actual Behaviour (AB)	AB1	1.183	2.564	1.149	-1.431	-0.063
	AB2	1.183	2.496	1.029	-1.139	0.109
Tourists' Behavioural Intentions to Revisit (BIR)	BIR1	1.622	4.988	1.279	0.755	-0.891
	BIR2	1.956	4.776	1.414	-0.266	-0.517
	BIR3	2.674	4.784	1.464	-0.312	-0.406
	BIR4	2.461	4.907	1.391	0.274	-0.765
	BIR5	2.623	5.046	1.460	0.557	-1.003
Tourists' Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC)	PBC1	2.016	4.863	1.642	-0.498	-0.649
	PBC2	2.702	4.981	1.604	-0.141	-0.731
	PBC3	2.538	4.946	1.626	-0.365	-0.642
Tourists' Subjective Norms (SN)	SN1	2.087	4.656	1.648	-0.452	-0.678
	SN2	3.241	4.529	1.833	-0.923	-0.442
	SN3	3.182	4.602	1.882	-0.984	-0.423
Tourists' Attitude (TA)	TA1	2.237	4.409	1.542	-0.588	-0.327
	TA2	2.198	4.376	1.588	-0.669	-0.366
	TA3	2.269	4.322	1.446	-0.712	-0.231
	TA4	2.178	4.398	1.427	-0.503	-0.277

Constructs	Variable Codes	VIF	Mean	SD	Kurtosis	Skewness
Tourists' Destination Image (TDI)	TDI1	1.864	4.612	1.473	-0.631	-0.338
	TDI2	1.859	4.427	1.518	-0.503	-0.243
	TDI3	2.226	4.498	1.389	-0.609	-0.226
	TDI4	2.033	4.577	1.390	-0.501	-0.319
Tourists' Memorable Experience (TME)	TME1	1.625	4.643	1.438	-0.279	-0.568
	TME2	1.893	4.307	1.556	-0.659	-0.301
	TME3	2.261	4.425	1.396	-0.335	-0.293
	TME4	2.138	4.568	1.407	-0.310	-0.378
	TME5	2.196	4.685	1.374	-0.207	-0.517
Tourists' Motivation (TM)	TM1	1.727	4.512	1.583	-0.623	-0.448
	TM2	1.868	4.434	1.568	-0.450	-0.426
	TM3	2.265	4.394	1.481	-0.557	-0.256
	TM4	2.201	4.463	1.411	-0.466	-0.381
Tourists' Satisfaction (TS)	TS1	1.857	4.550	1.588	-0.622	-0.450
	TS2	1.898	4.413	1.611	-0.651	-0.241
	TS3	2.261	4.380	1.440	-0.517	-0.283
	TS4	1.944	4.515	1.328	-0.578	-0.268

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: VIF- *Variance Inflation Factor;* ***SD-*** *Standard Deviation*

Regarding kurtosis, values range between -1.431 (AB1) to 0.755 (BIR1), skewness values range from -1.0003 (BIR5) to 0.109 (AB2), and indicating that the values are within the range of -2 to 2 (Curran et al., 1996; George & Mallery, 2010; Henly, 1993). Hence, the data is normal, and no multicollinearity effect exists. Therefore, this data can be used to analyse the results further.

5.4.3 Testing of Biasness in the Data

Table 5. 4 Shows the Result of Common Method Bias using the Harman Single Factor Method

Constructs	Variable Codes	Initial Eigen Values		
		Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Tourists' Actual Behaviour (AB)	AB1	12.106	35.607	35.607
	AB2	2.297	6.756	42.363
Tourists' Behavioural Intentions to Revisit (BIR)	BIR1	2.085	6.132	48.495
	BIR2	1.646	4.841	53.336
	BIR3	1.446	4.253	57.590
	BIR4	1.389	4.085	61.675
	BIR5	1.180	3.470	65.145
Tourists' Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC)	PBC1	1.091	3.209	68.355
	PBC2	1.021	3.003	71.358
	PBC3	0.767	2.256	73.614
Tourists' Subjective Norms (SN)	SN1	0.636	1.869	75.484
	SN2	0.625	1.838	77.322
	SN3	0.564	1.659	78.982

Constructs	Variable Codes	Initial Eigen Values		
		Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Tourists' Attitude (TA)	TA1	0.542	1.595	80.577
	TA2	0.525	1.543	82.120
	TA3	0.483	1.421	83.541
	TA4	0.462	1.358	84.899
Tourists' Destination Image (TDI)	TDI1	0.455	1.337	86.236
	TDI2	0.423	1.245	87.481
	TDI3	0.406	1.193	88.674
	TDI4	0.365	1.073	89.747
Tourists' Memorable Experience (TME)	TME1	0.353	1.039	90.786
	TME2	0.343	1.009	91.795
	TME3	0.327	0.962	92.757
	TME4	0.324	0.953	93.710
	TME5	0.294	0.865	94.574
Tourists' Motivation (TM)	TM1	0.287	0.843	95.417
	TM2	0.261	0.767	96.184
	TM3	0.257	0.757	96.941
	TM4	0.245	0.721	97.662
Tourists' Satisfaction (TS)	TS1	0.240	0.706	98.368
	TS2	0.211	0.620	98.989
	TS3	0.184	0.541	99.530
	TS4	0.160	0.470	100

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Table 5. 4 shows that the cumulative value of the extraction sum of squared loadings is 35.607, which indicates that the selected factors for the study account for 35.61% of the total variance in the data. Since the value of 35.61% is well below the 50% threshold, it demonstrates that the factors chosen for the study do not exhibit significant bias. This confirms that the data is free from biases, ensuring that the variables in the model are adequately balanced and that no single factor disproportionately influences the results. Thus, the data can be considered robust and unbiased.

5.4.4 Reliability and Validity of Measurement Model

Table 5. 5, shows the estimation of reliability and validity test of the measurement model from tourists' perspectives. The model's reliability and convergent validity tests show that CA in the table surpassed the recommendation of 0.70 (Cronbach, 1951), as the values of CA for all the constructs range from 0.847 (TM) to 0.889 (SN). However, the CA value for 'actual behaviour' is 0.564, which is still retained in the study based on the recommendations of previous studies (Griethuijsen et al., 2015; Hsu & Huang, 2010; Li et al., 2016; Taber, 2018). For the present study, this construct was useful as the two variables studied under this

construct were found to be normally distributed, and the construct's CR is 0.806. AVE values are 0.674, within the threshold limit of 50% (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 5. 5 Shows the Reliability and Convergent Validity of Constructs of Tourists' Perspectives

Constructs and Variables	SL
Tourists' Actual Behaviour (AB) [CA= 0.564; CR= 0.806; AVE= 0.674]	
AB1 <- Number of visits in Goa	0.678
AB2 <- Number of days stayed in Goa	0.943
Tourists' Behavioural Intention to Revisit (BIR) [CA= 0.877; CR; 0.880; AVE= 0.673]	
BIR1 <- I intend to revisit Goa as a cultural attraction shortly	0.752
BIR2 <- I would like to revisit Goa more for a cultural experience as compared to other destinations	0.793
BIR3 <- I will encourage and plan to revisit Goa either alone, with friends, or with family	0.873
BIR4 <- I will share my experience with others about the Goan culture	0.821
BIR5 <- I will recommend Goa's cultural destination to someone who seeks advice	0.856
Tourists Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC) [CA= 0.872; CR= 0.880; AVE= 0.796]	
PBC1 <- In the near future, whether or not I revisit is completely up to me	0.856
PBC2 <- I am confident enough that if I want, I can revisit it anytime	0.912
PBC3 <- I have resources, time, money, and opportunities to revisit	0.908
Tourists' Subjective Norms (SN) [CA= 0.889; CR= 0.894; AVE= 0.818]	
SN1 <- People who are important to me think that I should revisit Goa in the near future	0.886
SN2 <- People whose opinions are valued by me would approve my visit to Goa in the near Future	0.917
SN3 <- People who are important to me would recommend that I visit Goa in the near future	0.909
Tourist Attitude (TA) [CA= 0.865; CR= 0.866; AVE= 0.711]	
TA1 <- Goa's culture is very enjoyable	0.837
TA2 <- Goa's culture is very pleasant	0.839
TA3 <- Goa's culture is very favourable	0.857
TA4 <- Goa's culture is very valuable	0.839
Tourists' Destination Image (TDI) [CA= 0.850; CR= 0.858; AVE= 0.688]	
TDI1 <- Goa has a good name and reputation as a cultural destination	0.816
TDI2 <- Goa has a rich diversity of local history and traditional culture	0.795
TDI3 <- It offers exciting and interesting cultural events and festivals	0.857
TDI4 <- It has a unique image towards ways of life and customs	0.850
Tourists' Motivation (TM) [CA= 0.847; CR= 0.850; AVE= 0.686]	
TM1 <- To visit different cultural attractions which have never seen before	0.799
TM2 <- To experience varied cultural and traditional activities	0.808
TM3 <- To fulfil the curiosity about Goan culture	0.850
TM4 <- To increase the knowledge about the cultural attractions of Goa	0.854
Tourists' Memorable Experience (TME) [CA= 0.857; CR= 0.860; AVE= 0.636]	
TME1 <- A variety of opportunities to experience the local way of life	0.734
TME2 <- Closely experienced the local culture	0.773
TME3 <- Programs to learn about local history and culture	0.837
TME4 <- Good impressions about the local people	0.805
TME5 <- I was delighted with the overall unique and memorable cultural experience	0.835

Construct and Variables	SL
Tourists' Satisfaction (TS) [CA= 0.851; CR= 0.854; AVE= 0.690]	
TS1 <- I enjoyed all the cultural activities that I wanted to do	0.819
TS2 <- My choice to visit this destination was a wise one	0.808
TS3 <- These cultural activities at the destination were exactly what I had expected	0.861
TS4 <- Overall, I am satisfied with my decision to visit this cultural destination	0.834

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: SL- *Standardised Loadings;* ***CA-*** *Cronbach Alpha;* ***CR-*** *Composite Reliability;* ***AVE-*** *Average Variance Extracted*

Table 5. 5 also shows that the CR for the constructs ranges between 0.806 (AB) and 0.894 (SN), which is above the recommended threshold of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2012, 2013). Furthermore, the AVE was estimated for every construct, which shows that all the constructs have substantial AVE scores within the thumb rule of ≥ 0.50 (Hair, et al., 2013).

The findings also revealed that all variables were meaningfully linked to their hypothesised variables, and the size of every SD was above the 0.70 threshold (Anderson et al., 1988), ranging from 0.678 (AB1) to 0.917 (SN2). Since the CR and AVE exceed the threshold limit, the AB1 variable is retained in the study.

Table 5. 6 Shows the Discriminant Validity- Fornell-Larcker Criterion

Constructs	AB	BIR	PBC	SN	TA	TDI	TME	TM	TS
AB	0.821								
BIR	0.181	0.820							
PBC	0.110	0.318	0.892						
SN	0.032	0.224	0.168	0.904					
TA	0.172	0.552	0.309	0.211	0.843				
TDI	0.170	0.589	0.318	0.264	0.560	0.830			
TME	0.145	0.621	0.292	0.227	0.568	0.642	0.798		
TM	0.133	0.514	0.217	0.270	0.608	0.500	0.548	0.828	
TS	0.114	0.606	0.297	0.233	0.580	0.548	0.616	0.571	0.831

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: AB- *Tourists' Actual Behaviour;* ***BIR-*** *Tourists' Behavioural Intentions to Revisit;* ***PBC-*** *Tourists' Perceived Behavioural Control;* ***SN-*** *Tourists' Subjective Norms;* ***TA-*** *Tourists' Attitude;* ***TDI-*** *Tourists' Destination Image;* ***TME-*** *Tourists' Memorable Experience;* ***TM-*** *Tourists' Motivation;* ***TS-*** *Tourists' Satisfaction*

The results in Table 5. 6 indicate that the shared variance between pairs of constructs was lower than their associated AVE, demonstrating adequate discriminant validity. The AVE for AB is 0.821, and the square root of this value is 0.821, which is higher than the intercorrelations between AB and the other constructs. This pattern holds true for all constructs in the model. These results align with the criteria, further supporting the discriminant validity of the measurement model (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 5. 7 Shows the Discriminant Validity- Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (HTMT) – Matrix

Constructs	AB	BIR	PBC	SN	TA	TDI	TME	TM	TS
AB									
BIR	0.232								
PBC	0.150	0.362							
SN	0.063	0.251	0.199						
TA	0.242	0.631	0.356	0.238					
TDI	0.223	0.678	0.367	0.302	0.649				
TME	0.179	0.713	0.336	0.261	0.656	0.747			
TM	0.159	0.593	0.252	0.307	0.707	0.583	0.637		
TS	0.139	0.699	0.344	0.266	0.672	0.633	0.716	0.667	

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: AB- *Actual Behaviour;* ***BIR-*** *Tourists' Behavioural Intentions to Revisit;* ***PBC-*** *Tourists' Perceived Behavioural Control;* ***SN-*** *Tourists' Subjective Norms;* ***TA-*** *Tourists' Attitude;* ***TDI-*** *Tourists' Destination Image;* ***TME-*** *Tourists' Memorable Experience;* ***TM-*** *Tourists' Motivation;* ***TS-*** *Tourists' Satisfaction*

The HTMT ratio method in Table 5. 7 shows that the highest correlation value among all the constructs is 0.747, which appears between TME and TDI. Since all values are below 0.85, it confirms that the constructs in this model are sufficiently distinct, ensuring that discriminant validity is upheld.

Table 5. 8 Shows Cross Loadings

Codes and Constructs	AB	BIR	PBC	SN	TA	TDI	TME	TM	TS
AB1	0.678	0.085	0.077	-0.024	0.123	0.086	0.053	0.029	0.038
AB2	0.943	0.187	0.103	0.051	0.159	0.173	0.157	0.154	0.125
BIR1	0.166	0.752	0.268	0.202	0.463	0.502	0.508	0.409	0.473
BIR2	0.157	0.793	0.281	0.140	0.451	0.430	0.489	0.387	0.477
BIR3	0.137	0.873	0.257	0.172	0.496	0.494	0.536	0.484	0.525
BIR4	0.127	0.821	0.242	0.184	0.402	0.460	0.461	0.376	0.482
BIR5	0.154	0.856	0.256	0.216	0.445	0.523	0.545	0.442	0.523
PBC1	0.049	0.252	0.856	0.237	0.288	0.296	0.261	0.211	0.240
PBC2	0.090	0.283	0.912	0.118	0.257	0.277	0.245	0.164	0.276
PBC3	0.148	0.312	0.908	0.110	0.285	0.280	0.276	0.208	0.276
SN1	0.054	0.231	0.136	0.886	0.228	0.252	0.198	0.250	0.219
SN2	0.034	0.182	0.130	0.917	0.155	0.224	0.206	0.259	0.224
SN3	-0.006	0.189	0.195	0.909	0.184	0.238	0.214	0.220	0.187
TA1	0.140	0.435	0.229	0.171	0.837	0.430	0.430	0.468	0.436
TA2	0.169	0.472	0.258	0.136	0.839	0.497	0.497	0.514	0.501
TA3	0.121	0.492	0.268	0.164	0.857	0.478	0.491	0.534	0.509
TA4	0.150	0.458	0.284	0.240	0.839	0.482	0.493	0.530	0.505
TDI1	0.097	0.486	0.272	0.197	0.457	0.816	0.515	0.411	0.425
TDI2	0.131	0.440	0.207	0.216	0.411	0.795	0.467	0.370	0.367
TDI3	0.184	0.495	0.287	0.218	0.485	0.857	0.543	0.397	0.450
TDI4	0.149	0.525	0.280	0.244	0.498	0.850	0.592	0.471	0.553
TM1	0.151	0.451	0.237	0.252	0.471	0.418	0.435	0.799	0.458
TM2	0.107	0.408	0.158	0.173	0.469	0.360	0.380	0.808	0.408
TM3	0.098	0.399	0.115	0.224	0.509	0.404	0.496	0.850	0.494
TM4	0.087	0.441	0.205	0.240	0.559	0.468	0.495	0.854	0.522

Codes and Constructs	AB	BIR	PBC	SN	TA	TDI	TME	TM	TS
TME1	0.048	0.496	0.235	0.204	0.409	0.494	0.734	0.395	0.463
TME2	0.105	0.460	0.211	0.125	0.398	0.479	0.773	0.380	0.437
TME3	0.152	0.463	0.213	0.198	0.491	0.514	0.837	0.435	0.501
TME4	0.102	0.493	0.216	0.208	0.473	0.534	0.805	0.457	0.494
TME5	0.164	0.555	0.282	0.170	0.487	0.536	0.835	0.505	0.552
TS1	0.061	0.519	0.278	0.155	0.448	0.441	0.487	0.461	0.819
TS2	0.068	0.454	0.240	0.185	0.461	0.390	0.469	0.426	0.808
TS3	0.107	0.502	0.211	0.231	0.469	0.476	0.509	0.487	0.861
TS4	0.136	0.532	0.257	0.203	0.542	0.506	0.574	0.515	0.834

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: AB- *Actual Behaviour;* ***BIR-*** *Tourists' Behavioural Intentions to Revisit;* ***PBC-*** *Tourists' Perceived Behavioural Control;* ***SN-*** *Tourists' Subjective Norms;* ***TA-*** *Tourists' Attitude;* ***TDI-*** *Tourists' Destination Image;* ***TME-*** *Tourists' Memorable Experience;* ***TM-*** *Tourists' Motivation;* ***TS-*** *Tourists' Satisfaction*

Table 5. 8. shows that each variable has strong discriminant validity, with significantly higher loadings within its respective construct than cross-loadings with others. The results highlighted substantial discriminant validity at variable and construct levels, confirming the proposed model's robustness. These findings validate the measurement model's reliability and overall effectiveness.

5.4.5 Structural Model of Extended TPB

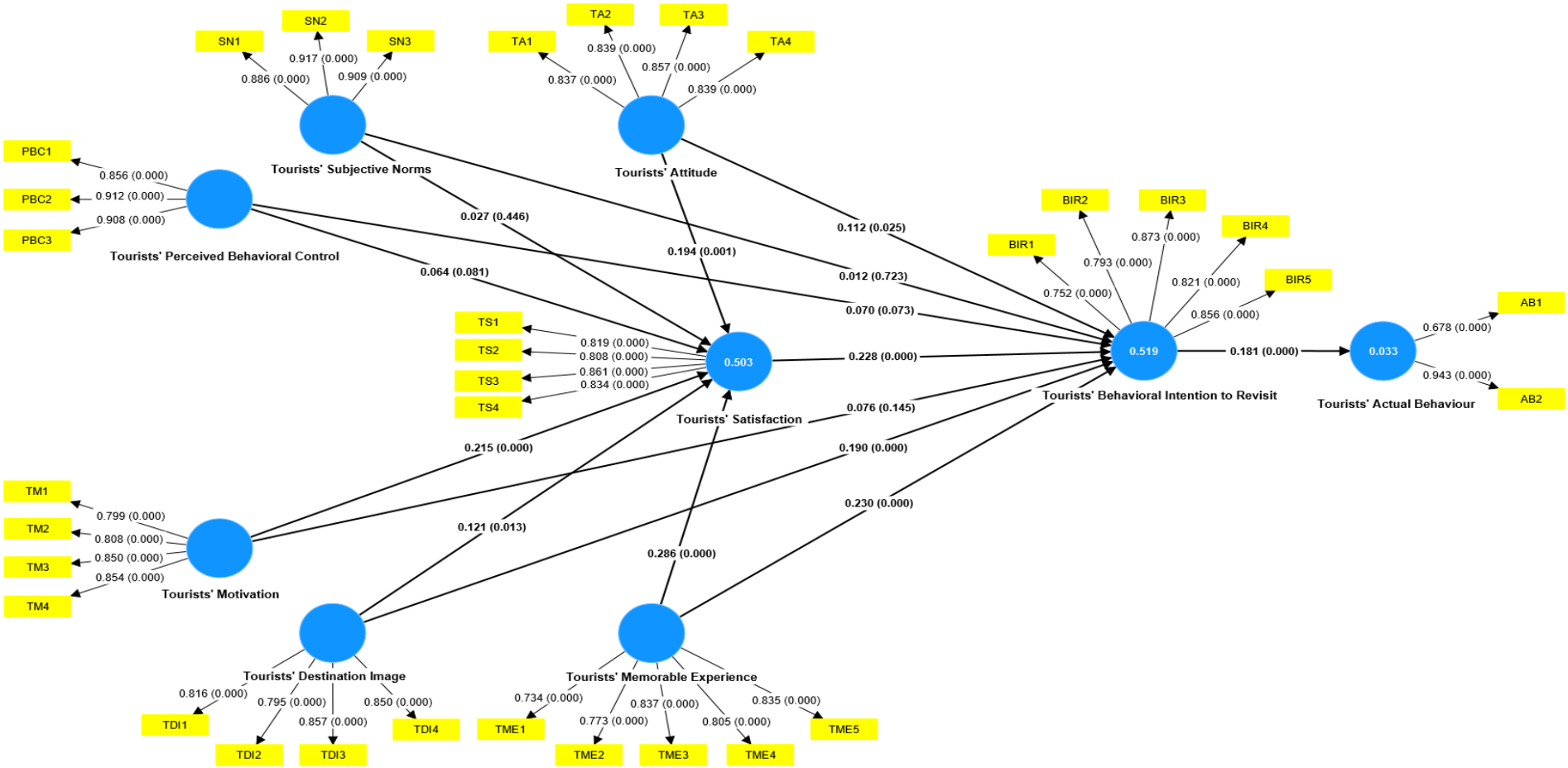


Figure 5. 3 Result of PLS-SEM Analysis

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: *R^2 values are shown in the centre of the constructed circle*

To assess the proposed model's predictive power, a basic emphasis in PLS-SEM is to test the endogenous latent variables' explained variance (R2), demonstrating the amount of variance in the constructs. Figure 5. 3 shows the R^2 of six exogenous variables towards tourist satisfaction is 0.503 (50%). The R^2 of seven exogenous variables towards behavioural intention to revisit is 0.519 (52%), indicating that the final model had a strong statistical ability and a sufficient explanation of tourist's behavioural intention to revisit and tourist satisfaction. Hair et al. (2013) also recommended that R^2 values greater than 0.10 have good predictive power. However, the R^2 of behavioural intention toward tourists' actual behaviour is 0.03 (3%), indicating that behavioural intention explains a 3% variance in actual behaviour.

5.4.6 Testing of Hypotheses

5.4.6.1 Direct Relationships

Table 5. 9 Shows the Results of the Path Analysis

Constructs and Hypotheses		Beta (β)	P Values	Inference
H_1	TA -> TS	0.194	< 0.001	Supported
H_2	TA -> BIR	0.112	0.025	Supported
H_3	SN -> TS	0.027	0.446	Unsupported
H_4	SN -> BIR	0.012	0.723	Unsupported
H_5	PBC -> TS	0.064	0.081	Unsupported
H_6	PBC -> BIR	0.070	0.073	Unsupported
H_7	TM -> TS	0.215	< 0.001	Supported
H_8	TM -> BIR	0.076	0.145	Unsupported
H_9	TDI -> TS	0.121	0.013	Supported
H_{10}	TDI -> BIR	0.190	< 0.001	Supported
H_{11}	TME -> TS	0.286	< 0.001	Supported
H_{12}	TME -> BIR	0.230	< 0.001	Supported
H_{13}	TS -> BIR	0.228	< 0.001	Supported
H_{14}	BIR -> AB	0.181	< 0.001	Supported

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: TA- *Tourists' Attitude;* ***TS-*** *Tourists' Satisfaction****; BIR-*** *Tourists' Behavioural Intentions to Revisit;* ***SN-*** *Subjective Norms;* ***PBC-*** *Perceived Behavioural Control;* ***TM-*** *Tourists' Motivation;* ***TDI-*** *Tourists' Destination Image;* ***TME-*** *Tourists' Memorable Experience;* ***AB-*** *Tourists' Actual Behaviour*

The current study employed the PLS-SEM in Table 5. 9, which helps enable simultaneous assessment of the measurement and structural models. In this regard, the bootstrapping test of 5000 samples is applied at the significant level of 0.05. The next step in the analysis involves measuring the hypothesised relationship among the latent variables by calculating the path coefficients and a significance level of 0.05 (Hair et al., 2011). The analysis shows a significant relationship between tourist attitude and satisfaction, with $P < 0.001$ and β=

0.194. This indicates that a 1% increase in tourist attitude will lead to a 0.194% increase in tourist satisfaction; thus, ***H_1 is supported***.

Additionally, a significant positive relationship was found between tourist attitude and behavioural intention to revisit, with P= 0.025 and β= 0.112. This means a 1% increase in tourist attitude will result in a 0.112% increase in the likelihood of tourists revisiting the destination, so ***H_2 is supported***. However, the relationship between subjective norm and tourist satisfaction shows no significance with P= 0.446 and β= 0.027, suggesting ***H_3 is unsupported***.

Similarly, the relationship between perceived behavioural control and tourist satisfaction was insignificant, with P= 0.081 and β= 0.064, indicating that ***H_5 is unsupported***. The analysis of subjective norm and perceived behavioural control with the behavioural intention to revisit reveals no significant relationships, with P= 0.723 and β= 0.012 for subjective norm and P= 0.073 and β= 0.070 for perceived behavioural control. Hence, ***H_4 and H_6 are unsupported***.

A significant relationship between tourist motivation and satisfaction is found, with P < 0.001 and β= 0.215. A 1% increase in tourist motivation will result in a 0.215% increase in tourist satisfaction at the cultural destination; thus, ***H_7 is supported***. However, the relationship between tourist motivation and behavioural intentions to revisit is insignificant, with P= 0.145 and β= 0.076, meaning ***H_8 is unsupported***.

Furthermore, there is a significant positive relationship between destination image and tourist satisfaction, with P= 0.013 and β= 0.121, indicating that a 1% improvement in the destination image leads to a 0.121% increase in tourist satisfaction; hence, ***H_9 is supported***.

Additionally, the path coefficient and p-value for the relationship between a memorable experience and satisfaction are significant, with P < 0.001 and β= 0.286, demonstrating that a 1% increase in the memorable experience results in a 0.286% increase in satisfaction; thus, ***H_{11} is supported***.

Finally, significant positive relationships are found for destination image with P < 0.001 and β= 0.190, memorable experience with P < 0.001 and β= 0.230, and satisfaction with P < 0.001 and β= 0.228 with the behavioural intention to revisit. This means that a 1% increase

in these factors will increase 0.190%, 0.230%, and 0.228% in the likelihood of tourists revisiting the destination. Therefore, ***H_{10}, H_{12}, and H_{13} are supported***.

Moreover, the relationship between behavioural intention to revisit and tourists' actual behaviour is significant, with $P < 0.001$ and $\beta = 0.181$, showing that a 1% increase in tourists' actual behaviour leads to a 0.181% increase in their behavioural intention to revisit; thus, ***H_{14} is supported***. This indicates that the proposed model, which explains the relationship among behavioural intention to revisit, actual behaviour, tourist satisfaction, and other constructs, is well supported.

5.4.6.2 Indirect Relationships

5.4.6.2.a Simple Mediation Analysis

Table 5. 10 Shows the Results of the Simple Mediation Analysis

Hypotheses and Relationship		DE (W/o Mediation)	SIE (P Value)	TE (W/Mediation)	VAF Values	Inference	Remark
H_{15}	TA -> TS-> BIR	0.112 (0.025)	0.044 (0.006)	0.156 (0.002)	28.20%	Supported	Partial Mediation
H_{16}	SN -> TS-> BIR	0.012 (0.723)	0.006 (0.468)	0.018 (0.594)	-	Unsupported	No Mediation
H_{17}	PBC -> TS-> BIR	0.070 (0.073)	0.015 (0.111)	0.084 (0.037)	-	Unsupported	No Mediation
H_{18}	TM -> TS-> BIR	0.076 (0.145)	0.049 (0.003)	0.125 (0.014)	39.20%	Supported	Partial Mediation
H_{19}	TDI -> TS-> BIR	0.190 (< 0.001)	0.028 (0.032)	0.218 (< 0.001)	12.84%	Supported	Partial Mediation
H_{20}	TME -> TS-> BIR	0.230 (< 0.001)	0.065 (< 0.001)	0.295 (< 0.001)	22.03%	Supported	Partial Mediation

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: TA- *Tourists' Attitude;* ***TS-*** *Tourists' Satisfaction****; BIR-*** *Tourists' Behavioural Intentions to Revisit;* ***SN-*** *Subjective Norms;* ***PBC-*** *Perceived Behavioural Control;* ***TM-*** *Tourists' Motivation;* ***TDI-*** *Tourists' Destination Image;* ***TME-*** *Tourists' Memorable Experience;* ***DE-*** *Direct Effect;* ***W/o-*** *Without;* ***SIE-*** *Specific Indirect Effect;* ***TE-*** *Total Effect;* ***W-*** *with;* ***VAF-*** *Variance Accounted For*

To better understand the relationships among the constructs and the mediating effect of tourist satisfaction, the study analysed the direct, indirect, and total effects among the explanatory and dependent variables, as presented in Table 5. 10. The direct effect of tourist attitude on behavioural intention to revisit is significant with $P < 0.001$ and $\beta = 0.112$. Furthermore, the indirect effect on behavioural intention to revisit, mediated by tourist satisfaction, is also significant, with $P < 0.001$ and $\beta = 0.044$. The total effect of tourist attitude on tourists' behavioural intentions to revisit is significant, yielding $P < 0.001$ and $\beta =$

0.156. The calculated VAF value showed 28.20%, indicating that tourists' satisfaction partially mediates between attitude and behavioural intentions to revisit. Consequently, ***H_{15} is supported.***

The direct effect of subjective norms on tourists' behavioural intentions to revisit is insignificant, with P= 0.723 and β= 0.012. Likewise, the direct impact of perceived behavioural control is also insignificant, with P= 0.073 and β= 0.070. In addition, the indirect effect of subjective norms on tourists' behavioural intentions to revisit, mediated by tourists' satisfaction, with P= 0.468 and β= 0.006. The same applies to perceived behavioural control, which shows an indirect effect with P= 0.111 and β= 0.015. These findings indicate no significant mediating effect in the relationships examined, concluding that ***H_{16} and H_{17} are unsupported.***

The direct effect of tourist motivation on tourists' behavioural intentions to revisit is insignificant, with P= 0.145 and β= 0.076. However, the indirect effect of tourists' satisfaction is significant, with P < 0.001 and β= 0.049. The total effect of tourists' motivation on tourists' behavioural intentions to revisit also shows significant, with P < 0.001 and β= 0.125, indicating that tourist satisfaction is an important factor in explaining the relationship between tourists' motivation and behavioural intention to revisit. The VAF value showed 39.20%, indicating a partial mediation effect; therefore, the ***H_{18} is supported.***

Furthermore, the direct effect of tourists' destination image on behavioural intentions to revisit the destination, with P < 0.001 and β= 0.190, and the indirect effect of tourists' satisfaction, with P < 0.001 and β= 0.028, were found significant. Similarly, the direct effect of tourists' memorable experience on behavioural intentions to revisit, with P < 0.001 and β= 0.230, and the indirect effect of tourists' satisfaction, with P < 0.001 and β= 0.065, were also significant. This shows that the tourists' destination image and memorable experience significantly influence behavioural intentions to revisit the ICH resources. Since the VAF value of these constructs is 12.84% and 22.03%, it resulted in a partial mediation effect of tourists' satisfaction. Hence, the ***H_{19} and H_{20} are supported.***

Chapter 6

Factors Influencing Residents' Support for Cultural Tourism through ICH Resources

6.1 Introduction

Chapter 6 explores residents' vital role in developing and sustaining cultural tourism within their communities. As cultural tourism increasingly contributes to economic and social development, it is essential to understand residents' attitudes and support to create positive outcomes for visitors and host communities.

The chapter begins by understanding the theoretical framework of Social Exchange Theory (SET), construct measurement, and results highlighting how the perceptions and attitudes of local communities can significantly influence the success of tourism initiatives. Residents perceived cultural impact, attitudes and support encompass various factors in tourism planning and management. Furthermore, the chapter reviews the revised SET, which analyses the complex balance of perceived costs and benefits associated with tourism and how these factors shape residents' perceived cultural impact, attitudes and support for cultural tourism development.

6.2 Theoretical Framework

Conceptualising and operationalising theoretical perspectives are the major challenges in investigating the residents' support for cultural tourism. Previous studies mainly focused on the different factors and their relationships that contribute to the support of residents in developing tourism. Since various theories addressing human and personal interactions in sociology and social psychology have emerged, many have been applied to studying tourism and leisure (Auld & Case, 1997).

For instance, Kelly (1994) employed the symbolic interaction theory to investigate how leisure behaviours acquire meaning in social contexts. Pearce (1995) examined cultural interaction and exchange dynamics to guide tourist destinations' socio-cultural and

ecological sustainability. Similarly, Woodside et al. (2006) utilised ecological systems theory to analyse how different contextual factors influence individuals' thoughts and actions regarding work, leisure, and travel.

In addition, various theories have been applied to study the effects of these factors, including SET (Gursoy et al., 2002; Ko & Stewart, 2002; Látková & Vogt, 2012); stakeholder theory (Nicholas et al., 2009), and Weber's Theory of formal and substantive rationality (Boley et al., 2014). Among interaction-based theories in tourism, SET has dominated research in this area (Sharpley, 2014) to explain the positive and negative perceptions of the host community and is one of the most widely applied frameworks (Ap, 1992; Deccio & Baloglu, 2002; Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004).

6.2.1 Social Exchange Theory (SET)

6.2.1.1 Introduction to SET

SET was initially proposed by Homans (1958) as a theory of human and social behaviour and its role in the exchange process. It focuses on the cost-benefit relationship through the host communities. Homans (1958) defines social exchange as the exchange of activities, material or immaterial, gratifying or costly, between at least two people. Emerson (1962) considers the power-authority concept between the exchange processes of different actors. Blau (1964) considers social interaction a disguised process and thus has extended SET to understand how people and organisations interact to maximise benefits and minimise costs. Blau (1964) and Emerson (1962) were primary researchers who extended SET to understand how residents and organisations interact to maximise their rewards and minimise costs.

SET focuses on exchanging resources between individuals or groups during interactions, offering a lens through which to understand tourism-related relationships and transactions (Brinberg & Castell, 1982). Its introduction to tourism studies began with Long et al. (1990), who identified its potential to explain varying resident perceptions of tourism impacts. Ap (1992) further adapted SET, building on earlier sociological and economic models, to examine visitor-host interactions. Within a tourism context, the core principle of SET is that sustained interactions require a reciprocal flow of resources, material, social, or psychological, between participants (Ap, 1992).

Ap (1992) outlined ***four key stages in the exchange process:*** initiation, formation, transaction evaluation, and evaluation of consequences. The first stage of the exchange process is ***initiating an exchange,*** which occurs before an exchange occurs. According to SET, this stage is driven by an actor's motivation to satisfy a specific need; interaction is unlikely to occur absent this motivation.

Once an exchange is initiated, the second stage is the ***exchange formation****,* which encompasses three interconnected components: antecedents, the exchange relation, and the form of the exchange relation. The process moves into the formation stage, comprising antecedents, the exchange relation, and the exchange form. The antecedents refer to conditions or opportunities perceived by one or more participants before engaging in an exchange. During this stage, participants assess whether the exchange will yield benefits or rewards and aim to maximise these while ensuring resource equivalence. If inequity is perceived, participants may withdraw before resources are exchanged. However, the exchange relation is formed if the antecedents are deemed favourable. The exchange relation consists of multiple resource transactions, whether material, social, or psychological, that define the nature of the interaction. Not all exchanges are financial; they may involve intangible elements such as trust or emotional support. The "form of the exchange" relates to the power dynamics and dependency within the relationship, which emerge from a balanced or unbalanced resource exchange.

The third stage, ***transaction evaluation,*** occurs post-exchange (Ap, 1992). In this phase, participants assess the outcomes of the resource exchange, focusing on its immediate impact. They evaluate whether the exchange was equitable and whether their expectations were met. Participants may question the value of engaging in future exchanges if the transaction is perceived as unfair or unbalanced.

The fourth stage, the ***evaluation of consequences,*** also occurs post-exchange (Ap, 1992). At this stage, participants assess the broader implications of the exchange, including its impact on themselves, others, and their relationships. If the consequences are perceived negatively, such as fostering dissatisfaction or harm, participants might withdraw from future interactions unless compelled by dependence or necessity. Conversely, positive perceptions of the consequences can strengthen relationships and encourage further exchanges (Goldberg, 1980).

Research applying SET to tourism has primarily concentrated on two of these stages: initiation and consequence evaluation. Studies exploring initiation have focused on identifying community needs and levels of support for further tourism development (Sirakaya et al., 2002). Meanwhile, research on the consequences of exchanges has analysed the economic, environmental, and socio-cultural impacts of tourism on host communities (Guo et al., 2013; Martín et al., 2017; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Sinclair-Maragh et al., 2015; Wang & Xu, 2015). Much of this research has taken a macro-level perspective, focusing on collective entities, such as communities, rather than individuals (Chhabra, 2008). While valuable, this approach may overlook the complexities of individual-level interactions that underpin tourism exchanges.

SET also provides insights into residents' attitudes toward tourism development. According to Tam et al. (2013), a positive difference between perceived benefits and costs leads to favourable attitudes toward tourism, while a negative difference results in the opposite. SET posits that individuals' attitudes and support for tourism development depend on their evaluations of its impacts on themselves and their communities (Ward & Berno, 2011). Residents who perceive tourism's economic, environmental, or socio-cultural impacts positively are more likely to support its development, especially when their dependence on tourism is high (Vong, 2008; Weaver & Lawton, 2013).

Homans (1961) emphasised that exchanges often extend beyond material goods to intangible elements such as emotions or prestige. In tourism, satisfaction is a key outcome sought by residents and visitors, making applying SET particularly relevant. Ap (1992) highlighted that residents evaluate tourism development based on a cost-benefit analysis, with high resource exchange correlating with positive impacts. Conversely, when resource exchange is low, tourism is perceived more negatively. This evaluative framework underscores the significance of SET in understanding how communities and individuals respond to tourism development.

6.2.1.2 Application of SET in Tourism

SET proposes that individuals' attitudes towards tourism and their subsequent level of support for its development will be influenced by their assessment of tourism's outcomes for themselves and their communities (Ward & Berno, 2011). Numerous studies (Burns & Fridman, 2011; Chhabra, 2008; Chuang, 2010; Schofielf, 2010) have utilised SET to gain

deeper insights into tourist–host relationship dynamics. A study by Andriotis (2005) explains that if people perceive the benefits of tourism development outweigh the development costs, they will be more inclined to support it. Those who consider the positive effects of tourism are likely to have more favourable attitudes towards tourists and the tourism industry. In other words, the more dependent a person or community is on tourism development, the more positive their attitude towards it will be and vice versa (F. Vong, 2008). Therefore, a favourable perception of tourism implies more support for tourism and vice versa (Choi & Murray, 2010).

Burns and Fridman (2011) sought to explore residents' expectations and perceptions regarding the costs and benefits of the proposed South Downs National Park. Their study, grounded in SET, examined the perceptions and attitudes of key stakeholders towards tourism. Similarly, Schofielf (2010) applied SET to assess resident support for tourism development proposals and their perceived impacts in the Worsley area of Salford, England. In this context, SET provided insight into why residents strongly supported tourism development despite expressing negative attitudes toward its environmental impacts.

SET is well suited to explain residents' attitudes towards tourism because it emphasises exchanges between two or more individuals. Homans (1958) also asserts that trade can involve material goods and other intangibles such as anger, happiness, and prestige. The most preferred exchange outcome in the tourism context appears to be satisfied, but it is intangible only to residents and tourists. This is why tourism is accepted as a functional application of SET. Several studies have explained SET, considering the various factors influencing residents' perceptions and resident support for tourism development. These factors have been presented in Table 6. 1.

Table 6. 1 Factors Influencing Residents' Perceptions, Attitudes and Support for Tourism Development: A Review of Previous Research

Factors	Authors'
Community Attachment	Adongo et al. (2017); Brehm et al. (2004); Chen and Chen (2010b); Choi and Murray (2010); Eslami et al. (2019); Gursoy et al. (2002); Gursoy and Rutherford (2004); Lee (2013); López et al. (2018); Mccool and Martin (1994); and Nicholas et al. (2009)
Community Involvement	Choi and Murray (2010); Jaafar et al. (2017); Lee (2013); López et al. (2018); and Nicholas et al. (2009)
Community Participation	
Community Development	Andereck and Vogt (2000)
Community Concern	Gursoy et al. (2002) and Gursoy and Rutherford (2004)

Factors	Authors'
Overall Community Satisfaction	Ko and Stewart (2002); Vargas-Sánchez et al. (2011); and Vodeb et al. (2021)
Resident Characteristics	McGehee and Andereck (2004)
Community Tourism Dependence	
Perceived Positive Economic, Socio-Cultural, and Environmental Impact	Adongo et al. (2017); Andereck and Vogt (2000); Chen and Chen (2010b); Choi and Murray (2010); Eslami et al. (2019); Jaafar et al. (2015, 2017); Ko and Stewart (2002); Látková and Vogt, (2012); Martín et al., (2017); McGehee and Andereck (2004); Nunkoo and Gursoy (2012); Stylidis (2017); Tournois and Djeric (2018); and Vargas-Sánchez et al. (2011)
Perceived Negative Economic, Socio-Cultural, and Environmental Impact	
Place Attachment	Stylidis (2017); and Tournois and Djeric (2018)
Place Image	Tournois and Djeric (2018)
Perception of Place	Stylidis (2017)
Attitude towards Tourism	Çelik and Rasoolimanesh (2021); Martín et al. (2017); Mccool and Martin (1994); Rockett and Ramsey (2016); Walpole and Goodwin (2001); Wang and Xu (2015); and Wang and Pfister (2008)
Attitude towards Tourists	Martín et al. (2017); and Zamani-Farahani and Henderson (2014)
Attitude towards Conservation	Walpole and Goodwin (2001)
Environmental Attitude	Choi and Murray (2010) and Nicholas et al. (2009)
Occupational, Environmental, and Gender Identity	Nunkoo and Gursoy (2012)
Place Identity	Wang and Xu (2015)
Perceived Benefit	Adongo et al. (2017); Gursoy et al. (2002); Gursoy and Rutherford (2004); Látková and Vogt (2012); Lee (2013); López et al. (2018); Vargas-Sánchez et al. (2011); Walpole and Goodwin (2001); and Wang and Pfister (2008)
Personal Benefit	Ko and Stewart (2002); McGehee and Andereck (2004); Vargas-Sánchez et al. (2011); and Wang and Pfister (2008)
Perceived Cost	Gursoy et al. (2002); Gursoy and Rutherford (2004); and Lee (2013)
Perceived Future	Látková and Vogt (2012)
Cost-Benefit Attitude	Çelik and Rasoolimanesh (2021)
Support for Additional Tourism Development	Ko and Stewart (2002); Látková and Vogt (2012); McGehee and Andereck (2004); and Vargas-Sánchez et al. (2011)
Support for Restriction on Tourism Development	Látková and Vogt (2012)
Tourism Planning	Choi and Murray (2010)
Overall Quality of Life	Andereck and Vogt (2000); Eslami et al. (2019); and Liang and Hui (2016)
Economic Dependence	López et al. (2018)
Sense of Belonging	Jaafar et al. (2015)

Source: *Author's compilation based on previous research studies*

The studies based on SET concluded that in an exchange atmosphere, those who find tourism more beneficial will support it, and those who find it harmful will not support tourism development initiatives within their respective communities.

6.3 Revised SET Framework

The tourism industry has experienced rapid growth with significant support from local communities, both directly and indirectly. Tourism is widely recognised as a key driver of cultural and economic development, providing numerous opportunities for local communities (Hanafiah et al., 2013). Residents play a crucial role in tourism development strategies (Sharpley, 2014), as their support or opposition depends mainly on how they perceive tourism's positive and negative impacts (Ribeiro et al., 2017).

Securing local support is essential for the growth of tourism, as locals are crucial in affecting visitors' quality of experience (Guo et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2013; López et al., 2018). Despite extensive research on community support for tourism, the findings and policies from previous studies may not fully apply to cultural tourism destinations due to their unique characteristics. Tourism and travel can positively impact the lives of local people with increased incomes, more job opportunities, better standards of living, better public infrastructure, such as recreational facilities, and recreation and preservation of local customs (Ko & Stewart, 2002). Tourism can also negatively affect local communities by increasing living costs, property prices, overcrowding, traffic congestion, and rising crime and drug use (Ko & Stewart, 2002; Látková & Vogt, 2012; Tosun, 2002).

By focusing on the positive impacts of tourism, communities can be motivated to support tourism development while highlighting perceived adverse effects that can reduce people's support for tourism development (Sharpley, 2014). These positive and negative perceptions are influenced by many factors extensively studied in the literature (Andereck et al., 2005; Gursoy et al., 2002; Ko & Stewart, 2002; Látková & Vogt, 2012; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Nicholas et al., 2009; Wang & Pfister, 2008).

Due to its essential role in tourism development and management in a tourist destination (Sharpley, 2014), residents' awareness, attitudes, and support for tourism have been widely considered in the context of tourism (Adongo et al., 2017; Çelik & Rasoolimanesh, 2021; Choi & Murray, 2010; Hanafiah et al., 2013; Huong & Lee, 2017; Martín et al., 2017; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Milman, 2004; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Papastathopoulos et al., 2019; Stylidis, 2017; Walpole & Goodwin, 2001; Yoon et al., 2001). Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2010a, 2010b) suggest that dividing tourism impact into economic, socio-cultural, and environmental categories would clarify relationships between these

dimensions. However, López et al. (2018) used perceived socio-economic and cultural benefits as sub-indicators of perceived benefits that influence resident support.

The SET has been widely used to understand residents' responses to tourism phenomena in host communities. Andereck et al. (2005) and Ward and Berno (2011) consider that the SET framework may provide an incomplete approach to resident attitudes. In this sense, Woosnam et al. (2009) highlight that SET examines resident attitudes based merely on a cost-benefit perspective or, in other words, in terms of a trade-off between the favourable impacts and negative impacts perceived by residents (Zhang et al., 2006). Some SET theory studies have found mixed results, with no significant relationships between resident perceptions and attitudes (Andereck et al., 2005; McGehee & Andereck, 2004). This fact has led to an alternative approach to resident attitudes focused on the interactions between local people and tourists, considered the essence of tourism (Sharpley, 2014; Yu & Lee, 2014), in a more emotional and individual sense.

In tourism research, community attachment and involvement influence residents' perceptions and support for sustainable tourism development (Lee, 2013). Residents, community attachment, and their involvement are scarcely taken into the SET framework even though these factors are found to be significant in explaining the relationship with residents' support for tourism development (Gogitidze et al., 2023; Obradović & Tešin, 2023). Similarly, perceived cultural impact and resident attitude are mostly taken as direct factors that influence the support for tourism development, neglecting the indirect relationship between the constructs.

Therefore, a need arises to study how these factors can mediate in the SET framework. Thus, following the approach of 'host-guest interactions' provided by Martín et al. (2017) and Vargas-Sánchez et al. (2015) further revises the SET framework by considering the 'perception-attitude-support' for the cultural tourism sequence model. Unlike past studies by Martín et al. (2017), which focuses on the behavioural support of tourism, the present study further examines the mediating role of perception and attitude between the constructs. Therefore, using the revised SET framework, this study presents more elaborate views from the residents' perspectives toward support for cultural tourism.

Below is a detailed explanation of the factors influencing residents' perceived cultural impact, attitudes, and support for cultural tourism and the formulated hypotheses.

6.3.1 The Influence of Residents' Community Attachment on Their Perceived Cultural Impact and Support for Cultural Tourism

A sociologist, Brehm et al. (2004) defined community attachment as people's strong positive feelings, rootedness, and sense of belongingness to their community. It is individuals' connection or ties towards a community at an emotional or affective level, based on how they are assimilated into community life. A stronger attachment to the community has been thought to strongly influence concerns about whether tourism will benefit the local community (Andereck et al., 2005). Such ideas have been employed in tourist support models to investigate the effects on residents' perceptions of tourism impact and attitudes toward the tourism business (Adongo et al., 2017; Gabriel Brida et al., 2014). The study by Eslami et al. (2019) and Nicholas et al. (2009) revealed that community attachment significantly influenced positive perceived economic, social, and environmental impact and their influence on increased support for tourism development.

Adongo et al. (2017) have found that stronger community attachment leads to more positive attitudes towards tourism impacts and support for tourism development. Chen and Chen (2010b) and López et al. (2018) have also attempted to study the relationship between the degree of attachment to the community, perceived benefits, and support for tourism development. Furthermore, Choi and Murray (2010) hypothesised that community attachment positively correlates with the level of support for current and is inversely related to the negative impacts of tourism. Building on these insights, this study integrates community attachment as a potential predictor of residents' perceived cultural impacts and their support for cultural tourism in the SET framework. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H_{21}: *Residents' community attachment significantly influences their perceived cultural impact.*

H_{22}: *Residents' community attachment significantly influences their support for cultural tourism.*

6.3.2 The Influence of Residents' Community Involvement on Their Perceived Cultural Impact and Support for Cultural Tourism

Community involvement is the degree to which people of a community work together to achieve common goals that benefit everyone (Jaafar et al., 2015). Scholars have analysed the extent to which individuals feel involved in the tourism development of their place (Çelik & Rasoolimanesh, 2021; Lee, 2013; Nicholas et al., 2009; Rasoolimanesh & Jaafar, 2016). It is noteworthy that local issues can directly affect the tourist experience and, consequently, the tourist image of the destination.

Past researchers have employed perceived benefits and costs as the intermediate factors linking the backing for community involvement and support for tourism development, such as Nicholas et al. (2009) found that community involvement does not substantially influence perceived impact nor resident support for tourism development in Pitons Management Area (PMA), a world heritage site. At the same time, it is inversely related to the negative impacts of tourism on support for tourism development (Choi & Murray, 2010). However, Lee (2013), López et al. (2018), and Orgaz-Agüera et al. (2022) indicated that community involvement plays a significant role in shaping residents' support for tourism activities. Regrettably, the intervening repercussions of community involvement on perceived cultural impact and support for cultural tourism have yet to be witnessed in the SET framework. Hence, it is valuable to scrutinise this direct correlation.

H_{23}: *Residents' community involvement significantly influences their perceived cultural impact.*
H_{24}: *Residents' community involvement significantly influences their support for cultural tourism.*

6.3.3 The Influence of Residents' Perceived Cultural Impact on Their Attitude and Support for Cultural Tourism

In SET, research on residents' perceptions of tourism impacts consistently shows mixed economic, socio-cultural, and environmental effects (Látková & Vogt, 2012; McGehee & Andereck, 2004). Residents' awareness, perceptions, and support for tourism are crucial factors in developing and managing sustainable tourism in any destination (Çelik & Rasoolimanesh, 2021; Huong & Lee, 2017; Sharpley, 2014). In Thailand, residents viewed cultural preservation and economic benefits as top priorities (Mcdowall & Choi, 2010).

Residents' perceptions of cultural benefits have realised a substantial positive cultural benefit in managing the byway area to enhance and preserve, such as safeguarding traditional folklore and helping locals learn more about culture (Besculides et al., 2002) and thus directly influencing the resident support for tourism (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004). Moreover, almost without exception, studies of residents' perceptions focus on all three dimensions of perceived impact, that is, economic, sociocultural, and environmental impact, which are used to predict residents' support for tourism (Eslami et al., 2019; Lee, 2013; Nunkoo, 2016; Sharma et al., 2008; Sinclair-Maragh et al., 2015; Stylidis, 2017; Wang & Xu, 2015).

Residents' support is indispensable to avoid threatening sustainable tourism (Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Roxas et al., 2020). Chen and Chen (2010b) and Rasoolimanesh et al. (2015) also studied residents' positive and negative perceptions of tourism and found that such perceptions strongly influenced the support for tourism. Residents' attitudes toward tourism are influenced mainly by perceptions. Numerous studies have also examined how resident perceptions of tourism impacts influence their attitudes toward tourism in revising the SET (Dyer et al., 2007; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Vargas-Sánchez et al., 2015). These studies typically categorise tourism's economic, socio-cultural, and environmental impacts with positive and negative influences on resident attitudes (Nunkoo, 2016; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012).

Although most studies have focused on the residents' attitudes towards tourism, very few have focused on the influence of perceived impact on resident attitudes towards tourists. For instance, Martín et al. (2017) agreed and distinguished between residents' specific perceptions of the positive and negative impacts of tourism activities on their communities and their overall attitudes toward the tourism phenomenon resulting from these perceptions.

By referencing the concept of "affective attitudes towards tourists" proposed by Martín et al. (2017), this study also considers it necessary to examine the residents' attitudes towards tourists. Therefore, it makes sense that residents are more likely to support tourism initiatives if they perceive benefits from tourists' arrivals. Very limited work is carried out focusing on perceived cultural impact. Therefore, such perceptions are used to better understand the nature and formation of this critical issue that needs to be managed in the tourism development strategies of the region. The study proposes the following hypotheses.

H_{25}: *Residents' perceived cultural impact significantly influences their support for cultural tourism.*

H_{26}: *Residents' perceived cultural impact significantly influences their attitude toward cultural tourism.*

H_{27}: *Residents' perceived cultural impact significantly influences their attitudes toward cultural tourists.*

6.3.4 The Influence of Residents' Attitude towards Cultural Tourism on Their Support for Cultural Tourism

The relationship between residents' attitudes toward tourism and their perceptions of tourism's economic, socio-cultural, and environmental impacts is frequently explained in the SET framework (Dyer et al., 2007; Gursoy & Kendall, 2006), suggesting that both tourists and residents engage in exchange to achieve beneficial outcomes (Sharpley, 2018). Suppose residents perceive the positive effects of tourism as outweighing the negative impacts. In that case, they are more likely to have a positive attitude, and thus, such an attitude supports tourism development in their communities (Sharpley, 2014).

The study explores how residents' attitudes influence their support for cultural tourism, especially in the revised SET framework. Importantly, research has shown that resident attitudes vary based on the type of tourism and the stage of tourism development (Bujosa Bestard et al., 2007; Vargas-Sánchez et al., 2009), making it crucial to develop a detailed model that can accurately reflect the complex realities of any host community. Therefore, the study proposes the following hypothesis.

H_{28}: *Residents' attitude towards cultural tourism significantly influences their support for cultural tourism.*

6.3.5 The Influence of Residents' Attitude toward Cultural Tourists on Their Support for Cultural Tourism

In 1997, Lindberg and Johnson introduced the idea that residents' pleasure in interacting with tourists influenced their attitudes. Similarly, Teye et al. (2002) identified a link between residents' feelings from interacting with tourists and their attitudes toward tourism. Woosnam et al. (2009) developed the emotional solidarity framework to examine how emotional connections with tourists shape residents' attitudes. They emphasised that

residents' emotional solidarity with tourists arises from shared interactions and beliefs. Later, Woosnam (2011, 2012) empirically demonstrated a positive relationship between emotional solidarity and support for tourism.

While much of the literature has focused on cognitive attitudes toward tourism (Stylianou-Lambert et al., 2014; Stylidis, 2017; Vargas-Sánchez et al., 2015), there is a need to examine residents' affective attitudes toward tourists' (Palmer et al., 2013). Therefore, the study aims to enrich the literature by establishing a link between residents' perceptions of cultural tourism's impacts and their attitudes toward tourists. This study argues that resident-tourist interactions are crucial in shaping residents' support for cultural tourism. Favourable evaluations of these interactions will likely influence how residents positively support cultural tourism development. Consequently, this study revised the SET model by adopting resident attitudes toward cultural tourists and their support for cultural tourism. Thus, the study proposes the following hypothesis.

H_{29}: *Residents' attitude toward cultural tourists significantly influences their support for cultural tourism.*

6.3.6 Simple Mediating Effect of Residents' Perceived Cultural Impact

Recent studies have focused on exploring the direct relationships influencing resident support for tourism development (Choi & Murray, 2010; López et al., 2018; Martín et al., 2017; Stylidis, 2017). Some studies have explored the complex relationships between residents' perceptions, attitudes, and support for tourism development. Such as Eslami et al. (2019) found that perceived socio-cultural and economic impacts influenced residents' material, non-material, and quality of life, affecting support for sustainable tourism development.

A study by Nunkoo and Gursoy (2012) tests the mediating effects of attitudes on the positive and negative impacts on the relationship between occupational identity and support for tourism, and the mediating effects of attitudes on the negative impacts on the relationship between gender identity and support for tourism. These studies highlight the importance of understanding indirect relationships between various constructs in SET in shaping residents' perceived cultural impact, attitudes, and support for tourism development. Therefore, the simple mediating effect between the constructs has been hypothesised as follows:

H_{30}: *Residents' perceived cultural impact has mediated the relationships between residents' community attachment and their support for cultural tourism.*
H_{31}: *Residents' perceived cultural impact has mediated the relationships between residents' community involvement and their support for cultural tourism.*

6.3.7 Parallel Mediation Effect of Residents' Attitude towards Cultural Tourism and Tourists

Residents' attitudes towards tourism and tourists are important for destination development (Milman, 2004). Residents' attitudes towards tourism development have received increasing interest from academicians, policymakers, and tourism industry managers. Previous researchers have studied the factors that directly impact the residents' attitude toward tourism development (H. S. Martín et al., 2017; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012).

However, the indirect impact of resident attitudes towards tourism and tourists has been largely ignored. Gursoy and Rutherford (2004) observe that although much of the research on residents' reactions has lacked a theoretical foundation, several researchers have explored the topic using various theoretical frameworks. In this context, a review of the existing literature has revealed the application of diverse modelling approaches, which establish quantifiable relationships between this dependent variable and other factors considered independent variables.

Residents' perceptions of cultural impact often shape their attitudes toward cultural tourism development in their locality. Positive cultural impacts, such as the preservation of local heritage, promotion of cultural pride, and economic benefits from tourism, tend to foster favourable attitudes among residents, thereby increasing their support for cultural tourism initiatives. According to Gursoy and Rutherford (2004), residents are more likely to support tourism development when they perceive it as a cultural preservation and community enhancement tool. Similarly, research by (Andereck et al., 2005; McGehee & Andereck, 2004) emphasises that positive perceptions of cultural tourism significantly influence residents' attitudes and willingness to endorse tourism activities.

Favourable attitudes toward cultural tourists can emerge when tourists are perceived as appreciative and respectful of the host culture. This, in turn, strengthens the link between perceived positive cultural impacts and residents' support for tourism. (Stylidis, 2017)

suggest that positive interactions between residents and tourists can foster mutual respect and understanding, thereby encouraging greater resident support for tourism activities.

The resident attitude towards tourists and tourism underscores the importance of fostering positive resident perceptions of cultural impacts and tourists to ensure sustainable support for cultural tourism. This aligns with Jani (2018) and Özel and Kozak (2017), where SET posits that residents' support for tourism is contingent on their evaluation of its benefits and costs. When residents perceive cultural tourism as beneficial and view tourists positively, their attitudes act as mediators, channelling these perceptions into tangible support for tourism development.

H_{32}: *Residents' attitude toward cultural tourism mediates the relationships between residents' perceived cultural impact and their support for cultural tourism.*
H_{33}: *Residents' attitudes toward cultural tourists mediate the relationships between residents' perceived cultural impact and their support for cultural tourism.*

6.3.8 Serial Mediation Effect of Residents' Perceived Cultural Impact, their Attitude towards Cultural Tourism and Tourists

Using the SET framework, Gannon et al. (2020) demonstrated that residents' perceptions of tourism impacts mediated the relationships between community attachment, environmental attitudes, and economic gain on support for tourism development. Su et al. (2018) showed that destination social responsibility enhanced residents' perception of positive tourism impacts, indirectly increasing support for tourism and perceived quality of life. Another study by Çelik and Rasoolimanesh (2021) concluded that cost-benefit attitude significantly mediated the relationship between positive impact and support for tourism development. Moreover, Sher et al. (2015) revealed that perceived benefits and costs mediate the relationship between community attachment, involvement, and support for sustainable tourism.

Further, due to the overlapping concepts of attitude and perception (Sharpley, 2014), the previous research fails to examine how the attitude of residents can affect the relationships between community attachment, community involvement, residents' perceived impact, and support for tourism, especially in cultural tourism. Limited research based on SET has empirically evident the influence of resident perceptions of tourism's impacts on their attitudes toward tourism or their attitudinal support (Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Sharma et al.,

2008; Vargas-Sánchez et al., 2015; Wang & Xu, 2015; Yoon et al., 2001). These studies highlight the importance of understanding the direct and indirect relationships between various constructs in shaping community attachment, community involvement, residents perceived cultural impact, attitudes, and support for tourism development. Therefore, the serial mediating effect between the constructs has been hypothesised as follows:

H_{34}: *The relationship between residents' community attachment and support for cultural tourism is serially mediated by residents' perceived cultural impact and their attitude towards cultural tourism.*

H_{35}: *The relationship between residents' community attachment and support for cultural tourism is serially mediated by residents' perceived cultural impact and their attitudes towards cultural tourists.*

H_{36}: *The relationship between residents' community involvement and support for cultural tourism is serially mediated by residents' perceived cultural impact and their attitudes towards cultural tourism.*

H_{37}: *The relationship between residents' community involvement and support for cultural tourism is serially mediated by residents' perceived cultural impact and their attitudes towards cultural tourists.*

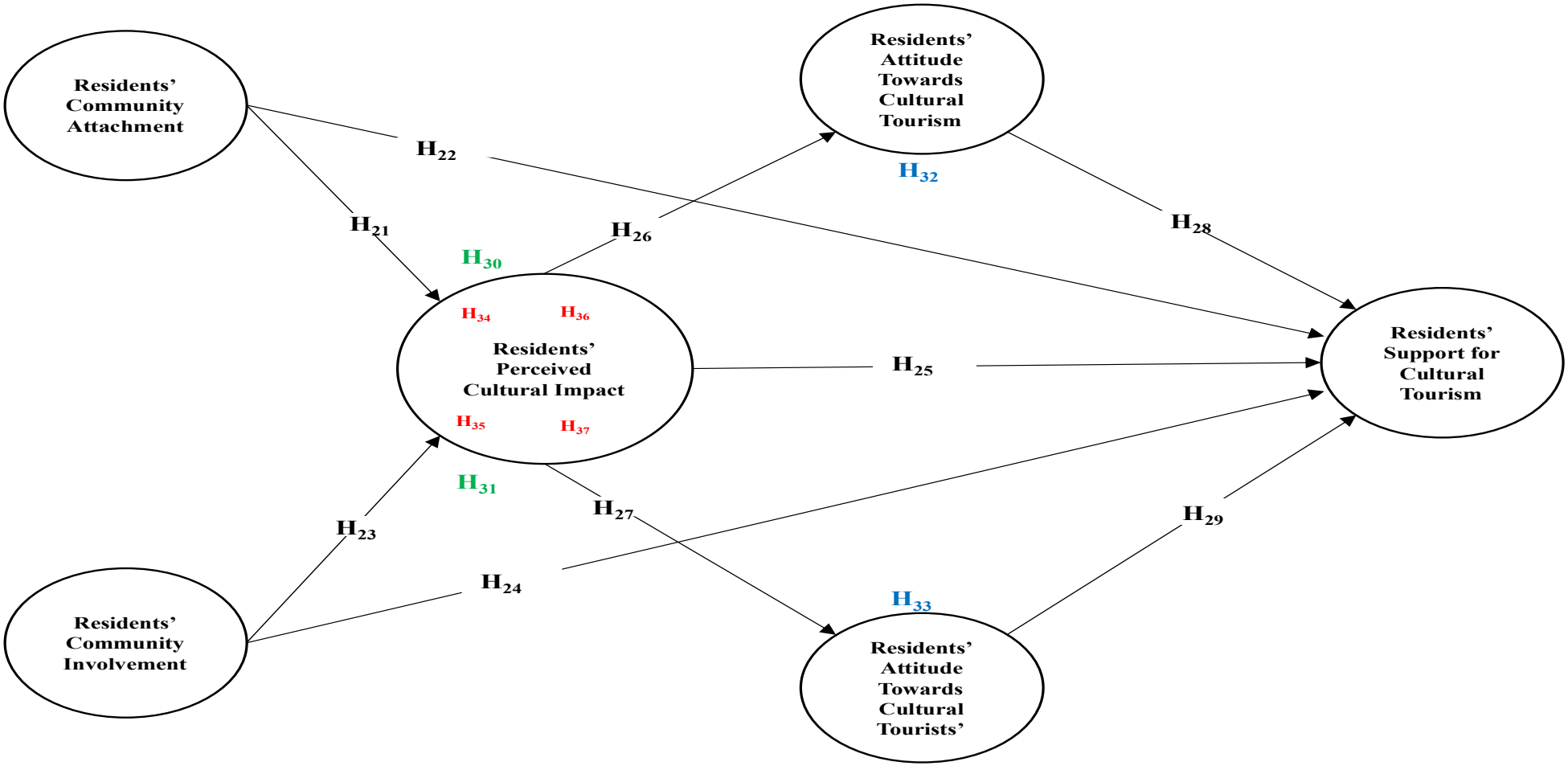


Figure 6. 1 Conceptual Research Model- Revised Framework of SET

Source: *Author's compilation*

Note: *Direct Relationships Hypotheses are highlighted in* ***Black;*** *Simple Mediating Relationships Hypotheses are highlighted in* ***Green;*** *Parallel Mediating Relationships Hypotheses are highlighted in* ***Blue;*** *Serial Mediating Relationships Hypotheses are Highlighted in* ***Red***

Figure 6. 1 illustrates the conceptual model of the revised SET for resident support for cultural tourism based on the hypotheses drawn. It is assumed that support for cultural tourism is influenced by perceived cultural impact, community attachment, community involvement, attitude toward cultural tourism, and attitude toward cultural tourists. Further, it is also assumed that perceived cultural impact is parallel mediated between community attachment, community involvement and support for cultural tourism. Similarly, attitude toward cultural tourism tourists is mediated between perceived cultural impact and support for cultural tourism. In addition, a serial mediation effect of perceived cultural impact, attitude toward cultural tourism, and attitude toward cultural tourists between community attachment, community involvement and support for cultural tourism is assumed. Thus, the study contributes to the revised framework of SET, which has historically been an underutilised approach for analysing community support for cultural tourism.

Additionally, this study addresses the gap in the literature concerning cultural tourism in developing regions, where research has been comparatively sparse. It offers new insights into how communities in these areas engage with cultural tourism and how these communities will get cultural and economic benefits. This is particularly valuable as much of the existing SET research has focused on developed nations, leaving the dynamics in developing regions underexplored. The findings contribute to this limited work by providing evidence from Goa, a culturally rich yet developing destination, broadening SET's global theoretical and practical implications in cultural tourism research. Moreover, this study guides future research, encouraging the use of SET in diverse cultural sustainability and geographical contexts.

6.4 Results and Interpretation

6.4.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Table 6. 2 Shows the Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents (n=467)

	Attributes	Frequency (n)	Percent (%)
Gender	Male	254	54.4
	Female	213	45.6
Age (In Years)	18-30	178	38.1
	31-44	155	33.2
	45-59	121	25.9
	60 and above	13	2.8

Attributes		Frequency (n)	Percent (%)
Occupation	Government Employee	126	27.0
	Private Employee	145	31.0
	Business	60	12.8
	Other	136	29.2
Marital Status	Married	287	61.5
	Unmarried	180	38.5
Education Qualification	Up to 10th Grade	77	16.5
	12th Grade	120	25.7
	Graduation	117	25.1
	Post Graduation	123	26.3
	Other	30	6.4
Annual Income	< Rs. 4 Lakh	337	72.2
	Rs. 4-8 Lakh	96	20.6
	> Rs. 8 Lakh	34	7.3
Family Composition (No. of Members)	One	9	1.9
	Two	63	13.5
	Three	89	19.1
	Four	306	65.5
Residential Area	Rural	364	77.9
	Urban	103	22.1
Length of Residency (In Years)	< 10	42	9.0
	10-20	61	13.1
	20-30	130	27.8
	> 30	234	50.1

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

The analysis in Table 6. 2 provides a glimpse into the demographic profiles of residents. It indicates that 54.4% of the residents are male, with the largest age group being 18-30 years old, comprising 38.1% of the respondents. Those aged 60 and above represent the smallest group at 2.8%. Regarding occupation, private employees comprise the most considerable portion at 31%, followed by a category named "other" at 29.2%, including homemakers, unemployed individuals, and retirees. Businessmen represent the smallest group at 12.8%. Furthermore, 61.5% of the respondents are married, while 38.5% are unmarried or single.

Most residents hold the highest qualifications, with 26.3% possessing postgraduate qualifications, 25.7% having completed 12th grade, and 25.1% holding graduation degrees. A smaller percentage, 16.5%, hold an SSC degree, and 6.4% fall into the "other" category, which includes individuals with diplomas and similar credentials. Regarding annual income, 72.2% of residents earn less than four lakhs, while only 7.3% earn more than eight lakhs annually. 65.5% of residents have families with more than four members, with only 1.9% living alone. Regarding the residential area, 77.9% of residents live in rural areas, while

22.1% reside in urban areas. Finally, 50.1% have lived in their current residence for over 30 years.

6.4.2 Data Distribution and Normality

Table 6. 3 shows the multicollinearity tests based on the VIF, data distribution based on mean and SD, and normalisation based on skewness and kurtosis. The VIF value of all the variables is in the bracket of 1.424 (CI1) to 3.999 (CI3), which shows that the variables have no multicollinearity issue. The overall lowest mean value is 3.548 (CI4), and the highest mean value is 5.343 (CA1) among the constructs. In the case of SD, the lowest SD value is 1.386 (SFCT1), and the highest SD value is 1.851 (CI4). This denotes that the lowest SD value is far from its mean value.

Table 6. 3 Shows the Multicollinearity Test Result and Summary Statistics of the Variables

Constructs	Variable Codes	VIF	Mean	SD	Kurtosis	Skewness
Resident's Community Attachment (CA)	CA1	2.157	5.343	1.614	0.509	-1.072
	CA2	3.275	5.266	1.661	-0.123	-0.843
	CA3	3.195	4.951	1.714	-0.607	-0.581
	CA4	2.163	4.651	1.676	-0.660	-0.438
Residents' Community Involvement (CI)	CI1	1.424	4.769	1.764	-0.565	-0.627
	CI2	2.170	3.679	1.744	-1.041	0.111
	CI3	3.999	3.486	1.834	-1.094	0.243
	CI4	3.127	3.458	1.851	-1.066	0.308
Residents' Perceived Cultural Impact (PCI)	PCI1	1.958	4.497	1.562	-0.414	-0.443
	PCI2	2.018	4.610	1.655	-0.384	-0.636
	PCI3	3.017	4.730	1.577	-0.408	-0.557
	PCI4	3.136	4.839	1.678	-0.435	-0.634
Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural Tourism (ACT)	ACT1	1.815	4.891	1.475	-0.055	-0.615
	ACT2	2.930	4.859	1.595	-0.351	-0.577
	ACT3	3.262	4.737	1.634	-0.802	-0.375
	ACT4	2.263	4.797	1.569	-0.526	-0.465
Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural Tourists (ATCT)	ATCT1	2.013	4.713	1.625	-0.524	-0.542
	ATCT2	2.699	4.700	1.686	-0.748	-0.452
	ATCT3	3.063	4.737	1.567	-0.572	-0.453
	ATCT4	2.981	4.979	1.591	-0.432	-0.544
	ATCT5	2.452	4.827	1.559	-0.285	-0.635
Residents' Support for Cultural Tourism (SFCT)	SFCT1	1.949	5.182	1.386	0.930	-1.016
	SFCT2	2.359	4.946	1.476	-0.006	-0.621
	SFCT3	3.113	5.049	1.482	0.204	-0.786
	SFCT4	2.712	5.274	1.484	0.415	-0.971

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: VIF- *Variance Inflation Factor;* ***SD-*** *Standard Deviation*

Further, the kurtosis values lie between -1.094 (CI3) and 0.930 (CA1). In contrast, the skewness value ranges between -1.072 (CA1) and 0.308 (CI4), indicating that the values are in the threshold limit of -2 to +2 (Curran et al., 1996; George & Mallery, 2010; Henly, 1993).

6.4.3 Testing of Biasness in the Data

Table 6. 4 Shows the Result of Common Method Bias using the Harman Single Factor Method

Constructs	Variable Codes	Initial Eigen Values		
		Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Residents' Community Attachment (CA)	CA1	11.787	47.149	47.149
	CA2	1.950	7.801	54.950
	CA3	1.532	6.127	61.077
	CA4	1.336	5.342	66.419
Residents' Community Involvement (CI)	CI1	1.117	4.468	70.887
	CI2	1.003	4.012	74.899
	CI3	0.586	2.342	77.241
	CI4	0.520	2.080	79.321
Residents' Perceived Cultural Impact (PCI)	PCI1	0.498	1.992	81.313
	PCI2	0.468	1.872	83.185
	PCI3	0.442	1.766	84.951
	PCI4	0.423	1.692	86.643
Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural Tourism (ACT)	ACT1	0.417	1.670	88.313
	ACT2	0.375	1.500	89.813
	ACT3	0.351	1.404	91.218
	ACT4	0.323	1.292	92.509
Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural Tourists (ATCT)	ATCT1	0.282	1.128	93.638
	ATCT2	0.255	1.022	94.660
	ATCT3	0.245	0.979	95.639
	ATCT4	0.238	0.952	96.591
	ATCT5	0.200	0.800	97.392
Residents' Support for Cultural Tourism (SFCT)	SFCT1	0.184	0.737	98.129
	SFCT2	0.176	0.702	98.831
	SFCT3	0.155	0.621	99.451
	SFCT4	0.137	0.549	100

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

The evaluation in Table 6. 4, shows that the cumulative extraction sums of squared loadings value are 47.149%, confirming that they represent their corresponding factor and unbiased data, as it is below the threshold limit of 50%. Therefore, the selected constructs can be used for further analysis due to biased-free data.

6.4.4 Reliability and Validity of Measurement Model

The results of the model's reliability and convergent validity tests are presented in Table 6. 5, show that all the CA surpassed the recommendation of 0.70 (Cronbach, 1951), as the values of CA range from 0.855 (CI) to 0.906 (ATCT).

Table 6. 5 Shows the Reliability and Convergent Validity of Resident Perspectives

Constructs and Variables	SL
Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural Tourism (ACT) [CA= 0.883; CR= 0.884; AVE= 0.741]	
ACT1 <- If cultural activities develop, then various other activities will increase even more	0.800
ACT2 <- Cultural tourism offers a significant opportunity to understand different societies and culture	0.886
ACT3 <- If cultural tourism develops, then there will be more cultural exchange between tourists and local people	0.900
ACT4 <- If cultural tourism develops, it will have more positive effects on our cultural identity	0.854
Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural Tourists (ATCT) [CA= 0.906; CR= 0.909; AVE= 0.728]	
ATCT1 <- The majority of tourists are interested in and respect our culture	0.799
ATCT2 <- I like to meet tourists from as many countries as possible	0.854
ATCT3 <- I can extend my cultural experiences when I interact with tourist	0.881
ATCT4 <- I am happy that tourists come to see our cultural activities	0.880
ATCT5 <- I feel there is no adverse effect on me when visiting tourist destination	0.849
Residents' Community Attachment (CA) [CA= 0.894; CR= 0.898; AVE= 0.760]	
CA1 <- Living at the current place means a lot to me	0.833
CA2 <- I am very much attached to the place where I stay	0.908
CA3 <- I feel a strong sense of belonging to the place where I stay	0.900
CA4 <- Many of my friends and family prefer this community over other communities	0.843
Residents' Community Involvement (CI) [CA= 0.855; CR= 0.856; AVE= 0.698]	
CI1 <- I participate in cultural-related activities	0.760
CI2 <- I am involved in research for the development of Goan culture	0.842
CI3 <- I am involved in the planning and management of cultural activities	0.890
CI4 <- I am involved in the decision-making for cultural activities	0.844
Residents' Perceived Cultural Impact (PCI) [CA= 0.883; CR= 0.886; AVE= 0.741]	
PCI1 <- I believe there is a development of cultural activities in my region/community	0.832
PCI2 <- I believe there is a cultural exchange between tourists and residents	0.826
PCI3 <- I believe there is a preservation of local culture	0.885
PCI4 <- I believe there is a positive effect on cultural identity	0.898
Residents' Support for Cultural Tourism (SFCT) [CA= 0.889; CR= 0.892; AVE= 0.750]	
SFCT1 <- I recommend the cultural activities to the tourists and other visitors	0.823
SFCT2 <- I offer my assistance to cultural events/activities to be organised	0.857
SFCT3 <- I favour building a new form of tourism activities, such as cultural events, folklore, and other historically based attractions, which will attract more tourists	0.900
SFCT4 <- I support cultural tourism and would like to see it become an important part of my community	0.882

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: SL- *Standardised Loadings;* ***CA-*** *Cronbach Alpha;* ***CR-*** *Composite Reliability;* ***AVE-*** *Average Variance Extracted*

Table 6. 5 also shows that the CR for the constructs ranges between 0.856 (CI) and 0.909 (ATCT), which is above the recommended threshold of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2012, 2013); thus, the measurement model has satisfactory internal consistency reliability. Furthermore, the AVE was estimated for every construct to be higher than 0.50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 6. 5 shows that all the constructs have substantial AVE scores within the thumb rule of ≥ 0.50, ranging from 0.698 (CI) to 0.760 (CA). The findings revealed that all variables were meaningfully linked to their hypothesised variables, and the size of every SD was above 0.70 (Anderson et al., 1988).

Table 6. 6 Shows the Discriminant Validity- Fornell-Larcker Criterion

Constructs	ACT	ATCT	CA	CI	PCI	SFCT
ACT	0.861					
ATCT	0.670	0.853				
CA	0.540	0.525	0.872			
CI	0.475	0.485	0.529	0.835		
PCI	0.582	0.600	0.538	0.556	0.861	
SFCT	0.675	0.689	0.555	0.510	0.558	0.866

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: ACT- *Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural Tourism;* ***ATCT-*** *Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural tourists;* ***CA-*** *Residents' Community Attachment;* ***CI-*** *Residents' Community Involvement;* ***PCI-*** *Residents' Perceived Cultural Impact;* ***SFCT-*** *Residents' Support for Cultural Tourism*

The discriminant validity is examined in Table 6. 6 shows that the shared variance between pairs of constructs was lower than the linked AVE. This suggests that the square root of a specific construct's AVE exceeds the corresponding constructs' intercorrelations score (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 6. 7 Shows the Discriminant Validity- Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (HTMT) – Matrix

Constructs	ACT	ATCT	CA	CI	PCI	SFCT
ACT						
ATCT	0.747					
CA	0.605	0.582				
CI	0.539	0.542	0.592			
PCI	0.656	0.667	0.604	0.631		
SFCT	0.759	0.764	0.621	0.575	0.627	

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: ACT- *Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural Tourism;* ***ATCT-*** *Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural tourists;* ***CA-*** *Residents' Community Attachment;* ***CI-*** *Residents' Community Involvement;* ***PCI-*** *Residents' Perceived Cultural Impact;* ***SFCT-*** *Residents' Support for Cultural Tourism*

The HTMT ratio method, shown in Table 6. 7, was also applied to assess discriminant validity. In this case, the maximum HTMT ratio of the correlation value is 0.764, below the most conservative critical HTMT value of 0.85.

Table 6. 8 Shows Cross Loadings

Codes and Constructs	ACT	ATCT	CA	CI	PCI	SFCT
ACT1	0.800	0.545	0.435	0.370	0.459	0.568
ACT2	0.886	0.539	0.474	0.402	0.485	0.576
ACT3	0.900	0.582	0.493	0.421	0.529	0.586
ACT4	0.854	0.635	0.454	0.437	0.529	0.592
ATCT1	0.517	0.799	0.422	0.365	0.483	0.512
ATCT2	0.560	0.854	0.417	0.395	0.474	0.564
ATCT3	0.591	0.881	0.465	0.426	0.499	0.608
ATCT4	0.636	0.880	0.487	0.441	0.547	0.622
ATCT5	0.547	0.849	0.446	0.433	0.547	0.622
CA1	0.409	0.432	0.833	0.383	0.436	0.439
CA2	0.544	0.510	0.908	0.472	0.509	0.523
CA3	0.472	0.452	0.900	0.459	0.463	0.481
CA4	0.447	0.432	0.843	0.526	0.464	0.490
CI1	0.437	0.461	0.551	0.760	0.521	0.494
CI2	0.382	0.352	0.407	0.842	0.432	0.431
CI3	0.372	0.399	0.406	0.890	0.419	0.390
CI4	0.376	0.386	0.369	0.844	0.462	0.362
PCI1	0.509	0.514	0.486	0.533	0.832	0.495
PCI2	0.431	0.464	0.438	0.455	0.826	0.440
PCI3	0.503	0.526	0.454	0.453	0.885	0.488
PCI4	0.553	0.556	0.472	0.473	0.898	0.495
SFCT1	0.568	0.587	0.461	0.378	0.471	0.823
SFCT2	0.514	0.559	0.456	0.437	0.440	0.857
SFCT3	0.608	0.611	0.502	0.463	0.483	0.900
SFCT4	0.639	0.626	0.503	0.485	0.535	0.882

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: ***ACT-*** *Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural Tourism;* ***ATCT-*** *Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural tourists;* ***CA-*** *Residents' Community Attachment;* ***CI-*** *Residents' Community Involvement;* ***PCI-*** *Residents' Perceived Cultural Impact;* ***SFCT-*** *Residents' Support for Cultural Tourism*

The study confirmed substantial discriminant validity at both the variable and construct levels. Each variable's loading within its construct was significantly higher than its cross-loadings, supporting the model's validity and reliability.

6.4.5 Structural Model of SET Framework

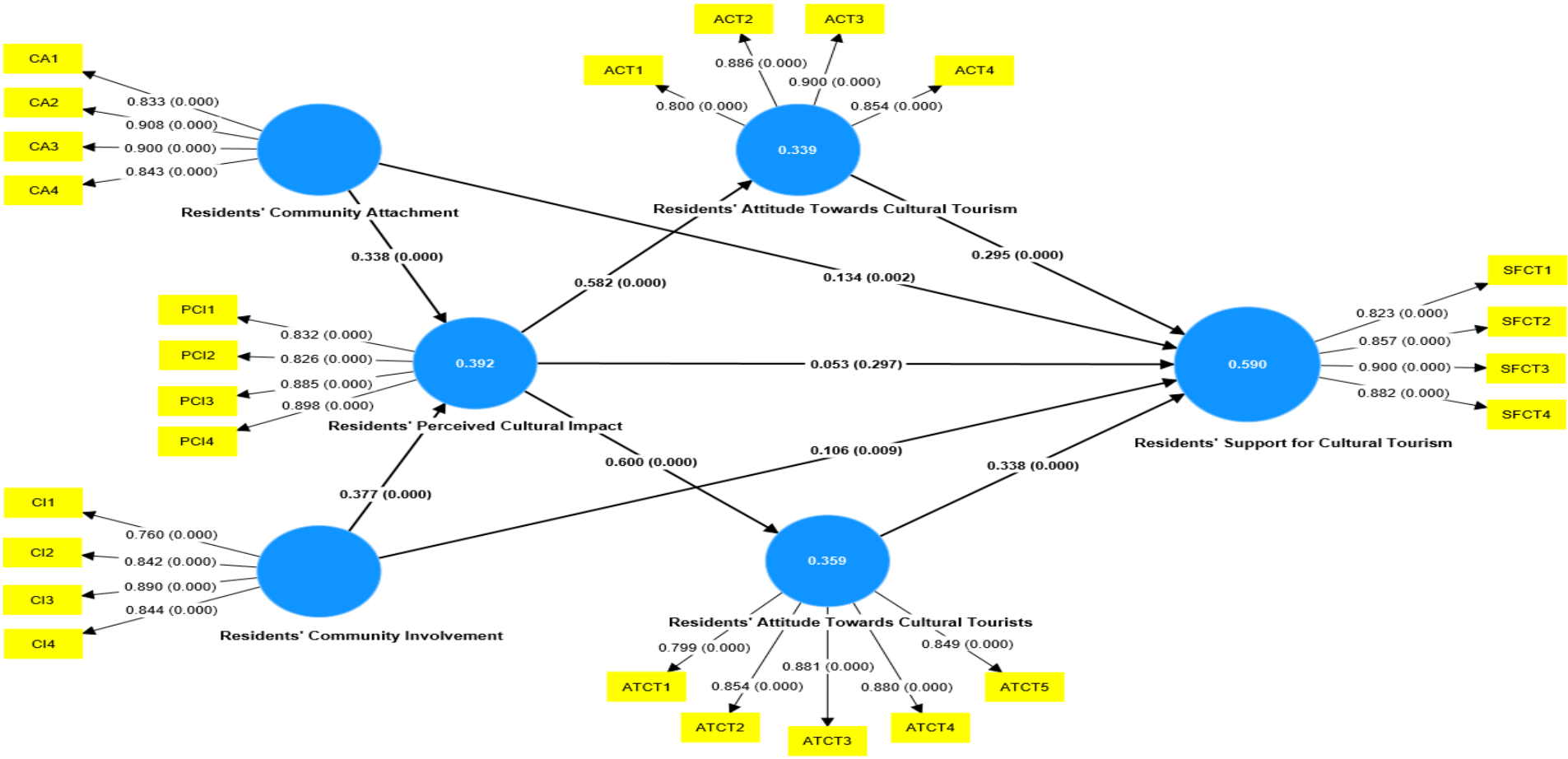


Figure 6. 2 Results of PLS-SEM Analysis

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: *R^2 values are shown in the centre of the constructed circle*

Figure 6. 2 shows that the R^2 values of attitude towards cultural tourism (0.339), attitude towards cultural tourists (0.359), perceived cultural impact (0.392), and support for cultural tourism (0.590) suggest the satisfactory predictive ability of the research model, providing a solid foundation for the understanding of the relationships in the structural model.

6.4.6 Testing of Hypotheses

6.4.6.1 Direct Relationships

Table 6. 9 Shows the Results of the Path Analysis

	Constructs and Hypotheses	Beta (β)	P Values	Inference
H_{21}	CA -> PCI	0.338	< 0.001	Supported
H_{22}	CA -> SFCT	0.134	0.002	Supported
H_{23}	CI -> PCI	0.377	< 0.001	Supported
H_{24}	CI -> SFCT	0.106	0.009	Supported
H_{25}	PCI -> SFCT	0.053	0.297	Unsupported
H_{26}	PCI -> ACT	0.582	< 0.001	Supported
H_{27}	PCI -> ATCT	0.600	< 0.001	Supported
H_{28}	ACT -> SFCT	0.295	< 0.001	Supported
H_{29}	ATCT -> SFCT	0.338	< 0.001	Supported

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: CA- *Residents' Community Attachment;* ***PCI-*** *Residents' Perceived Cultural Impact;* ***SFCT-*** *Residents' Support for Cultural Tourism;* ***CI-*** *Residents' Community Involvement;* ***ACT-*** *Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural Tourism;* ***ATCT-*** *Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural Tourists*

The PLS-SEM bootstrapping procedure was assessed using 5,000 iterations to determine the path relationships in the structural model. The hypotheses were tested by examining the causal relationships between the latent variables. The analysis results indicate a significant and direct relationship between community attachment and perceived cultural impact. The p-value is < 0.001, and the β= 0.338. This indicates that a 1% increase in community attachment will lead to a 0.338% increase in the perceived cultural impact. Thus, ***H_{21} is supported.***

The H_{22} assumes a significant relationship between community attachment and support for cultural tourism. The p-value is 0.002, and the β= 0.134, confirming a positive and significant relationship. This implies that a 1% increase in community attachment will result in a 0.134% increase in support for cultural tourism. Hence, the ***H_{22} is supported.*** The H_{23} and H_{24} depict that community involvement has a significant positive relationship with perceived cultural impact at P < 0.001 and β= 0.377, and support for cultural tourism at P= 0.009 and β= 0.106. This means that if there is a 1% increase in community involvement,

there will be a 0.377% improvement in the residents' perception of cultural impact and a 0.106% increase in their support towards cultural tourism. Hence, ***H_{23} and H_{24} are supported.*** When H_{25} is tested, it is noticed that the p-value of 0.297 and β= 0.053, between perceived cultural impact and support for cultural tourism, indicate no significant relationship. Therefore, ***H_{25} is not supported.***

Nevertheless, it is noted that the p-value with P < 0.001 and β= 0.582 between perceived cultural impact and attitude toward cultural tourism is positively significant. Similarly, the relationship between perceived cultural impact and attitude toward cultural tourists is positively significant at P < 0.001 and β= 0.600. This indicates that if there is a 1% increase in the perception of positive cultural impact, then there will be a 0.582% increase in the positive attitude towards cultural tourism and a 0.600% increase in the positive attitude towards cultural tourists. Hence, ***H_{26} and H_{27} are supported.***

Furthermore, the P < 0.001 and β= 0.295 between residents' attitudes toward cultural tourism and support for cultural tourism are also found significant. This indicates that if there is a 1% improvement in resident attitude towards cultural tourism, there is a 0.295% increase in support for cultural tourism. In addition, the relationship between residents' attitudes towards cultural tourists and support for cultural tourism is positively significant at a P < 0.001 and β= 0.338. This means that if the residents' attitudes towards cultural tourists increase by 1%, their support for cultural tourism will increase by 0.338%. This reaffirms the significant and positive role of attitudes towards cultural tourism and tourists in predicting resident support for cultural tourism. Therefore, ***H_{28} and H_{29} are supported*****,** providing a strong foundation for the conclusions drawn from research and giving confidence in the robustness of findings.

6.4.6.2 Indirect Relationships

6.4.6.2.a Simple Mediation Analysis

Table 6. 10 shows the simple mediating effect of PCI between community attachment and support for cultural tourism and between community involvement and support for cultural tourism. It is noted that the direct effect of community attachment on support for cultural tourism is significant at P < 0.001 and β= 0.134. However, the mediating effect of perceived cultural impact on this relationship is insignificant at P= 0.311 and β= 0.018. Hence, ***H_{30} is unsupported.***

Table 6. 10 Shows the Result of Simple Mediation Analysis

Hypotheses and Relationship		DE (W/o Mediation)	SIE (P Value)	TE (W/ Mediation)	VAF Values	Inference	Remark
H_{30}	CA -> PCI -> SFCT	0.134 (0.002)	0.018 (0.311)	0.279 (< 0.001)	-	Unsupported	No Mediation
H_{31}	CI -> PCI -> SFCT	0.106 (0.009)	0.020 (0.311)	0.267 (< 0.001)	-	Unsupported	No Mediation

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: CA- *Residents' Community Attachment;* ***PCI-*** *Residents' Perceived Cultural Impact;* ***SFCT-*** *Residents' Support for Cultural Tourism;* ***DE-*** *Direct Effect;* ***W/o-*** *Without;* ***SIE-*** *Specific Indirect Effect;* ***TE-*** *Total Effect;* ***W-*** *With;* ***VAF-*** *Variance Accounted For*

Similarly, the direct effect of community involvement on support for cultural tourism is significant at P < 0.001 and β= 0.106. The indirect effect of a perceived cultural impact is insignificant at P= 0.311 and β= 0.020. This indicates that although there exists a direct relationship between the construct, there is no mediating effect of perceived cultural impact, as the p-value of the specific indirect effect is below the significance level of 0.05. Hence, ***H_{31} is unsupported.***

6.4.6.2.b Parallel Mediation Analysis

Table 6. 11 Shows the Result of Parallel Mediation Analysis

Hypotheses and Relationship		DE (W/o Mediation)	SIE (P Value)	TE (W/ Mediation)	VAF Values	Inference	Remark
H_{32}	PCI -> ACT-> SFCT	0.053 (0.297)	0.172 (< 0.001)	0.427 (< 0.001)	40.28%	Supported	Partial Mediation
H_{33}	PCI -> ATCT -> SFCT	0.053 (0.297)	0.202 (< 0.001)	0.427 (< 0.001)	47.30%	Supported	Partial Mediation

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: PCI- *Residents' Perceived Cultural Impact;* ***ACT-*** *Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural Tourism;* ***ATCT-*** *Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural Tourists;* ***SFCT-*** *Residents' Support for Cultural Tourism;* ***DE-*** *Direct Effect;* ***W/o-*** *Without;* ***SIE-*** *Specific Indirect Effect;* ***TE-*** *Total Effect;* ***W-*** *with;* ***VAF-*** *Variance Accounted For*

The parallel mediating effect of attitudes toward cultural tourism and attitudes toward cultural tourists is analysed in Table 6. 11. The H_{32} related to attitudes toward cultural tourism shows that perceived cultural impact has an insignificant direct effect on support for cultural tourism, with a p-value of 0.297 and a β= 0.053. However, the indirect effect of attitudes toward cultural tourism is significant, with a p-value of < 0.001 and a β= 0.172. The total effect, combining direct and indirect pathways, is also significant, with a p-value of < 0.001 and a β= 0.427. The VAF value is calculated at 40.28%, indicating a partial mediating effect of attitudes toward cultural tourism. This result supports the hypothesis that

attitudes toward cultural tourism mediate the relationship between perceived cultural impact and support for cultural tourism. Therefore, ***H_{32} is supported.***

For the H_{33} related to attitudes toward cultural tourists, the direct effect of perceived cultural impact on support for cultural tourism remains insignificant, with a p-value of 0.297 and a $\beta = 0.053$. However, the indirect effect of attitudes toward cultural tourists is significant, with a p-value of < 0.001 and a $\beta = 0.202$. Like the previous case, the total effect is significant, with a p-value of < 0.001 and a $\beta = 0.427$. The VAF value for this relationship is 47.30%, close to 50%, confirming a partial mediating effect of attitudes toward cultural tourists. This result supports the hypothesis that attitudes toward cultural tourists mediate the relationship between perceived cultural impact and support for cultural tourism. Hence, ***H_{33} is supported.***

While perceived cultural impact does not have a significant direct effect on support for cultural tourism, a parallel mediating effect is observed. Both attitudes toward cultural tourism and attitudes toward cultural tourists mediate the relationship between perceived cultural impact and support for cultural tourism. These findings provide evidence for the hypotheses and underline the importance of these attitudes in strengthening support for cultural tourism.

6.4.6.2.c Serial Mediation Analysis

The analysis also checks for any serial mediation effect between the constructs in Table 6. 12. The H_{34} and H_{35} test the direct and indirect relationship between community attachment and support for cultural tourism. It is noted that community attachment and support for cultural tourism have a significant direct effect, at a p-value of 0.002 and $\beta = 0.134$. The indirect effect of perceived cultural impact and attitude towards cultural tourism also shows positively significant at a $P < 0.001$ and $\beta = 0.058$, with a VAF value of 20.78%.

Similarly, community attachment and support for cultural tourism have significant direct effects, with a p-value of 0.002 and a $\beta = 0.134$. The indirect effects of perceived cultural impact and attitude towards cultural tourists also show a positively significant $P < 0.001$ and a $\beta = 0.068$, with a VAF value of 24.37%. Therefore, the total effect implied between the constructs with $P < 0.001$ and $\beta = 0.279$ is also significant. This means that ***H_{34} and H_{35} are supported*** and concluded that there is a serially partial mediation effect of perceived cultural impact and attitude towards cultural tourism and cultural tourists between community attachment and support for cultural tourism.

Table 6. 12 Shows the Result of Serial Mediation Analysis

Hypotheses and Relationship		DE (W/o Mediation)	SIE (P. Value)	TE (W/ Mediation)	VAF Values	Inference	Remark
H_{34}	CA -> PCI -> ACT -> SFCT	0.134 (0.002)	0.058 (< 0.001)	0.279 (< 0.001)	20.78%	Supported	Partial Mediation
H_{35}	CA -> PCI -> ATCT -> SFCT	0.134 (0.002)	0.068 (< 0.001)	0.279 (< 0.001)	24.37%	Supported	Partial Mediation
H_{36}	CI -> PCI -> ACT -> SFCT	0.106 (0.009)	0.065 (< 0.001)	0.267 (< 0.001)	24.34%	Supported	Partial Mediation
H_{37}	CI -> PCI -> ATCT -> SFCT	0.106 (0.009)	0.076 (< 0.001)	0.267 (< 0.001)	28.46%	Supported	Partial Mediation

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: CA- *Residents' Community Attachment;* ***PCI-*** *Residents' Perceived Cultural Impact;* ***ACT-*** *Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural Tourism;* ***SFCT-*** *Residents' Support for Cultural Tourism;* ***CI-*** *Residents' Community Involvement;* ***ATCT-*** *Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural tourists;* ***DE-*** *Direct Effect;* ***W/o-*** *Without;* ***SIE-*** *Specific Indirect Effect;* ***TE-*** *Total Effect;* ***W-*** *with;* ***VAF-*** *Variance Accounted For*

On the other hand, H_{36} and H_{37} test the direct and indirect relationships between community involvement and support for cultural tourism. It is found that community involvement and support for cultural tourism have a significant direct effect, with $P < 0.001$ and $\beta = 0.106$, and a significant indirect effect of perceived cultural impact and attitude towards cultural tourism, with $P < 0.001$ and $\beta = 0.065$, comprising a VAF value of 24.34%.

Similarly, community involvement and support for cultural tourism have significant direct effects with a $P < 0.001$ and $\beta = 0.106$, and significant indirect effects of perceived cultural impact and attitude towards cultural tourists, with a $P < 0.001$ and $\beta = 0.076$, comprising a VAF value of 28.46%. Thus, the total effect implied between the constructs with $P < 0.001$ and $\beta = 0.267$ is also significant. This concludes that ***H_{36} and H_{37} are supported*****,** indicating a serially partial mediation effect of perceived cultural impact, attitude towards cultural tourism, and cultural tourists between community involvement and support for cultural tourism.

Chapter 7

Designing a Model for Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development through ICH Resources

7.1 Introduction

Chapter 7 aims to develop a model for Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development (SCTD), focusing on preserving and promoting Intangible Cultural Heritage (ICH). This objective is divided into three sub-objectives: The ***first sub-objective*** is to develop a new scale for Cultural Sustainability Indicators (CSI) and SCTD, allowing for more effective measurement of cultural sustainability aspects such as heritage preservation, community empowerment, and authenticity. The ***second sub-objective*** examines how the CSI influences SCTD, highlighting key factors driving sustainable cultural tourism.

Finally, the ***third sub-objective*** explores the moderating role of demographic characteristics of stakeholders, in shaping the relationships between CSI and SCTD. The study considers the demographic factors of stakeholders and provides insights into how sustainable tourism models can be adapted to diverse community needs. Overall, this objective aims to create a comprehensive framework for cultural tourism initiatives that balance economic benefits with the preservation of cultural heritage, guiding stakeholders toward more sustainable cultural tourism practices.

7.2 Scale Development of CSI and SCTD

Cultural sustainability is increasingly recognised as a crucial aspect of sustainable tourism development. Cultural heritage tourism can contribute to economic growth while preserving local identities and traditions (Liu & Shu, 2020). However, mass tourism risks cultural and environmental sustainability, potentially commodifying local cultures and damaging ecosystems. An eco-cultural justice framework has been proposed to address these challenges, emphasising equity and well-being for diverse groups and their cultural heritage (Jamal et al., 2010).

SCTD requires balancing economic benefits with cultural preservation and environmental protection for long-term gain (Culver, 2011; Khalid S., 2005). Social and cultural sustainability involves diverse approaches, including community involvement, resident access, host-tourist connections, crime prevention, cultural promotion, ownership patterns, cultural preservation, learning, and authenticity (Roberts & Tribe, 2008). Scholars increasingly include sustainability as a theme in their cross-cultural study because of its growing importance. Cultural differences exist in consumers' attitudes, practices, and understanding of "sustainable" (Berglund et al., 2020). Culture influences consumers' perceptions of sustainability in various circumstances and their assessment of sustainability projects (Berglund et al., 2020; Laroche et al., 2002). Variations in sustainability perspectives can lead to variations in sustainable consumption practices.

The ***cultural dimension framework*** created by Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) and Schwartz (2004) has been used in several intercultural research on sustainability-related attitudes and behaviours. Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) use six cultural dimensions to identify cross-cultural differences between countries, of which power distance, collectivism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation have been examined in sustainability-related attitudes and actions. Schwartz (2004) departs from individuals' value preferences, which are influenced by norms specific to their culture. As a result, a significant relationship was noted between conformity, self-direction, benevolence, and universalism toward sustainability. Nonetheless, both models enable the establishment of connections between culture and sustainability.

Soini and Birkeland (2014) have categorised and organised the ***benefits of cultural sustainability into seven categories***: cultural heritage, cultural vitality, economic viability, cultural diversity, locality, eco-cultural resilience, and eco-cultural civilisation. This was identified as the seven "storylines" of the discourse on cultural sustainability. Furthermore, a recent study by Osman (2022) has adopted a framework of Soini and Birkeland (2014) on cultural sustainability and confirmed that land cover change affects cultural sustainability. The areas with high land cover change saw high cultural change, negatively affecting all seven CSI. Locality negatively affected diversity and eco-cultural resilience. High diversity was observed because of chieftaincy disputes, which affected the eco-cultural civilisation of the younger generation.

Moreover, Throsby (2003) has expanded the definition of cultural sustainability by adding six principles: material and non-material well-being, intergenerational and intragenerational equity, maintenance of diversity, precautionary principle, maintenance of cultural systems, and recognition of independence. In conclusion, cultural sustainability is still a relatively new idea continually being developed. Its broad definition is linked to social, economic, and ecological sustainability (Soini & Birkeland, 2014). Based on the previous literature, no uniform scale seems available for measuring cultural sustainability and SCTD. Therefore, this study aims to develop and validate comprehensive dimensions of cultural sustainability and SCTD growth. Figure 3. 1, presented in Chapter 3, provides a detailed overview of the five steps used to develop the scale in this study.

7.2.1 Results and Interpretation

7.2.1.1 Correlation Matrix

The correlation analysis highlights significant relationships between all key variables influencing SCTD in Table 7. 1. Awareness shows strong internal correlations and moderate associations with promotion and SCTD, underscoring its central role in driving sustainability efforts. Empowerment has moderate correlations with SCTD and awareness, emphasising the need to empower communities for cultural preservation and sustainable practices. Parallel development demonstrates moderate correlations with SCTD, reflecting its importance in fostering coordinated sustainability initiatives. Promotion is strongly linked with SCTD and awareness, promoting sustainable cultural tourism. Authenticity, while moderately correlated with awareness and promotion, highlights the significance of cultural integrity in tourism. Commodification and transformation show weaker correlations with SCTD, suggesting excessive commercialisation may undermine sustainability. Sustainability practices are moderately associated with SCTD, reinforcing their role in responsible cultural tourism. All seven CSI collectively influence SCTD, strongly emphasising preserving authenticity, managing commodification, and promoting sustainability practices for long-term cultural tourism sustainability.

Table 7. 1 Shows the Correlation Matrix

Variables		AW1	AW2	AW3	AW4	EM1	EM2	EM3	PD1	PD2	PD3	PM1	PM2	PM3	SP1	SP2	SP3	AU1	AU2	AU3	AU4	CT1	CT2	CT3	CT4	SCTD1	SCTD2	SCTD3	SCTD4
AW1	PC	1																											
	Sig. Value																												
AW2	PC	.634	1																										
	Sig. Value	.000																											
AW3	PC	.477	.657	1																									
	Sig. Value	.000	.000																										
AW4	PC	.390	.453	.607	1																								
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000																									
EM1	PC	.242	.280	.259	.385	1																							
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000	.000																								
EM2	PC	.227	.295	.237	.263	.616	1																						
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000																							
EM3	PC	.325	.358	.374	.332	.398	.599	1																					
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000																						
PD1	PC	.301	.331	.332	.307	.239	.341	.598	1																				
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000																					
PD2	PC	.283	.283	.309	.303	.230	.205	.359	.572	1																			
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000																				
PD3	PC	.266	.286	.289	.315	.206	.187	.246	.379	.671	1																		
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000																			
PM1	PC	.293	.309	.332	.344	.288	.261	.333	.294	.256	.214	1																	
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000																		
PM2	PC	.328	.326	.303	.301	.252	.266	.356	.294	.258	.268	.594	1																
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000																	
PM3	PC	.288	.315	.317	.340	.282	.248	.336	.298	.319	.297	.344	.600	1															
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000																
SP1	PC	.210	.259	.293	.329	.283	.248	.307	.290	.311	.267	.302	.283	.279	1														
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000															
SP2	PC	.235	.284	.303	.329	.271	.238	.307	.298	.318	.300	.289	.282	.319	.586	1													
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000														
SP3	PC	.247	.291	.287	.291	.207	.223	.313	.307	.297	.286	.276	.299	.304	.364	.570	1												
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000													
AU1	PC	.293	.260	.279	.279	.272	.252	.276	.289	.308	.319	.269	.292	.300	.330	.298	.254	1											
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000												
AU2	PC	.241	.254	.232	.283	.218	.214	.295	.296	.312	.317	.258	.254	.258	.300	.298	.280	.537	1										
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000											
AU3	PC	.250	.260	.252	.326	.268	.239	.276	.264	.293	.247	.244	.223	.285	.290	.294	.317	.438	.620	1									
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000										
AU4	PC	.246	.264	.241	.307	.241	.227	.289	.258	.291	.268	.241	.267	.304	.294	.281	.263	.425	.596	.735	1								
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000									
CT1	PC	.142	.124	.104	.074	.147	.155	.131	.123	.118	.090	.120	.118	.112	.136	.143	.113	.120	.061	.044	.008	1							
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.001	.023	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.006	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	.058	.171	.801								
CT2	PC	.148	.101	.116	.082	.152	.156	.134	.129	.133	.117	.098	.116	.114	.090	.114	.125	.069	.015	-.010	-.016	.680	1						
	Sig. Value	.000	.002	.000	.012	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.000	.000	.006	.000	.000	.033	.636	.769	.629	.000							
CT3	PC	.169	.154	.140	.123	.143	.163	.145	.152	.130	.100	.095	.112	.138	.113	.139	.127	.126	.048	.041	.028	.552	.694	1					
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.002	.003	.001	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.136	.204	.390	.000	.000						
CT4	PC	.164	.135	.159	.136	.139	.163	.155	.159	.107	.110	.091	.113	.124	.143	.122	.106	.118	.066	.054	.003	.485	.548	.678	1				
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.001	.005	.001	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.043	.098	.926	.000	.000	.000					
SCTD1	PC	.316	.290	.320	.280	.255	.216	.293	.248	.264	.218	.240	.223	.228	.284	.274	.251	.246	.238	.231	.215	.190	.202	.210	.262	1			
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000				
SCTD2	PC	.310	.316	.322	.296	.290	.251	.277	.249	.227	.198	.227	.210	.226	.264	.238	.268	.281	.208	.249	.200	.170	.170	.248	.261	.574	1		
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000			
SCTD3	PC	.341	.343	.361	.334	.255	.255	.295	.312	.276	.235	.294	.271	.235	.310	.285	.276	.264	.226	.247	.230	.190	.214	.257	.274	.498	.591	1	
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		
SCTD4	PC	.348	.330	.346	.328	.315	.294	.350	.315	.284	.287	.277	.298	.303	.320	.303	.291	.340	.282	.306	.299	.192	.211	.245	.235	.487	.539	.630	1
	Sig. Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: AU- *Authenticity;* ***AW-*** *Awareness;* ***CT-*** *Commodification and Transformation;* ***EM-*** *Empowerment;* ***PD-*** *Parallel Development;* ***PM-*** *Promotion;* ***SCTD-*** *Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development;* ***SP-*** *Sustainable Practices*

7.2.1.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Table 7. 2 Showing Results of EFA

Factors (FA)	Variables	Codes	FA 1	FA 2	FA 3	FA 4	FA 5	FA 6	FA 7	FA 8
Commodification and Transformation (CT)	Var 28	CT2	0.869							
	Var 29	CT3	0.856							
	Var 27	CT1	0.803							
	Var 30	CT4	0.770							
Authenticity (AU)	Var 25	AU3		0.833						
	Var 26	AU4		0.822						
	Var 24	AU2		0.794						
	Var 23	AU1		0.599						
Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development (SCTD)	Var 34	SCTD2			0.797					
	Var 35	SCTD3			0.763					
	Var 33	SCTD1			0.722					
	Var 36	SCTD4			0.706					
Awareness (AW)	Var 2	AW2				0.811				
	Var 3	AW3				0.792				
	Var 1	AW1				0.699				
	Var 4	AW4				0.623				
Empowerment (EM)	Var 7	EM2					0.862			
	Var 6	EM1					0.727			
	Var 8	EM3					0.668			
Parallel Development (PD)	Var 10	PD2						0.840		
	Var 11	PD3						0.757		
	Var 9	PD1						0.658		
Promotion (PM)	Var 15	PM2							0.867	
	Var 14	PM1							0.697	
	Var 16	PM3							0.678	
Sustainable Practices (SP)	Var 20	SP2								0.835
	Var 19	SP1								0.704
	Var 21	SP3								0.683
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy										0.881
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity						**Approx. Chi-Square**				12449.213
						Degree of Freedom				378.000
						Significance Value				< 0.001
Common Method Bias										30.152
Overall Cronbach Alpha (For 28 Variables)										0.909
Eigen Values			2.877	2.778	2.696	2.617	2.111	2.105	2.050	2.040
% of Variance Explained			10.274	9.920	9.628	9.347	7.539	7.517	7.322	7.287
Cumulative % of Variance Explained			10.274	20.194	29.822	39.169	46.708	54.225	61.547	68.834

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Table 7. 2 shows the EFA results, which reveal an estimated chi-square value of 12449.213 with 378 degrees of freedom. The KMO statistic of 0.881 indicates that the sample is well-suited for factor analysis, thereby validating this approach for further data exploration. Utilising a dimension reduction technique in SPSS 20, the 28 variables with factor loading values exceeding 0.50 were identified, while the remaining 08 variables were excluded due to their lower factor loadings. These 08 variables include Variables 05, 12, 13, 17, 18, 22, 31, and 32. The remaining 28 variables were subsequently analysed through Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with a varimax rotation applied to the component matrix. The analysis revealed eight significant factors, explaining 68.834% of the variance.

Factor 1 (FA 1) is designated as ***"Commodification and Transformation",*** due to the strong loadings associated with its variables. This factor demonstrates robustness, with a high Eigenvalue of 2.877, which accounts for 10.274% of the total variance. The variables of FA 1 are related to the stakeholders' interest in whether ICH needs to be combined with other modern music or transformed to increase the audience's interest.

Factor 2 (FA 2), clearly identified as ***"Authenticity",*** with an Eigenvalue of 2.778, explains 9.920% of the variance, demonstrating the precision of the analysis. FA 2 discusses using appropriate and authentic culture and maintaining ICH's original or traditional version by emphasising the practitioner's identity.

Factor 3 (FA 3) is designated as ***"Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development",*** due to its high loading of four variables. This factor accounts for 9.628% of the variance, with an Eigenvalue of 2.696. FA 3 deals with four variables that explain the stakeholders' benefits if culture is sustainably developed. Therefore, there is a need to focus on dynamic folk festivals and folklore traditions, full-time employment opportunities, community participation, and appreciation.

Factor 4 (FA 4) is termed ***"Awareness",*** explaining 9.347% of the variance with an Eigenvalue of 2.617, comprising four variables. FA 4 demonstrates the level of understanding and knowledge of cultural tourism and sustainability and how it benefits stakeholders.

Factor 5 (FA 5) is identified as ***"Empowerment",*** which reflects the loading of three variables and accounts for 7.539% of the variance, with an Eigenvalue of 2.111. FA 5 deals with providing training and practices to community members, self-reliance on ICH, and encouraging them to sell local, sustainable products.

Factor 6 (FA 6) is designated ***"Parallel Development",*** comprises three variable loadings. This factor accounts for 7.517% of the variance and has an Eigenvalue of 2.105. FA 6 is related to the benefits to be received by all the stakeholders and, thus, the development of both the cultural and tourism industries

Factors 7 (FA 7), named ***"Promotion",*** also contain three variables, reflecting their significant loadings. Factor 7 explains 7.322% of the variance with an Eigenvalue of 2.050.

FA 7 deals with marketing and promoting cultural products to a larger audience by establishing ICH hubs

Factors 8 (FA 8), named ***"Sustainable Practices",*** consisting of three variables, account for 7.287% of the variance, with an Eigenvalue of 2.040. FA 8 deals with practices to be followed for cultural sustainability, such as allowing local artists to display and perform traditional art and music, offering reasonable prices, and facilitating small and medium enterprises to strengthen the system. The eight factors have been elaborated upon to enhance understanding and clarify the significance of their corresponding variables. Among the identified 08 factors, **Factor 1** (**FA 1), *"Commodification and Transformation",*** was the most important.

7.3 Examining the Influence of Cultural Sustainability Indicators on SCTD

7.3.1 Proposed SCTD Model

Empirical data on cultural heritage attractions deteriorating due to natural forces shows that management systems focus only on protecting cultural heritage while ignoring local economic interests and cultural continuation. Previous research on cultural heritage management has a singular objective: the management approach only considers a cultural heritage attraction's economic benefit, which has a much more significant detrimental impact on the community. Therefore, researchers have actively investigated ways to prevent conflicts of interest surrounding cultural tourist attractions by addressing these issues (Garrod & Fyall, 2000; Wang & Bramwell, 2012).

Cultural heritage areas cannot achieve sustained tourism development with a single objective. It should be integrated into a system for multiple purposes and as a framework for analysing potential problems. By establishing an effective management system, cultural tourism can achieve coordinated development in different dimensions. Most of the research frameworks developed in previous research list the system's factors but do not describe the relationships among different elements or components. Since tourism is a complex and dynamic system, the earlier models fail to reflect the integrated cultural tourism model. Given the different development paths of tourism in other areas of the world, researchers

have begun to focus on the complex issue of cultural tourism. Studies that have explained the SCTD model have been presented in Table 7. 3.

Table 7. 3 Sustainable Cultural Tourism Framework: A Review of Previous Research

Sustainable Cultural Tourism Frameworks	Authors
Proposed a normative model to determine cultural tourism's potential in the municipalities. The normative analysis approach is a valuable framework for designing tools for planning and operating sustainable cultural and heritage tourism, as it proves helpful in developing sustainable cultural tourism strategies.	Vargas-Hernández (2012)
The model emphasises that the cultural assets in destinations should be determined primarily to ensure sustainable cultural tourism and maintain its long-term effects.	Icoz et al. (2008)
It aims to provide a practical tool for promoting sustainable cultural tourism as a proactive approach to conserving historical sites. It provokes the ability to fulfil the target of utilising the tourism industry as an economic resource for preserving cultural and historical heritage sites.	Moh El-Barmelgy (2013)
Present a 'bottom-up approach' for cultural tourism management based on developing an e-participation website for an Italian city. This approach places the stakeholders at the centre of the decision-making process.	Chiabai et al. (2013)
Adopted the system dynamics method from complex science to develop a model and address development conflicts among interest groups in the context of cultural tourism. The study suggested that cultural tourism managers should evaluate the benefits of cultural assets' protective investment ratios, crowding ratios, and resident tourism participation ratios, which are the key leverage points in sustaining the development of cultural tourism.	Liu and Chen (2015)
Proposed the critical place in tourism analysis of the place identity as a function of the cultural landscape.	Terkenli, (2000)
They have introduced a systematic framework into sustainable cultural tourism research that incorporates all the factors of tourism development and provides a good reference for understanding the system's internal structure.	Aranburu et al. (2016); Artal-Tur et al. (2018); D'Angella et al. (2021); De Luca et al. (2020); Kim et al. (2019); Lynch et al. (2010); Guilarte and González (2018); Rasoolimanesh and Jaafar (2016); Sangchumnong and Kozak (2018); and Thimm (2019)
Employed the framework of Soini and Birkeland (2014), which has organised and classified the benefits of the concept of cultural sustainability into seven categories: cultural heritage, cultural vitality, economic viability, cultural diversity, locality, eco-cultural resilience, and eco-cultural civilisation.	Terkenli and Georgoula (2022)

Source: *Author's compilation based on previous research studies*

Among the attempts at deciphering the various perspectives and prospects on the usage of cultural sustainability in recent scientific endeavours, the framework of cultural

sustainability analysis proposed by Terkenli (2000) was the most comprehensive and systematic point of departure in applying the concept to the study. He covers various political, cultural, and normative positions and cautions that their use be highly contextualised.

Terkenli (2000) dramatically formulates that tourism analysis and planning revolve around the makeup, assessment, planning, or preservation of cultural landscape for sustainable, profitable, or unobtrusive tourism. On the one hand, tourism marketing managers reproduce discourse about places through the representation of cultural signs, with which the tourists', through the experiential re-interpretation of the sign, may assess the site's authenticity within the discourse. On the other hand, local ways of life unfold and imbue places with distinctive geographical identities, which become the media and the embodiment of cultural change. As easily appropriated through the landscape's visual character, cultural meanings are defined and expressed in place identity formulation.

Terkenli and Georgoula (2022) further explored the cultural landscape model by employing the framework of Soini and Birkeland (2014). They found that the economic viability perspective is the most pertinent because tourism, in all its forms and versions, is, first and foremost, an economic activity. Thereby, the means of promoting cultural sustainability tend to be based on market forces of supply, demand, advertising, and branding. The 'economic viability' perspective views culture, particularly heritage, as a resource for economic viability and local and regional development, such as tourism (Soini & Birkeland, 2014). According to Liu (2003), preserving cultural heritage, maintaining traditional values, and providing authentic tourist experiences have often been highlighted as important elements of sustainable tourism.

Baes on the Table 7. 3, it can be noted that very limited studies explain the concept of cultural sustainability indicators and their influence on SCTD. A broader aspect in this area is much needed. Therefore, this study presents a deeper insight into examining the influence of CSI on SCTD through ICH. A comprehensive analysis of the relevant literature in tourism studies reveals that the rich knowledge domains of sustainable tourism development have been evolving primarily along parallel pathways in tourism. This study traces some key developments and offers a framework to bridge these disparate discourses and ensure that cultural sustainability in tourism development and management is grounded in the community as a key principle. Therefore, in this research, cultural sustainability is viewed

as a reflective and sensitising concept that can assess all people's diverse values and knowledge, shaping how we live today and how we will live more sustainably. Building on the idea of sustainable cultural tourism resources, this study investigates the influence of CSI on SCTD through proposed hypotheses.

H_{38}: *Authenticity has a direct influence on SCTD.*

H_{39}: *Awareness has a direct influence on SCTD.*

H_{40}: *Commodification and transformation has a direct influence on SCTD.*

H_{41}: *Empowerment has a direct influence on SCTD.*

H_{42}: *Parallel development has a direct influence on SCTD.*

H_{43}: *Promotion has a direct influence on SCTD.*

H_{44}: *Sustainable practices has a direct influence on SCTD.*

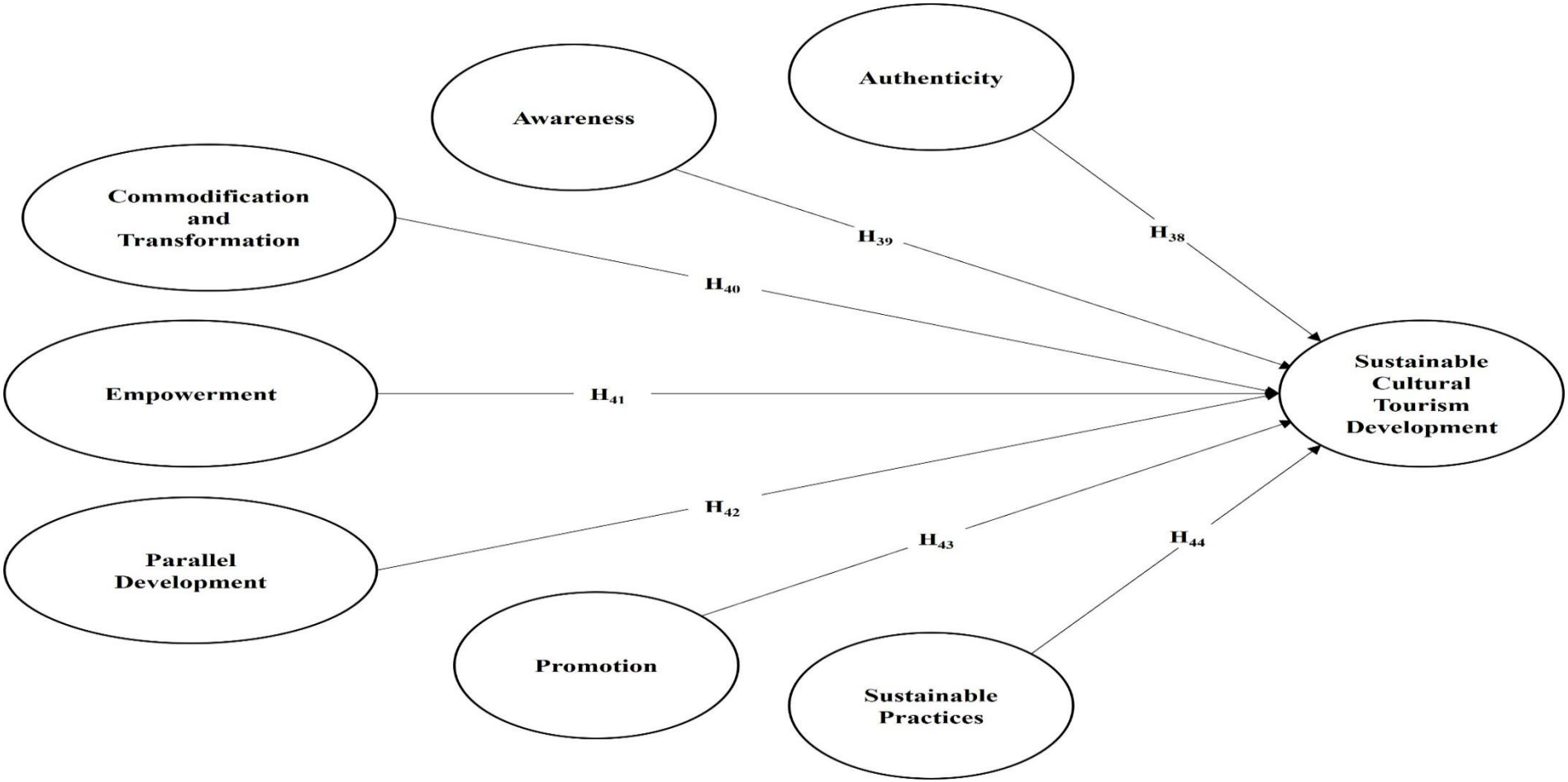


Figure 7. 1 Conceptual Research Model- Proposed SCTD Model

Source: *Author's compilation*

Note: *Direct Relationships Hypotheses are highlighted in* ***Black***

Figure 7. 1 shows the conceptual model of SCTD, which explores the dynamic, interdependent relationships among CSI and the various aspects of sustainable cultural tourism. This model is grounded in the premise that sustainable tourism does not simply preserve cultural resources but actively enhances them by positively shaping perceptions among tourists and residents. The model assumes that the improved perceptions generate a sustainable feedback loop that reinforces support for tourism, strengthens cultural preservation efforts, and leads to a robust, sustainable tourism sector that aligns with the region's cultural, social, and environmental priorities.

The model posits a reciprocal relationship where each CSI contributes to and, in turn, is influenced by sustainable tourism. For instance, prioritising cultural preservation in tourism policies enhances tourists' experiences, making them more likely to support and respect cultural norms. Similarly, economically beneficial tourism models encourage local communities to invest in preserving their heritage as they see direct benefits.

A preliminary framework of SCTD is proposed, followed by critical directions that are then offered to address several compelling issues that continue to hinder research and practice. The study contributes to better enlightening society worldwide about living more sustainably and building a bridge between CSI and SCTD. Simultaneously, it will facilitate pragmatic decision-making aimed at safeguarding and perpetuating the local cultural heritage, advancing the growth of cultural industries, and augmenting the appeal and reputation of metropolitan areas to prevent urban illnesses and cultural convergence between them.

7.3.2 Results and Interpretation

7.3.2.1 Data Distribution and Normality

Table 7. 4 contains statistical information for a set of variables. The VIF assesses the degree of multicollinearity among variables within a dataset. A VIF value nearing 1 signifies low multicollinearity, whereas values exceeding 5 indicate a high level of multicollinearity, which may suggest redundancy among variables. In the analysis, the VIF values range from 1.450 (EM2) to 2.571 (PM2), reflecting low to moderate multicollinearity. This range is considered acceptable, assuring the stakeholders of the reliability of the analysis (Alauddin & Nghiemb, 2010; Hair et al., 2016).

Table 7. 4 Shows the Multicollinearity Test Result and Summary Statistics of the Variables

Constructs	Variable Codes	VIF	Mean	SD	Kurtosis	Skewness
Commodification and Transformation (CT)	CT2	1.711	5.023	1.323	0.212	-0.628
	CT3	2.299	4.852	1.481	-0.384	-0.509
	CT1	2.237	4.797	1.518	-0.647	-0.359
	CT4	1.619	4.744	1.469	-0.339	-0.410
Authenticity (AU)	AU3	1.615	4.709	1.540	-0.390	-0.433
	AU4	2.118	4.652	1.550	-0.553	-0.322
	AU2	1.562	4.788	1.570	-0.535	-0.409
	AU1	1.487	4.697	1.576	-0.681	-0.333
Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development (SCTD)	SCTD2	2.313	4.643	1.536	-0.409	-0.433
	SCTD3	1.817	4.743	1.507	-0.349	-0.514
	SCTD1	1.545	4.715	1.495	-0.477	-0.344
	SCTD4	2.129	4.686	1.566	-0.621	-0.347
Awareness (AW)	AW2	1.562	4.683	1.601	-0.514	-0.435
	AW3	1.526	5.003	1.461	-0.317	-0.509
	AW1	1.959	4.968	1.440	-0.264	-0.505
	AW4	1.483	4.910	1.423	-0.021	-0.532
Empowerment (EM)	EM2	1.450	5.132	1.352	0.135	-0.676
	EM1	1.985	5.210	1.339	0.631	-0.772
	EM3	2.467	5.302	1.346	0.734	-0.894
Parallel Development (PD)	PD2	2.355	5.387	1.378	0.866	-0.954
	PD3	1.935	4.316	1.589	-0.663	-0.382
	PD1	2.566	4.335	1.654	-0.739	-0.323
Promotion (PM)	PM2	2.571	4.320	1.709	-0.866	-0.229
	PM1	1.923	4.399	1.620	-0.685	-0.347
	PM3	1.630	4.898	1.333	0.114	-0.519
Sustainable Practices (SP)	SP2	1.895	4.882	1.361	-0.122	-0.511
	SP1	1.987	4.903	1.372	0.145	-0.558
	SP3	1.838	5.215	1.202	0.572	-0.627

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: VIF- *Variance Inflation Factor;* ***SD-*** *Standard Deviation*

The mean represents the average value of responses for each variable, reflecting the data's central tendency. A higher mean, such as 5.387 (PD2), indicates greater agreement or elevated ratings for that variable. Conversely, a lower mean value of 4.316 (PD3) suggests reduced agreement or lower ratings. The SD assesses the variability of responses for each variable. A larger SD, as observed at 1.709 (PM2), signifies a broader range of responses, while a smaller SD, 1.202 (SP3), indicates that responses are more closely clustered around the mean. Positive kurtosis values, such as 0.866 (PD2), indicate a more peaked distribution characterised as leptokurtic. Conversely, negative kurtosis values of -0.866 (PM2) suggest flatter and more dispersed distributions, known as platykurtic. Additionally, a negative skewness of -0.954 (PD2), indicates that the data are skewed to the left, with more responses clustered at the higher end of the scale, whereas, a negative value of -0.229 (PM2), which is

close to zero, suggests a symmetric distribution. In this analysis, most variables display negative skewness, implying that respondents generally provide higher ratings or scores, a positive sign for the data.

7.3.2.2 Testing of Biasness in the Data

Table 7. 5 Shows the results of Common Method Bias using the Harman Single Factor Method

Constructs	Variable Codes	Initial Eigen Values		
		Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Commodification and Transformation (CT)	CT2	8.443	30.152	30.152
	CT3	2.777	9.917	40.069
	CT1	1.631	5.825	45.894
	CT4	1.505	5.375	51.269
Authenticity (AU)	AU3	1.335	4.770	56.039
	AU4	1.263	4.511	60.549
	AU2	1.233	4.403	64.952
	AU1	1.087	3.882	68.834
Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development (SCTD)	SCTD2	0.814	2.905	71.739
	SCTD3	0.700	2.501	74.241
	SCTD1	0.691	2.466	76.707
	SCTD4	0.642	2.292	79.000
Awareness (AW)	AW2	0.582	2.078	81.077
	AW3	0.569	2.034	83.111
	AW1	0.540	1.927	85.039
	AW4	0.448	1.601	86.639
Empowerment (EM)	EM2	0.428	1.528	88.167
	EM1	0.383	1.368	89.535
	EM3	0.372	1.329	90.864
Parallel Development (PD)	PD2	0.350	1.250	92.114
	PD3	0.343	1.224	93.338
	PD1	0.334	1.192	94.530
Promotion (PM)	PM2	0.297	1.061	95.591
	PM1	0.278	0.993	96.584
	PM3	0.258	0.920	97.504
Sustainable Practices (SP)	SP2	0.250	0.893	98.398
	SP1	0.234	0.837	99.235
	SP3	0.214	0.765	100

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

The evaluation in Table 7. 5 shows that the cumulative extraction sums of squared loadings values are 30.152%, which confirms that the corresponding factors have unbiased data; therefore, the selected constructs can be used for further analysis.

7.3.2.3 Reliability and Validity of Measurement Model

Table 7. 6 Shows the Reliability and Convergent Validity of CSI and SCTD

Constructs and Variables	SL
Authenticity (AU) [CA= 0.835; CR= 0.835; AVE= 0.670]	
AU1 <- Use appropriate and authentic cultural elements from the local region.	0.754
AU2 <- Emphasis on maintaining the original version of ICH.	0.834
AU3 <- Emphasis on maintaining/ safeguarding the meaning of ICH.	0.850
AU4 <- Emphasis on the practitioners' identity.	0.832
Awareness (AW) [CA= 0.822; CR= 0.824; AVE= 0.654]	
AW1 <- Establish awareness programs among locals and youth for the care of ICH and respect for local customs.	0.776
AW2 <- Better understanding of what are the sustainability and tourism expectations.	0.850
AW3 <- Better understanding of how tourism and culture are interrelated and their benefit to the local community.	0.852
AW4 <- Better understanding of various strategies and how they relate to the locals.	0.752
Commodification and Transformation (CT) [CA= 0.860; CR= 0.873; AVE= 0.704]	
CT1 <- Shortening presentation times of cultural activities.	0.780
CT2 <- Combining ICH with other modern performances (e.g., modern and contemporary music with traditional dances; modern materials with traditional craftsmanship).	0.854
CT3 <- Modifying lyrics or gestures to increase interaction with audiences.	0.884
CT4 <- Transmitting ICH as it helps to understand audiences and increase interest in ICH.	0.835
Empowerment (EM) [CA= 0.776; CR= 0.775; AVE= 0.601]	
EM1 <- Training of community members for non-competitive tourism-related activities that complement the business.	0.801
EM2 <- Self-reliance of each ICH association and practitioner by having their own organised system.	0.876
EM3 <- Encourage the means for local small entrepreneurs to develop and sell sustainable products that are based on the area's nature, history, or culture (including food and drink, crafts, and performance arts).	0.817
Parallel Development (PD) [CA= 0.779; CR= 0.783; AVE= 0.695]	
PD1 <- Parallel existence and coordination between tourism and cultural heritage management.	0.803
PD2 <- Stakeholders initiatives and leadership in culture and tourism management.	0.896
PD3 <- Strengthen the bond of action of the companies with the conservation and enhancement of cultural heritage.	0.798
Promotion (PM) [CA= 0.759; CR= 0.759; AVE= 0.677]	
PM1 <- Establishing ICH hub or centres and hosting tourism activities such as events, festivals, and performances.	0.792
PM2 <- Improving coordination of the various factors involved in the activity for development programs, marketing, education, and participation in the conservation and enhancement of cultural heritage.	0.889
PM3 <- Promoting and using cultural tourism to differentiate the existing tourist facility, opening new market opportunities.	0.783
Sustainable Practices (SP) [CA= 0.755; CR= 0.758; AVE= 0.673]	
SP1 <- Allow local artists to display and perform traditional art and culture.	0.805
SP2 <- Reasonable prices can be kept for the cultural products.	0.875
SP3 <- Facilitate the development of small and medium companies and grocery services to strengthen the system as a whole.	0.777

Constructs and Variables	SL
Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development (SCTD) [CA= 0.832; CR= 0.835; AVE= 0.665]	
SCTD1 <- Dynamic folk festivals and folklore traditions.	0.773
SCTD2 <- Preservation of cultural resources and ruins and a showcase of remarkable traditions.	0.820
SCTD3 <- Full-time employment opportunities in the cultural tourism business.	0.840
SCTD4 <- Community appreciation through economic and social life due to cultural tourism.	0.828

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: SL- *Standardised Loadings;* ***CA-*** *Cronbach Alpha;* ***CR-*** *Composite Reliability;* ***AVE-*** *Average Variance Extracted*

Table 7. 6 shows that the SL of all the variables present in the study and the CA of the constructs meet the threshold limit of 0.70 (Cronbach, 1951), ranging from 0.755 (SP) to 0.860 (CT). Table 7. 6 also estimates the convergent validity results through CR and AVE. The CR value ranges from 0.758 (SP) to 0.873 (CT), and the AVE score ranges from 0.601 (EM) to 0.704 (CT), which shows that the CR and AVE scores are acceptable, as they meet the threshold limit of 0.70 and ≥ 0.50 (Hair et al., 2013). This evidence supports the adequacy of the measurement model in terms of reliability and convergent validity, ensuring that the constructs are both reliable and valid for further analysis.

Table 7. 7 Shows the Discriminant Validity- Fornell-Larcker Criterion

Constructs	AU	AW	CT	EM	PD	PM	SCTD	SP
AU	0.818							
AW	0.405	0.809						
CT	0.076	0.194	0.839					
EM	0.381	0.448	0.213	0.832				
PD	0.425	0.447	0.177	0.434	0.834			
PM	0.398	0.476	0.163	0.431	0.407	0.823		
SCTD	0.386	0.493	0.328	0.416	0.386	0.380	0.816	
SP	0.438	0.422	0.178	0.396	0.436	0.435	0.422	0.820

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: AU- *Authenticity;* ***AW-*** *Awareness;* ***CT-*** *Commodification and Transformation;* ***EM-*** *Empowerment;* ***PD-*** *Parallel Development;* ***PM-*** *Promotion;* ***SCTD-*** *Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development;* ***SP-*** *Sustainable Practices*

The results of the discriminant validity assessment, presented in Table 7. 7, indicate that the model is adequate for measurement. This conclusion is supported by Fornell and Larcker F., (1981), where each construct's square root of the AVE exceeds the constructs' intercorrelations. This finding reinforces the distinctiveness of the constructs, ensuring that each construct captures a unique aspect of the data. By satisfying this criterion, the study confirms that the model possesses strong discriminant validity, further validating its reliability and suitability for examining structural relationships among the constructs.

Table 7. 8 Shows the Discriminant Validity- Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (HTMT) – Matrix

Constructs	AU	AW	CT	EM	PD	PM	SCTD	SP
AU								
AW	0.487							
CT	0.089	0.227						
EM	0.466	0.555	0.260					
PD	0.525	0.558	0.214	0.538				
PM	0.498	0.603	0.202	0.555	0.527			
SCTD	0.457	0.594	0.381	0.511	0.474	0.475		
SP	0.548	0.537	0.221	0.510	0.567	0.574	0.530	

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: AU- *Authenticity;* ***AW-*** *Awareness;* ***CT-*** *Commodification and Transformation;* ***EM-*** *Empowerment;* ***PD-*** *Parallel Development;* ***PM-*** *Promotion;* ***SCTD-*** *Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development;* ***SP-*** *Sustainable Practices*

Table 7. 8 demonstrated that the maximum correlation value among the constructs is 0.603, well below the conservative critical HTMT threshold of 0.85, as proposed by Fornell and Larcker F., (1981). This finding supports the discriminant validity of the model, ensuring that the constructs are distinct and do not overlap excessively. The HTMT criterion is particularly relevant in PLS-SEM, as it thoroughly assesses the extent to which two constructs are conceptually different. By meeting this standard, the study confirms the robustness and clarity of its measurement model.

Table 7. 9 Shows Cross-Loadings

Codes and Constructs	AU	AW	CT	EM	PD	PM	SCTD	SP
AU1	0.754	0.344	0.130	0.322	0.366	0.349	0.349	0.360
AU2	0.834	0.312	0.058	0.295	0.369	0.313	0.294	0.358
AU3	0.850	0.335	0.041	0.316	0.322	0.305	0.318	0.366
AU4	0.832	0.326	0.008	0.306	0.327	0.329	0.292	0.341
AW1	0.318	0.776	0.187	0.323	0.342	0.368	0.404	0.281
AW2	0.318	0.850	0.155	0.377	0.362	0.386	0.393	0.339
AW3	0.310	0.852	0.158	0.355	0.374	0.387	0.414	0.359
AW4	0.366	0.752	0.127	0.396	0.370	0.400	0.381	0.387
CT1	0.075	0.138	0.780	0.173	0.134	0.142	0.228	0.160
CT2	0.021	0.139	0.854	0.177	0.152	0.133	0.245	0.133
CT3	0.078	0.182	0.884	0.181	0.155	0.140	0.295	0.154
CT4	0.077	0.184	0.835	0.183	0.152	0.133	0.316	0.151
EM1	0.308	0.359	0.172	0.801	0.271	0.334	0.342	0.311
EM2	0.287	0.315	0.190	0.876	0.298	0.314	0.313	0.289
EM3	0.348	0.430	0.170	0.817	0.494	0.416	0.374	0.377
PD1	0.340	0.393	0.170	0.483	0.803	0.360	0.346	0.364
PD2	0.369	0.365	0.144	0.324	0.896	0.337	0.323	0.377
PD3	0.354	0.357	0.124	0.259	0.798	0.315	0.290	0.346
PM1	0.311	0.395	0.119	0.357	0.309	0.792	0.320	0.354
PM2	0.319	0.389	0.136	0.354	0.329	0.889	0.309	0.352
PM3	0.352	0.389	0.146	0.351	0.366	0.783	0.306	0.366

Codes and Constructs	AU	AW	CT	EM	PD	PM	SCTD	SP
SCTD1	0.286	0.374	0.261	0.310	0.293	0.281	0.773	0.330
SCTD2	0.290	0.385	0.259	0.330	0.272	0.269	0.820	0.313
SCTD3	0.298	0.427	0.284	0.325	0.332	0.325	0.840	0.355
SCTD4	0.378	0.418	0.266	0.387	0.355	0.356	0.828	0.373
SP1	0.373	0.337	0.144	0.339	0.348	0.351	0.362	0.805
SP2	0.359	0.355	0.153	0.330	0.366	0.361	0.339	0.875
SP3	0.341	0.345	0.139	0.302	0.357	0.356	0.333	0.777

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: AU- *Authenticity;* ***AW-*** *Awareness;* ***CT-*** *Commodification and Transformation;* ***EM-*** *Empowerment;* ***PD-*** *Parallel Development;* ***PM-*** *Promotion;* ***SCTD-*** *Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development;* ***SP-*** *Sustainable Practices*

Table 7. 9 shows that the cross-loadings further support the reliability and validity of the measurement model. Each variable significantly loaded more strongly on its intended construct than others, demonstrating strong convergent and discriminant validity.

Consequently, the results suggest that the model offers appropriate evidence of reliability and validity, making it suitable for exploring and analysing the structural relationships among the constructs. This ensures that the findings derived from the model are robust and trustworthy for theoretical and practical implications.

7.3.3 Structural Model of SCTD

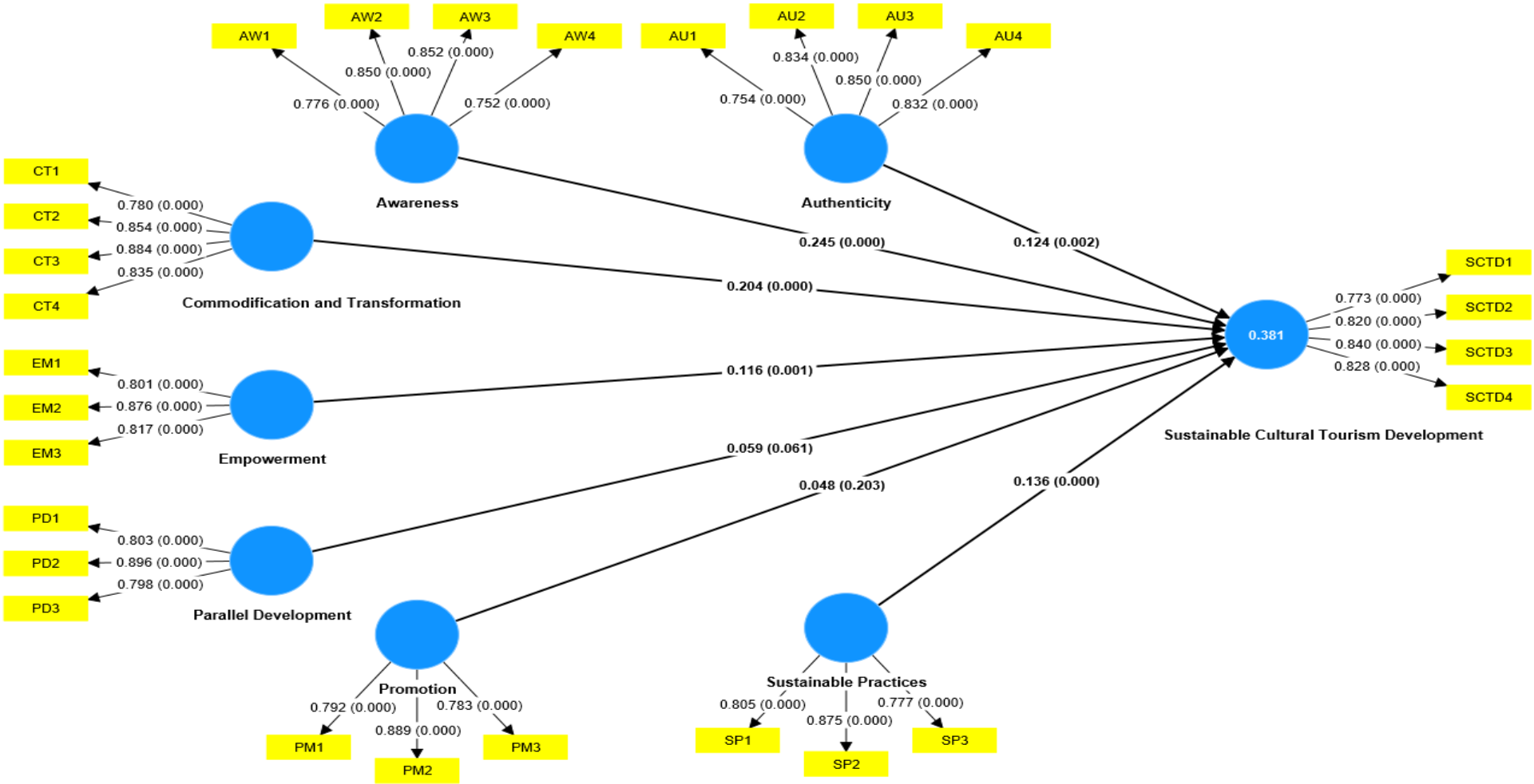


Figure 7. 2 Result of PLS-SEM Analysis

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Figure 7. 2 shows the result of the path coefficient value of CSI. After the measurement model, an analysis was drawn, and the seven most important indicators of CSI and one indicator of SCTD growth were identified. These include authenticity, awareness, commodification and transformation, empowerment, parallel development, promotion, sustainable practices, and SCTD. The result is tested to check the influence of CSI on SCTD. The results show that the value of each variable loading is more than 0.70, indicating the reliability of the variables used to measure the constructs. The R^2 values of SCTD are shown as 0.381, suggesting the satisfactorily predictive ability of the research model.

7.3.4 Testing of Hypotheses

7.3.4.1 Direct Relationships

Table 7. 10 Shows the Results of the Path Analysis

	Constructs and Hypotheses	Beta (β)	P Values	Inference
H_{38}	AU -> SCTD	0.124	0.002	Supported
H_{39}	AW -> SCTD	0.245	< 0.001	Supported
H_{40}	CT -> SCTD	0.204	< 0.001	Supported
H_{41}	EM -> SCTD	0.116	< 0.001	Supported
H_{42}	PD -> SCTD	0.059	0.061	Unsupported
H_{43}	PM -> SCTD	0.048	0.203	Unsupported
H_{44}	SP -> SCTD	0.136	< 0.001	Supported

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: AU- *Authenticity;* ***AW-*** *Awareness;* ***CT-*** *Commodification and Transformation;* ***EM-*** *Empowerment;* ***PD-*** *Parallel Development;* ***PM-*** *Promotion;* ***SCTD-*** *Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development;* ***SP-*** *Sustainable Practices*

Table 7. 10 and Figure 7. 2 check whether CSI significantly influences SCTD. The results were tested based on the hypotheses for all the seven CSIs influencing SCTD. The analysis of H_{38} reveals a p-value of 0.002 and a β= 0.124, confirming a positive and significant relationship. This means that a 1% increase in authenticity will lead to a 0.124% increase in SCTD. Therefore, ***H_{38} is supported.*** The relationship between awareness and SCTD is also positively significant since the p-value is < 0.001 and the β= 0.245. This means that if there is a 1% increase in awareness, the SCTD will increase by 0.245%. Therefore, ***H_{39} is supported.***

Similarly, commodification and transformation positively influence SCTD, with P < 0.001 and β= 0.204, indicating that if there is a 1% increase in commodification and transformation, there will increase SCTD by 0.204%. Hence, ***H_{40} is supported.*** Empowerment also positively and significantly influences SCTD, with a P < 0.001 and β= 0.116. This indicates that if there

is a 1% increase in stakeholder empowerment, the SCTD will increase by 0.116%. Thus, ***H_{41} is supported.***

In examining the relationship between parallel development and SCTD, the statistical analysis yields a p-value of 0.061, indicating that ***no strong evidence exists to support the H_{42}*** that parallel development significantly impacts SCTD. While the p-value is close to the threshold, it remains insufficient to assert a meaningful relationship. This suggests that while parallel development might intuitively contribute to SCTD by fostering collaboration, innovation, and efficiency, its influence may be constrained by factors such as coordination challenges, resource limitations, or misalignment with the unique needs of cultural tourism projects.

The analysis also indicates a p-value of 0.203 for the influence of promotion on SCTD. Since this value is considerably above the 0.05 significance level, the ***H_{43} is unsupported*****,** thus indicating that promotion does not significantly influence SCTD. This result suggests that while promotional activities are critical for raising awareness and attracting tourists, they do not directly contribute to the SCTD. Furthermore, sustainable cultural practices positively and significantly influence SCTD, with a $P < 0.001$ and $\beta = 0.036$. This shows that the 1% greater the sustainable cultural practices followed, the 0.036% higher the SCTD will occur. Hence, the ***H_{44} is supported.***

7.4 Moderating Role of Demographic Characteristics

7.4.1 Proposed Model of SCTD with Moderating Effect of Demographic Characteristics

Tourism research has also been conducted to understand the cause-and-effect variation in resident attitudes, perceived impacts, and support for tourism development across demographic variables. Variables such as gender, age, education level, income, occupation, and length of stay have been widely used as demographic factors that have been found to have either a positive or negative effect on tourism development. Bagri and Kala (2016) have examined the perceived impact of tourism development across demographic factors such as gender, education level, and age. The study shows a significant difference in the economic impact of tourism on the community across generations, social-cultural impact across age and education, and environmental impact across education and gender.

In addition, Sharma and Gursoy (2014) and Sinclair-Maragh et al. (2015) residents perceived the result of tourism developments economic, social, cultural, and environmental effects as significant differences across residency, age, education level, gender, monthly income, and occupation. A study conducted in the UAE by Papastathopoulos et al. (2019) indicated that gender, education, and nationality positively influence the perceived impacts. In contrast, length of residency and age do not have any significant effect.

A similar study in a Kashmir region, India, observed that age, education, marital status, and income level best predict resident attitudes toward the perceived social and economic benefit. In contrast, gender, length, and occupation are negatively affected (Bhat & Mishra, 2020). Huttasin (2008) examined the relationship between demographic factors and Baan Tawai residents' perceptions of the social impacts of tourism development. It results in residents receiving income from tourists living within the tourism zone who are younger and must perceive the effects of tourism more positively than other residents.

On the other hand, residents who have lived in the community for a more extended period, especially women, perceive less positive impact from tourism than other residents. Another study conducted in Downtown Greenville, SC, USA (An et al., 2021) highlighted that resident attitudes towards tourism growth have been moderated by only the age and gender of the respondents and ignoring the insignificant effect of length of stay. Ribeiro et al. (2013) in Cape Verde Islands and Guzman et al. (2020) in Vieques National Wildlife Refuge, Puerto Rico, also found significant differences concerning socio-demographic characteristics and the degree of involvement in the tourism sector.

Gender differences are also substantial across tourism beliefs, evaluation, and impact (Wang et al., 2010). Studies in cultural tourism, such as Pavlić et al. (2019), found that age, monthly income, and residence length support current and cultural tourism development. In contrast, gender, education, and occupations are statistically insignificant. Contrary to this, Bayno and Jani, (2016) argue that gender and education also significantly affect contribution of cultural tourism. Females and those with at least primary education had a higher positive attitude toward cultural tourism than males without formal education. Regarding resident attitudes toward tourists, it was also found that there are significant differences in the perception and acceptance of foreign tourists' behaviour regarding age, level of education, and respondents' place of residence (Armenski et al., 2011). The review of existing literature indicates that demographic characteristics, including age, income, occupation, gender,

education level, and length of residency, significantly moderate resident attitudes, perceived impacts, and support for tourism development. The evidence suggests that different demographic groups experience and evaluate tourism impacts variably, with significant differences in perceptions across these demographic dimensions. These findings pave the way for formulating hypotheses regarding the moderating role of demographic characteristics.

By acknowledging the moderating role of demographic factors, SCTD strategies can be tailored to address diverse resident groups' specific needs and attitudes, enhancing community engagement and support for SCTD. Based on the discussion, the hypotheses are drawn considering the moderating role of demographic characteristics of stakeholders in the relationship between CSI and SCTD. (Refer to Section 7.3).

H_{45}: *Stakeholders' gender moderates the relationships between CSI (**$H_{45.i}$ to $H_{45.vii}$**) and SCTD.*

H_{46}: *Stakeholders' age moderates the relationships between CSI (**$H_{46.i}$ to $H_{46.vii}$**) and SCTD.*

H_{47}: *Stakeholders' occupation moderates the relationships between CSI (**$H_{47.i}$ to $H_{47.vii}$**) and SCTD.*

H_{48}: *Stakeholders' marital status moderates the relationships between CSI (**$H_{48.i}$ to $H_{48.vii}$**) and SCTD.*

H_{49}: *Stakeholders' education qualification moderates the relationships between CSI (**$H_{49.i}$ to $H_{49.vii}$**) and SCTD.*

H_{50}: *Stakeholders' annual income moderates the relationships between CSI (**$H_{50.i}$ to $H_{50.vii}$**) and SCTD.*

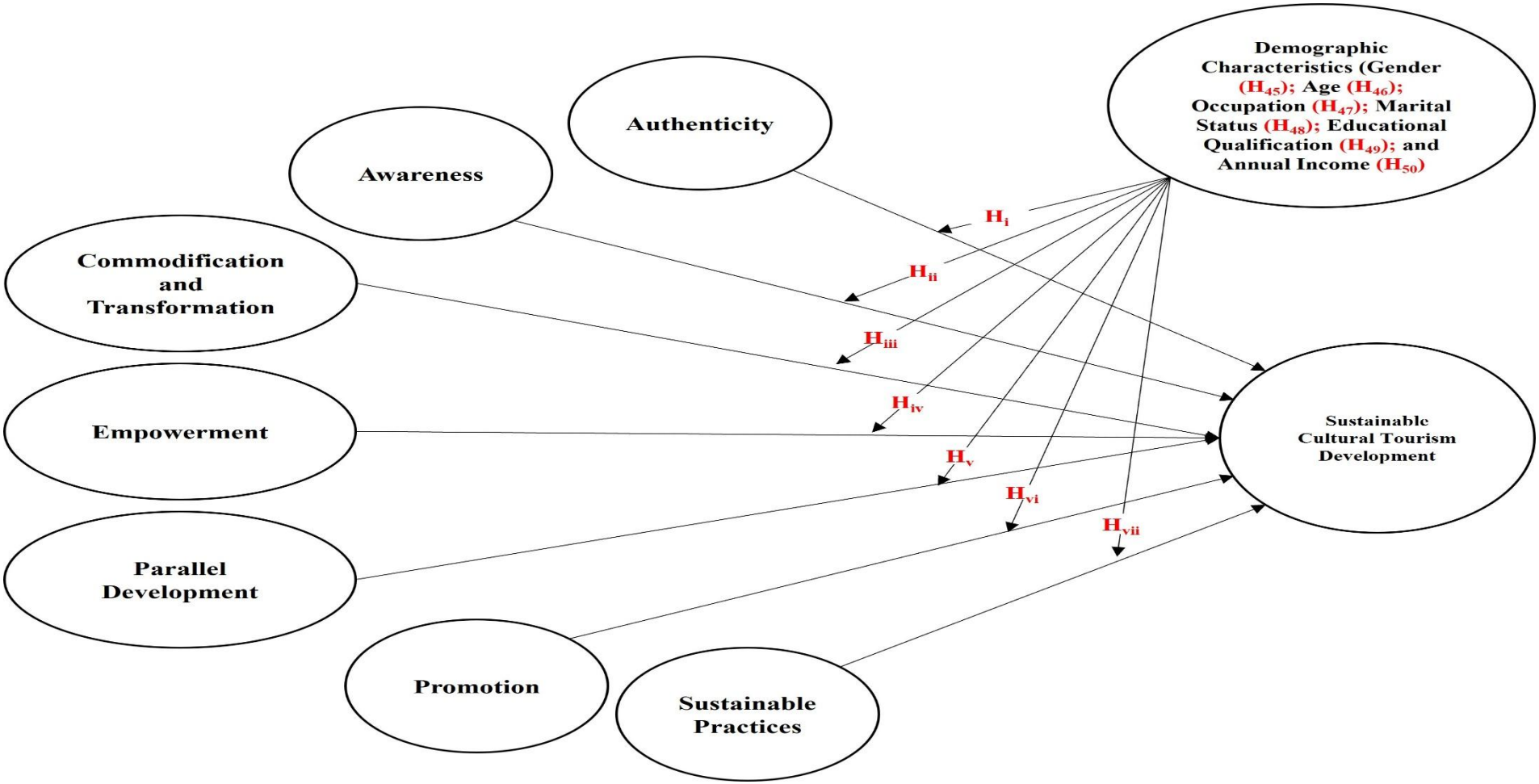


Figure 7. 3 Conceptual Research Model- Proposed SCTD Model with Moderation Effect of Demographic Characteristics

Source: *Author's compilation*

Note: *Moderating Relationships Hypotheses are highlighted in* ***Red***

The conceptual model is shown in Figure 7. 3 assumes that demographic factors are critical for understanding and effectively managing SCTD. These factors significantly influence tourists' and residents' preferences and behaviours, shaping the design of inclusive and targeted SCTD strategies. For tourists, demographics play a key role in tailoring experiences.

Age affects preferences, with younger tourists favouring interactive and modern cultural activities, while older individuals gravitate toward traditional and preservation-focused experiences. Gender influences interests, as women may be more drawn to artistic or culinary experiences, while men might prefer historical or adventure-based activities.

Recognising these variations helps enhance tourist satisfaction and engagement. For residents, factors like occupation and education qualification influence their attitudes toward cultural preservation and participation in tourism. Those with higher education levels are more likely to view heritage as vital to community identity and actively support its preservation. In contrast, occupation and income levels affect their ability to engage with or benefit from cultural tourism activities.

From a policy perspective, demographic data informs the development of inclusive strategies. Income levels guide pricing to ensure accessibility for various socio-economic groups, marital status highlights the need for family-friendly activities, and education levels influence the creation of interpretative and educational content at heritage sites.

Moreover, tailoring SCTD initiatives to demographic diversity ensures a balance between cultural preservation and economic growth. This approach promotes sustainable tourism and strengthens community involvement, creating long-term benefits for all stakeholders. Thus, demographic factors are significant in bridging the gap between the diverse expectations of tourists and the cultural and economic needs of residents, fostering inclusive SCTD.

7.4.2 Results and Interpretation

7.4.2.1 Demographic Profile of the Respondents

Table 7. 11 Shows the Demographic Profile of the Respondents (n=949)

	Attributes	Frequency (n)	Percent (%)
Gender	Male	560	59.0
	Female	389	41.0
Age (In Years)	18-30	327	34.5
	31-44	345	36.4
	45-59	238	25.1
	60 and above	39	4.1
Occupation	Government Employee	215	22.7
	Private Employee	381	40.1
	Business	152	16.0
	Other	201	21.2
Marital Status	Married	592	62.4
	Unmarried	357	37.6
Education Qualification	Up to 10th Grade	103	10.9
	12th Grade	204	21.5
	Graduation	304	32.0
	Post Graduation	290	30.6
	Other	48	5.1
Annual Individual Income (Indian Rs/US Dollars)	< Rs. 4 Lakhs (< $5, 400)	509	53.6
	Rs. 4-8 Lakhs ($5 400 - $10, 700)	279	29.4
	> Rs. 8 Lakhs (> $10, 700)	161	17.0

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Table 7. 11 presents the key demographic profiles of stakeholders. The data reveals that the majority, 59%, are male, while 41% are female. The age group of 31-44 represented the most significant portion of the respondents at 36.4%. However, only 4.1% of respondents are in the 60 and above category. Regarding occupation, private employees comprise the largest group at 40.1%, followed by government employees at 22.7% and businessmen at 16%.

Among the respondents, 62.4% were identified as married, underscoring the significant role of this demographic factor in shaping our stakeholders' profile. In contrast, 38.5% were either unmarried or single. Furthermore, the highest level of education attained by the respondents was categorised as follows: 32% had graduated, 30.6% were postgraduates, 21.5% had completed 12th grade, and only 10.9% had a 10th-grade education. A small group, comprising 5.1%, fell into the "other" category, which includes those who completed

diplomas and related courses. Regarding annual income, 53.6% of respondents reported earning less than Rs. 4 lakhs, while only 17% indicated a yearly income exceeding Rs. 8 lakhs.

7.4.2.2 Moderating Effect of Gender

Table 7. 12 Shows the Moderating Effect of Gender

H_{45}	Constructs	Beta (β)	P Values	Inference
$H_{45.i}$	Gender x AU -> SCTD	-0.049	0.522	Unsupported
$H_{45.ii}$	Gender x AW -> SCTD	-0.027	0.729	Unsupported
$H_{45.iii}$	Gender x CT -> SCTD	-0.001	0.990	Unsupported
$H_{45.iv}$	Gender x EM -> SCTD	-0.004	0.959	Unsupported
$H_{45.v}$	Gender x PD -> SCTD	-0.052	0.431	Unsupported
$H_{45.vi}$	Gender x PM -> SCTD	0.101	0.182	Unsupported
$H_{45.vii}$	Gender x SP -> SCTD	0.057	0.458	Unsupported

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: AU- *Authenticity;* ***AW-*** *Awareness;* ***CT-*** *Commodification and Transformation;* ***EM-*** *Empowerment;* ***PD-*** *Parallel Development;* ***PM-*** *Promotion;* ***SCTD-*** *Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development;* ***SP-*** *Sustainable Practices*

Table 7. 12 shows gender interaction with various factors related to SCTD. The moderating effect of gender on the relationship between authenticity and SCTD is statistically insignificant, comprising a P= 0.522 and β= -0.049. Similarly, the P= 0.729 and β= -0.027 results show that the interaction between gender and awareness is statistically insignificant. This suggests that gender does not significantly moderate the relationship between awareness and SCTD.

The interaction between gender and commodification and transformation is also statistically insignificant, with P= 0.990 and β= -0.001, indicating that gender does not significantly moderate the relationship between this commodification and transformation and SCTD. The gender interaction does not significantly moderate the relationship between empowerment and SCTD. Therefore, the moderating relationship is statistically insignificant, at a P= 0.959 and β=-0.004. Moreover, gender interaction between parallel development and SCTD is also statistically negligible at a P= 0.431 and β= -0.052.

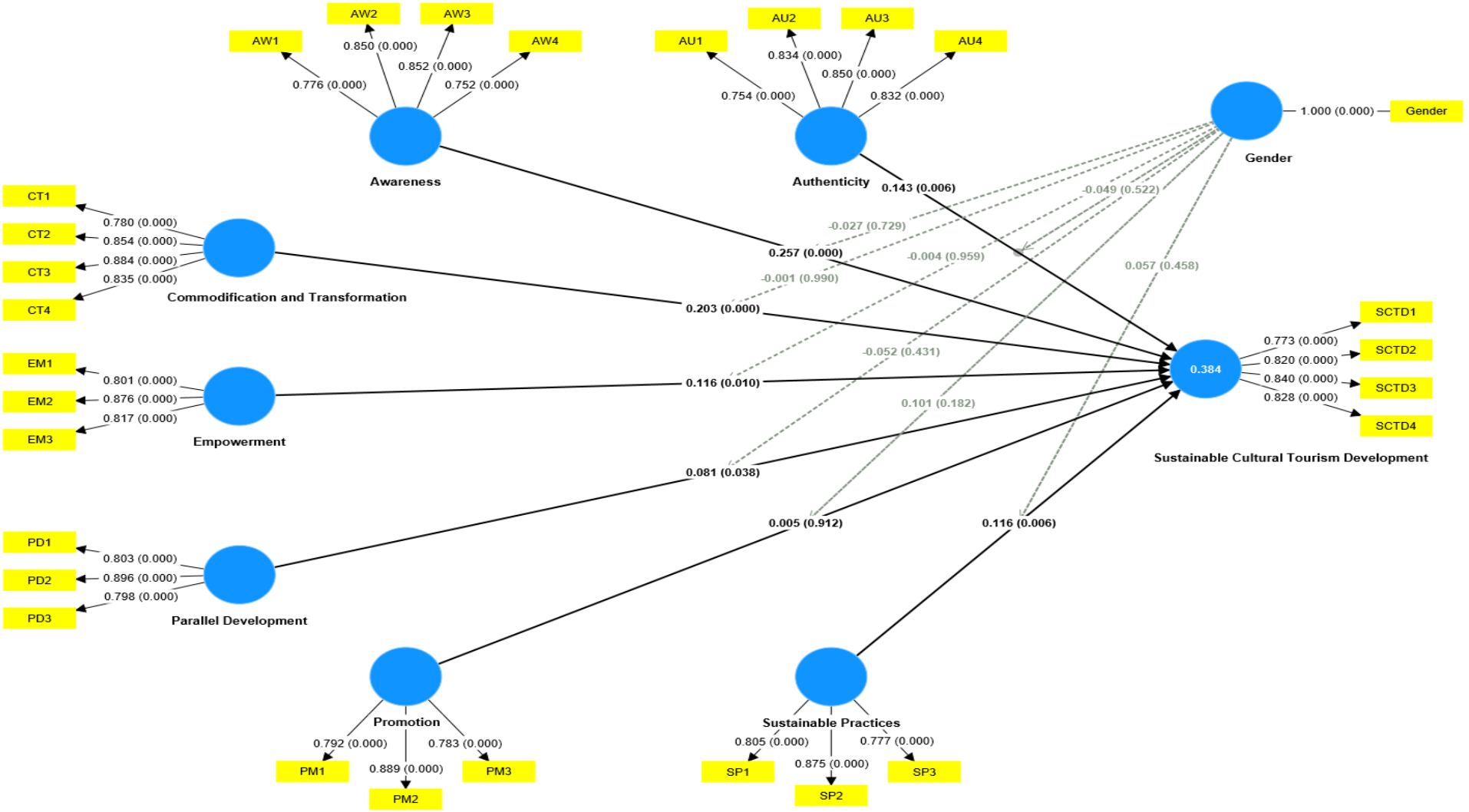


Figure 7. 4 Estimation of the Moderating Effect of Gender

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Concerning gender and promotion, the interaction is statistically insignificant at P= 0.182 and β= 0.101, suggesting no moderation effect of gender on the relationship between promotion and SCTD. Lastly, the interaction between gender and sustainable practices is also statistically insignificant at P= 0.458 and β= 0.057, indicating that gender does not significantly moderate the relationship between sustainable practices and SCTD. Therefore, the hypotheses ***$H_{45.i}$, $H_{45.ii}$, $H_{45.iii}$, $H_{45.iv}$, $H_{45.v}$, $H_{45.vi}$ and $H_{45.vii}$ are unsupported.***

7.4.2.3 Moderating Effect of Age

Table 7. 13 Shows the Moderating Effect of Age

H_{46}	Constructs	Beta (β)	P Values	Inference
$H_{46.i}$	Age x AU -> SCTD	0.012	0.764	Unsupported
$H_{46.ii}$	Age x AW -> SCTD	-0.021	0.597	Unsupported
$H_{46.iii}$	Age x CT -> SCTD	-0.058	0.027	Supported
$H_{46.iv}$	Age x EM -> SCTD	0.091	0.007	Supported
$H_{46.v}$	Age x PD -> SCTD	-0.047	0.134	Unsupported
$H_{46.vi}$	Age x PM -> SCTD	-0.056	0.135	Unsupported
$H_{46.vii}$	Age x SP -> SCTD	0.079	0.027	Supported

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: AU- *Authenticity;* ***AW-*** *Awareness;* ***CT-*** *Commodification and Transformation;* ***EM-*** *Empowerment;* ***PD-*** *Parallel Development;* ***PM-*** *Promotion;* ***SCTD-*** *Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development;* ***SP-*** *Sustainable Practices*

Table 7. 13 shows the moderation effect of age between CSI and SCTD. In this case, the interaction between age and authenticity does not significantly influence SCTD at a P= 0.764 and β= 0.012. This suggests that age does not moderate the relationship between authenticity and SCTD. Similarly, the interaction between age and awareness is not statistically significant at a P= 0.597 and β= -0.021), indicating that age does not significantly moderate the relationship between awareness and SCTD. Therefore, ***$H_{46.i}$ and $H_{46.ii}$ are unsupported.***

Nevertheless, the interaction between age and commodification and transformation significantly influenced SCTD at a P= 0.027. Thus, ***$H_{46.iii}$ is supported***. The negative β= -0.058 suggests that as age increases, the negative influence of commodification and transformation on SCTD decreases. Older individuals may not value commodification and transformation in the context of cultural tourism. The interaction between age and empowerment also significantly influences SCTD, with a P= 0.007 and β= 0.091. Hence, ***$H_{46.iv}$ is supported***.

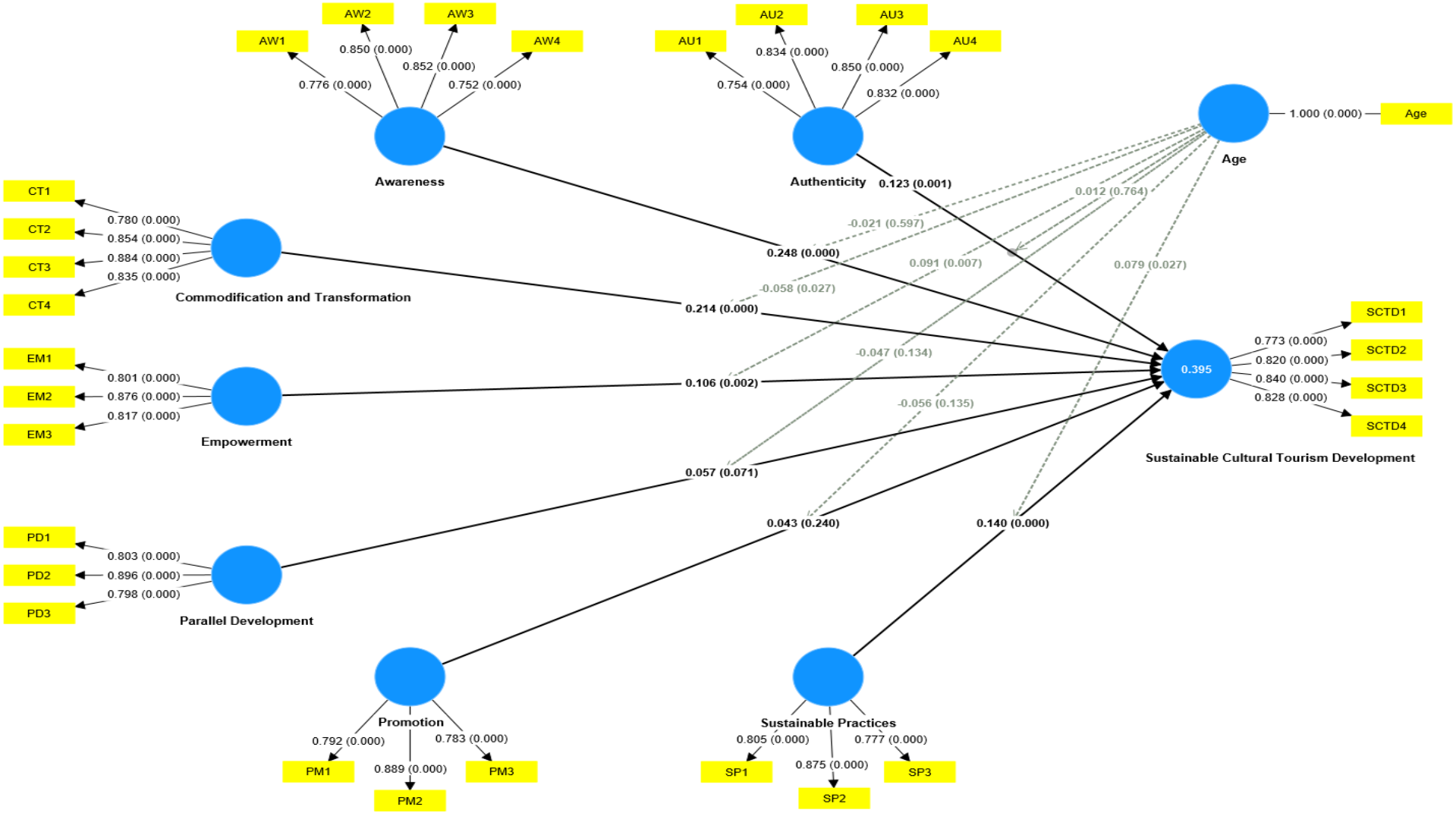


Figure 7. 5 Estimation of the Moderating Effect of Age

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

The positive β= 0.091 indicates that as age increases, the positive influence of empowerment on SCTD also increases. This suggests that older individuals may place greater importance on empowerment in SCTD. The interaction between age and parallel development does not significantly influence SCTD, comprising a P= 0.134 and β= -0.047, suggesting that age does not moderate the relationship between parallel development and SCTD. Similarly, the interaction between age and promotion does not significantly influence SCTD at a P= 0.135 and β= 0.056. This indicates that age does not moderate the relationship between promotion and SCTD. Hence, ***$H_{46.v}$ and $H_{46.vi}$ are not supported.***

Lastly, the interaction between age and sustainable practices significantly affects SCTD, with a P= 0.027. Therefore, ***$H_{46.vii}$ is supported***. The positive β= 0.079 implies that sustainable practices' positive influence on SCTD strengthens as individuals age. Older individuals may value sustainable practices more in the context of cultural tourism.

7.4.2.4 Moderating Effect of Occupation

Table 7. 14 Shows the Moderating Effect of Occupation

H_{47}	Constructs	Beta (β)	P Values	Inference
$H_{47.i}$	Occupation x AU -> SCTD	0.019	0.630	Unsupported
$H_{47.ii}$	Occupation x AW -> SCTD	0.020	0.608	Unsupported
$H_{47.iii}$	Occupation x EM -> SCTD	-0.025	0.480	Unsupported
$H_{47.iv}$	Occupation x CT -> SCTD	0.007	0.805	Unsupported
$H_{47.v}$	Occupation x PD -> SCTD	0.022	0.484	Unsupported
$H_{47.vi}$	Occupation x PM -> SCTD	0.027	0.481	Unsupported
$H_{47.vii}$	Occupation x SP -> SCTD	-0.012	0.747	Unsupported

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: AU- *Authenticity;* ***AW-*** *Awareness;* ***CT-*** *Commodification and Transformation;* ***EM-*** *Empowerment;* ***PD-*** *Parallel Development;* ***PM-*** *Promotion;* ***SCTD-*** *Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development;* ***SP-*** *Sustainable Practices*

Table 7. 14 shows the moderation effect of occupation between various factors and SCTD. The interaction between occupation and authenticity does not significantly influence SCTD at a P= 0.630 and β= 0.019. This suggests that occupation does not moderate the relationship between authenticity and SCTD. Moreover, the interaction between occupation and awareness does not significantly influence SCTD at a P= 0.608 and β= 0.020, indicating that occupation does not moderate the relationship between awareness and SCTD.

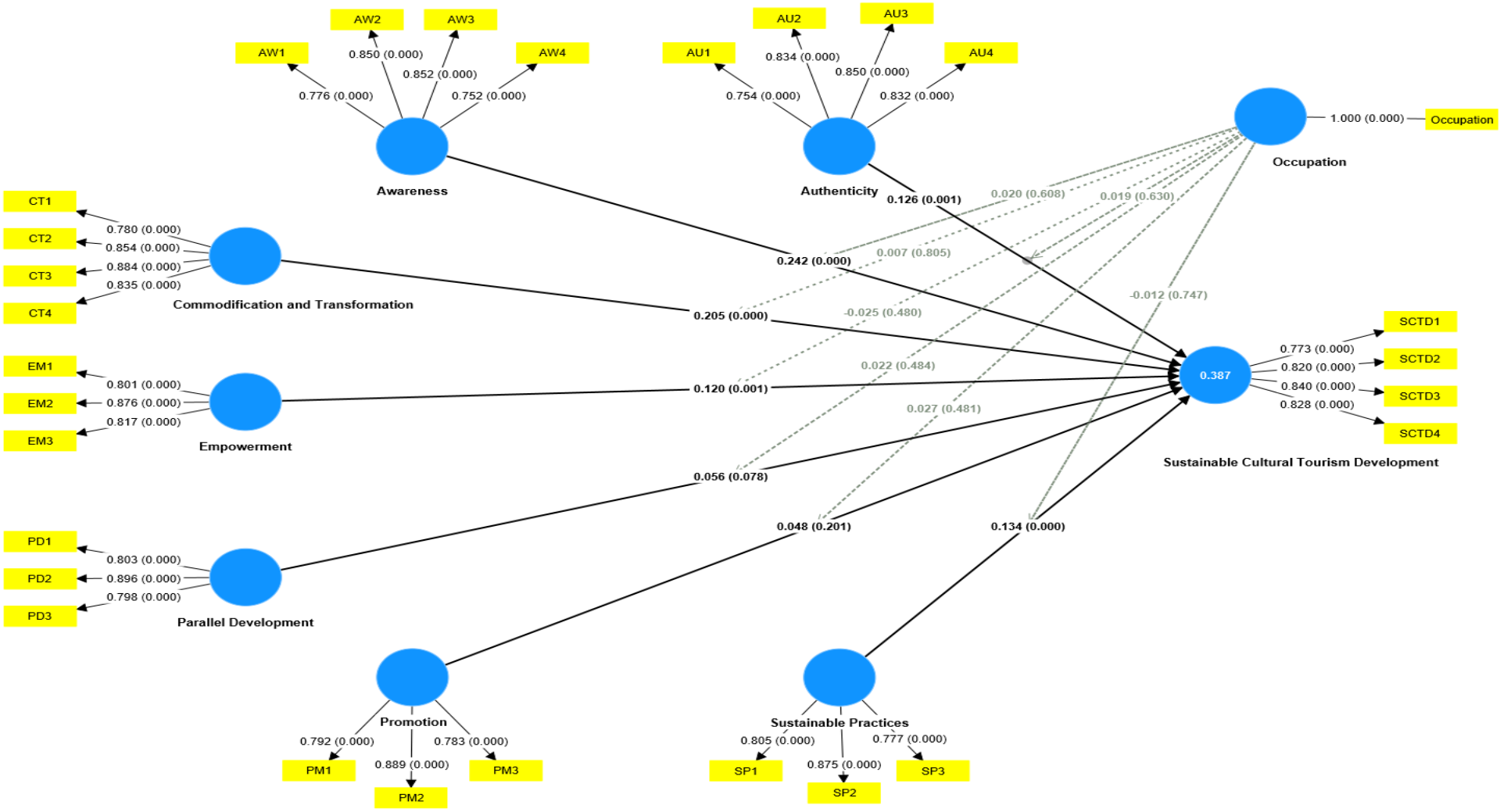


Figure 7. 6 Estimation of the Moderating Effect of Occupation

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

The interaction between occupation and empowerment also does not significantly influence SCTD, as the P= 0.480 and β= -0.025 are not within a threshold limit. This indicates that occupation does not moderate the relationship between empowerment and SCTD. Likewise, the interaction between occupation and commodification and transformation does not significantly influence SCTD at a P= 0.805 and β= 0.007. This suggests that occupation does not moderate the relationship between commodification and transformation and SCTD. The interaction between occupation and parallel development does not significantly influence SCTD at a P= 0.484 and β= 0.022. This suggests that occupation does not moderate the relationship between parallel development and SCTD.

Furthermore, the interaction between occupation and promotion does not significantly influence SCTD at a P= 0.481 and β= 0.027, indicating that occupation does not moderate the relationship between promotion and SCTD. Lastly, P= 0.747 and β= -0.012 suggest that the interaction between occupation and sustainable practices does not significantly influence SCTD. Therefore, the occupation does not moderate the relationship between sustainable practices and SCTD. Therefore, ***$H_{47.i}$, $H_{47.ii}$, $H_{47.iii}$, $H_{47.iv}$, $H_{47.v}$, $H_{47.vi}$ and $H_{47.vii}$ are unsupported.***

7.4.2.5 Moderating Effect of Marital Status

Table 7. 15 Shows the Moderating Effect of Marital Status

H_{48}	Constructs	Beta (β)	P Values	Inference
$H_{48.i}$	Marital Status x AU -> SCTD	-0.057	0.471	Unsupported
$H_{48.ii}$	Marital Status x AW -> SCTD	-0.032	0.674	Unsupported
$H_{48.iii}$	Marital Status x CT -> SCTD	0.029	0.627	Unsupported
$H_{48.iv}$	Marital Status x EM -> SCTD	-0.016	0.830	Unsupported
$H_{48.v}$	Marital Status x PD -> SCTD	-0.033	0.605	Unsupported
$H_{48.vi}$	Marital Status x PM -> SCTD	0.094	0.204	Unsupported
$H_{48.vii}$	Marital Status x SP -> SCTD	-0.008	0.904	Unsupported

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: AU- *Authenticity;* ***AW-*** *Awareness;* ***CT-*** *Commodification and Transformation;* ***EM-*** *Empowerment;* ***PD-*** *Parallel Development;* ***PM-*** *Promotion;* ***SCTD-*** *Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development;* ***SP-*** *Sustainable Practices*

Table 7. 15 shows the moderation effect of marital status between CSI and SCTD. The P= 0.471 and β= -0.057 suggest that the interaction between marital status and authenticity does not significantly influence SCTD. Thus, marital status does not moderate the relationship between authenticity and SCTD.

Furthermore, the comprehensive research reveals that the interaction between marital status and awareness does not significantly influence SCTD at a P= 0.674 and β= -0.032. This robust analysis indicates that marital status does not moderate the relationship between awareness and SCTD.

Similarly, the interaction between marital status and commodification and transformation does not significantly influence SCTD at a P= 0.627 and β= 0.029, reinforcing that marital status does not moderate the relationship between commodification and transformation and SCTD. These findings are significant as they provide a deeper understanding of the factors influencing SCTD. Likewise, the interaction between marital status and empowerment does not significantly influence SCTD at a P= 0.830 and β= -0.016, which indicates that marital status does not moderate the relationship between empowerment and SCTD.

The interaction between marital status and parallel development does not significantly influence SCTD at a P= 0.605 and β= -0.033, indicating that marital status does not moderate the relationship between parallel development and SCTD. The interaction between marital status and promotion also does not significantly influence SCTD at a P= 0.204 and β= 0.094. While the p-value is relatively low, it does not reach the acceptable threshold for statistical significance of $P < 0.05$.

Lastly, the interaction between marital status and sustainable practices does not significantly influence SCTD, at a P= 0.904 and β= -0.008. This suggests that marital status does not moderate the relationship between sustainable practices and SCTD. Thus, ***$H_{48.i}$, $H_{48.ii}$, $H_{48.iii}$, $H_{48.iv}$, $H_{48.v}$, $H_{48.vi}$ and $H_{48.vii}$ are unsupported.***

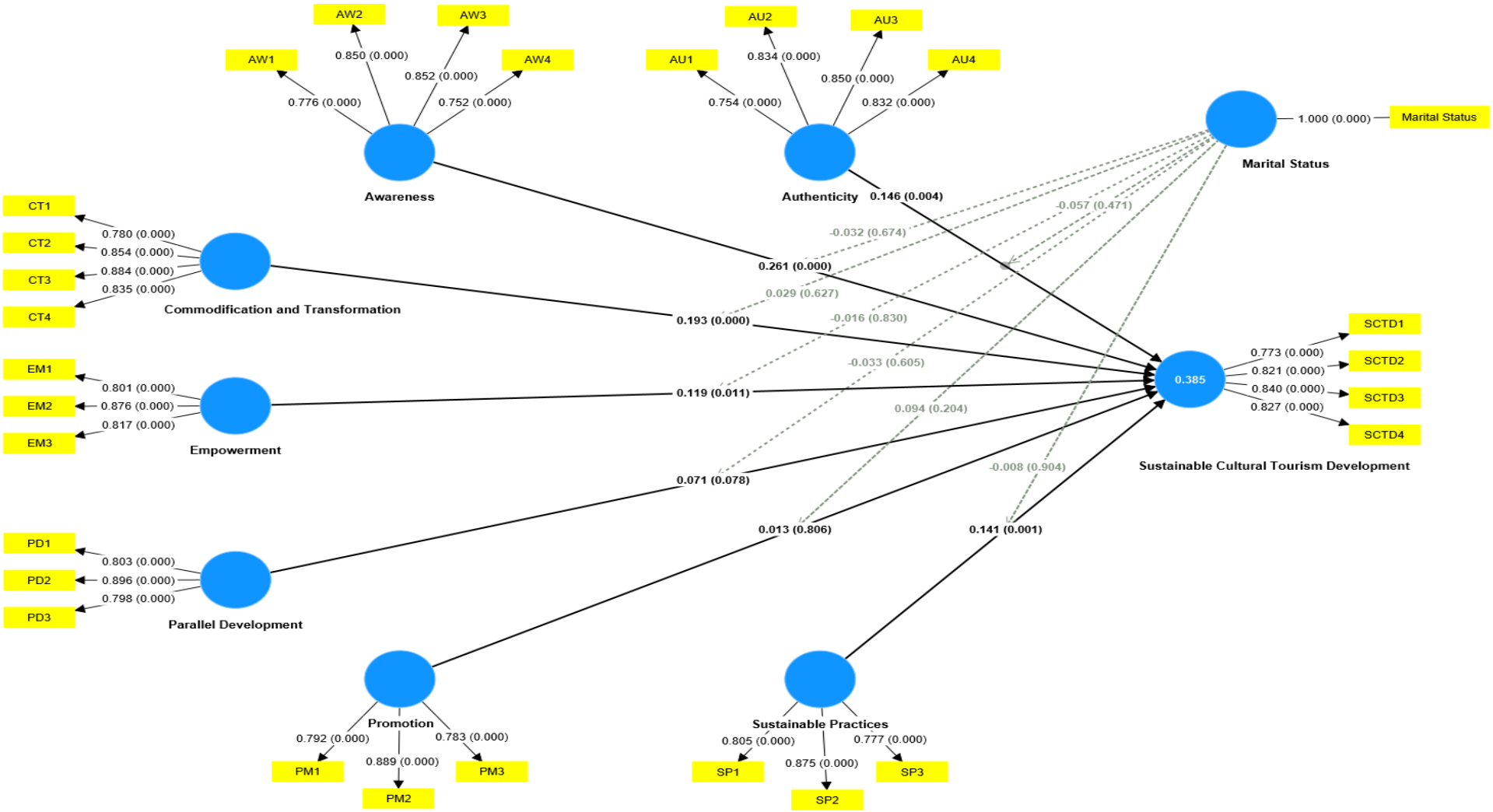


Figure 7. 7 Estimation of the Moderating Effect of Marital Status

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

7.4.2.6 Moderating Effect of Education Qualification

Table 7. 16 Shows the Moderating Effect of Education Qualification

H_{49}	Constructs	Beta (β)	P Values	Inference
$H_{49.i}$	Education Qualification x AU -> SCTD	0.043	0.286	Unsupported
$H_{49.ii}$	Education Qualification x AW -> SCTD	0.055	0.183	Unsupported
$H_{49.iii}$	Education Qualification x CT -> SCTD	-0.054	0.054	Unsupported
$H_{49.iv}$	Education Qualification x EM -> SCTD	-0.005	0.882	Unsupported
$H_{49.v}$	Education Qualification x PD -> SCTD	-0.038	0.267	Unsupported
$H_{49.vi}$	Education Qualification x PM -> SCTD	-0.028	0.463	Unsupported
$H_{49.vii}$	Education Qualification x SP -> SCTD	0.063	0.077	Unsupported

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: AU- *Authenticity;* ***AW-*** *Awareness;* ***CT-*** *Commodification and Transformation;* ***EM-*** *Empowerment;* ***PD-*** *Parallel Development;* ***PM-*** *Promotion;* ***SCTD-*** *Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development;* ***SP-*** *Sustainable Practices*

Table 7. 16 shows the moderation effect of education qualification between various factors and SCTD. The interaction between education qualification and authenticity suggests that education qualification does not moderate the relationship between authenticity and SCTD at a P= 0.286 and β= 0.043, indicating no significant relationship.

Similarly, the interaction between education qualification and awareness does not significantly influence SCTD at a P= 0.183 and β= 0.055. This indicates that education qualification does not moderate the relationship between awareness and SCTD. Thus, ***$H_{49.i}$ and $H_{49.ii}$ are unsupported***. These findings have practical implications for designing and implementing sustainable tourism initiatives. The interaction between education qualification and commodification and transformation does not significantly affect SCTD at a P= 0.054 and β= -0.054. Hence, ***$H_{49.iii}$ is not supported.*** The interaction between education qualification and empowerment does not significantly influence SCTD, comprising a P= 0.882 and β= -0.005. This indicates that education qualification does not moderate the relationship between empowerment and SCTD.

Similarly, the interaction between education qualification and parallel development does not significantly influence SCTD, comprising a P= 0.267 and β= -0.038. This suggests that education qualification does not moderate the relationship between parallel development and SCTD. The P= 0.463 and β= -0.028 indicate that the interaction between education qualification and promotion does not significantly influence SCTD.

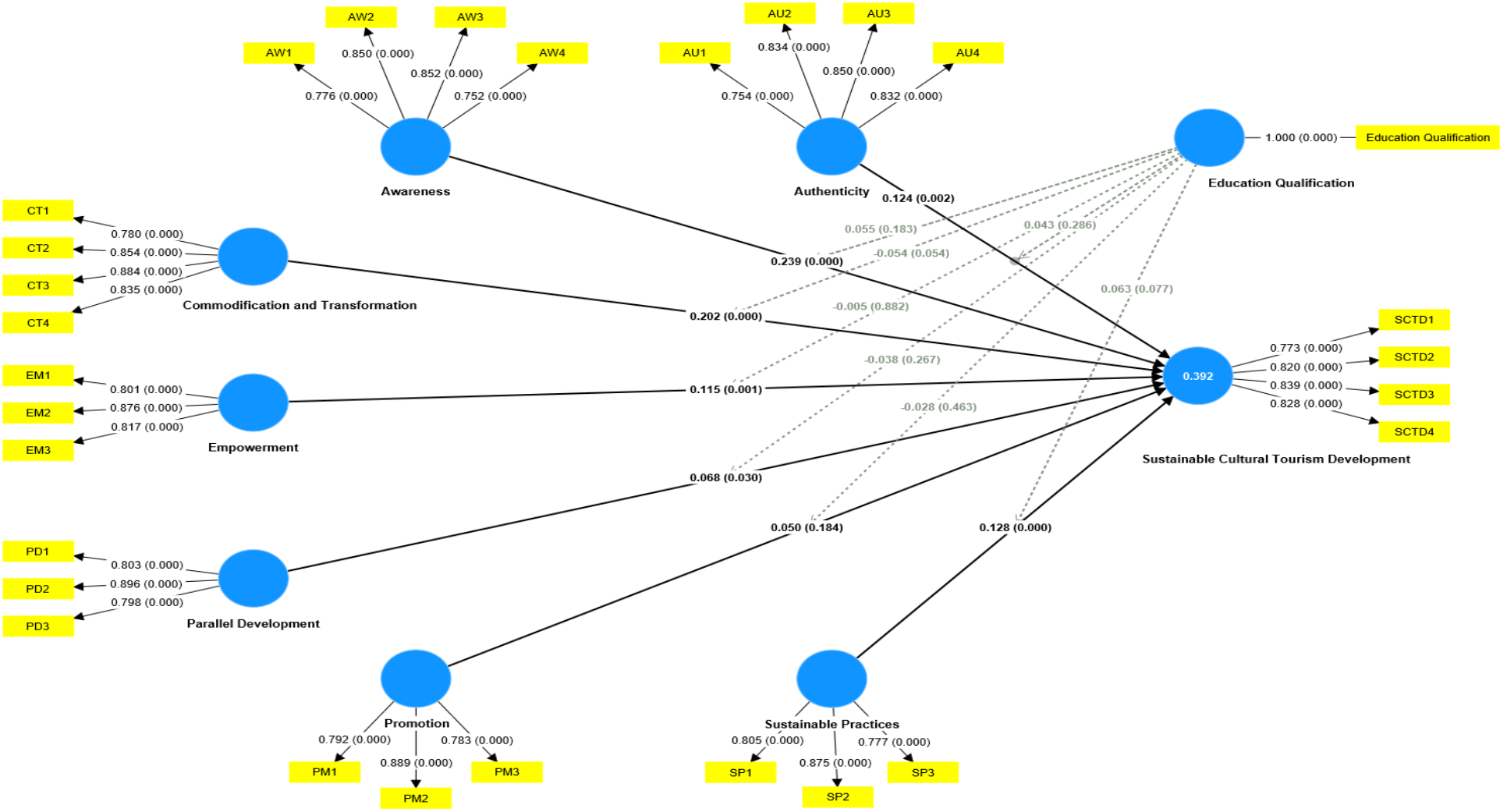


Figure 7. 8 Estimation of the Moderating Effect of Education Qualification

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Therefore, education qualification does not moderate the relationship between promotion and SCTD. Lastly, the interaction between education qualification and sustainable practices also does not significantly affect SCTD at a P= 0.077 and β= 0.063, as the p-value is over and above the threshold limit of 0.05 level of significance. Thus, ***$H_{49.iv}$, $H_{49.v}$, $H_{49.vi}$ and $H_{49.vii}$ are not supported.***

7.4.2.7 Moderating Effect of Annual Individual Income

Table 7. 17 Shows the Moderating Effect of Annual Individual Income

H_{50}	Constructs	Beta (β)	P Values	Inference
$H_{50.i}$	Annual Individual Income x AU -> SCTD	0.054	0.211	Unsupported
$H_{50.ii}$	Annual Individual Income x AW -> SCTD	0.028	0.507	Unsupported
$H_{50.iii}$	Annual Individual Income x CT -> SCTD	-0.091	< 0.001	Supported
$H_{50.iv}$	Annual Individual Income x EM -> SCTD	0.015	0.685	Unsupported
$H_{50.v}$	Annual Individual Income x PD -> SCTD	-0.053	0.081	Unsupported
$H_{50.vi}$	Annual Individual Income x PM -> SCTD	0.000	0.995	Unsupported
$H_{50.vii}$	Annual Individual Income x SP -> SCTD	0.029	0.394	Unsupported

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

Note: AU- *Authenticity;* ***AW-*** *Awareness;* ***CT-*** *Commodification and Transformation;* ***EM-*** *Empowerment;* ***PD-*** *Parallel Development;* ***PM-*** *Promotion;* ***SCTD-*** *Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development;* ***SP-*** *Sustainable Practices*

Table 7. 17 shows the moderation effect of annual individual income between CSI and SCTD. The result indicated that the interaction between individual yearly income and authenticity does not significantly influence SCTD, with a p-value of 0.211 and β value of 0.054. This suggests that individual annual income does not moderate the relationship between authenticity and SCTD.

The interaction between annual individual income and awareness does not significantly influence SCTD at a P= 0.507 and β= 0.028. This indicates that ***$H_{50.i}$ and $H_{50.ii}$ are unsupported***, as annual individual income does not moderate the relationship between authenticity, awareness, and SCTD.

Furthermore, the interaction between individual yearly income and commodification and transformation significantly influences SCTD at a P < 0.001. Therefore, ***$H_{50.iii}$ is supported***. The negative β= -0.091 suggests that as annual individual income increases, the commodification and transformation of SCTD reduces. This finding is supported.

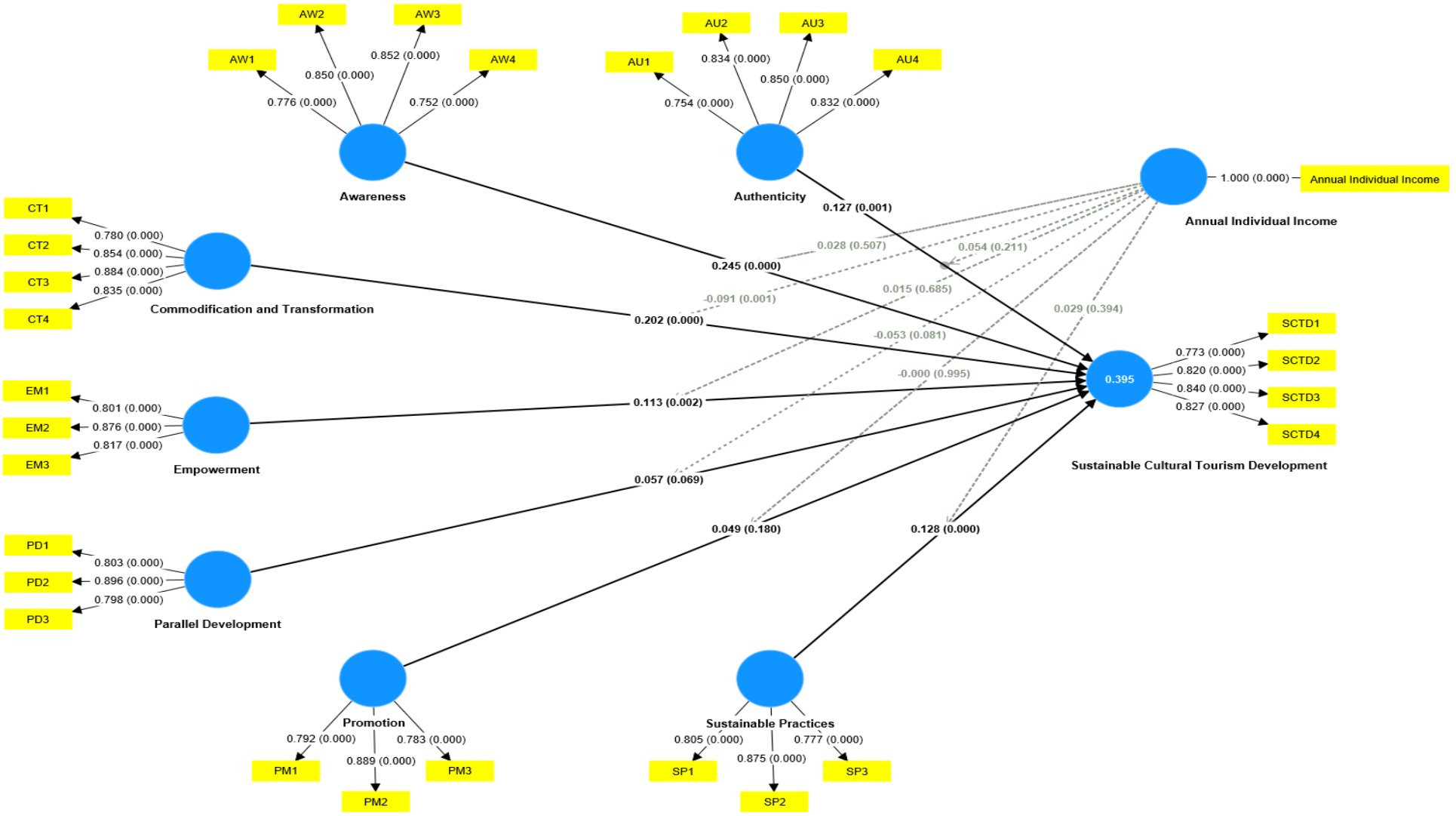


Figure 7. 9 Estimation of the Moderating Effect of Annual Individual Income

Source: *Author's compilation based on primary data*

The interaction between annual individual income and empowerment does not significantly influence SCTD at a P= 0.685 and β= 0.015. This indicates that annual individual income does not moderate the relationship between empowerment and SCTD. Similarly, the interaction between annual individual income and parallel development does not significantly affect SCTD at a P= 0.081 and β= -0.053.

Along similar lines, it is also noticed that the interaction between annual individual income and promotion does not significantly influence SCTD at a P= 0.995 and β= 0.000. This indicates that individual yearly income does not moderate the relationship between promotion and SCTD. Similarly, the interaction between annual income and sustainable practices does not significantly influence SCTD at a P= 0.394 and β= 0.029, indicating that individual yearly income does not moderate the relationship between sustainable practices and SCTD. Therefore, ***$H_{50.iv}$, $H_{50.v}$, $H_{50.vi}$ and $H_{50.vii}$ are not supported***.

Chapter 8

Findings, Discussions, Conclusion, Managerial and Practical Implications, and Scope for Future Research

8.1 Introduction

Chapter 8 meticulously presents the findings from analysing the respondents' data. The findings are arranged in order of the following manner; firstly, the demographic profiles of the respondents have been analysed through cross-tabulation and presented. After that, the data analysis to assess the potential of cultural tourism is discussed. Eventually, the tourists' behavioural intentions to revisit the ICH resources were summarised and presented.

Furthermore, the residents' perceived impact and support for cultural tourism are structurally presented. Lastly, the indicators of cultural sustainability are analysed based on key aspects and are presented. This chapter also includes implications for each objective and scope for future research in sustaining and developing the tourism industry through cultural tourism. The detailed findings, discussion, and implications are explained below, along with suggestions for future research directions in cultural tourism.

8.2 Inferences Based on the Demographics Profile

The findings of overall demographic profiles show that a higher percentage of 59% of males, are in the sample compared to females of 41%. The age distribution shows majority of the sample comprised a younger population, with 70.9% between 18 and 44 years old. Only 4.1% are 60 and older, indicating a smaller elderly demographic.

The private employees dominate the occupational distribution of 40.1%, reflecting a significant portion of the workforce. Government employees and those in other occupations are also notable groups. The majority, 62.4%, are married, indicating a stable family structure. Most of the population is well educated, with 32% holding a graduate degree. The data reflects relatively high educational attainment among the population.

Similarly, 53.6% of the individuals earn less than Rs. 4 lakhs annually, suggesting a modest income distribution. A smaller portion of 17% earn more than Rs. 8 lakhs, indicating fewer high-income individuals. This demographic data can help understand social structures, economic conditions, and potential areas for policy intervention.

8.3 Findings and Discussions

8.3.1 Assessing the Potential Demand and Supply of Cultural Tourism through ICH Resources

The present study's ***first objective*** is to assess cultural tourism's current potential demand and supply. Therefore, the attributes of ICH sites are weighted based on tourists' and residents' rankings. The result showed that the perceived importance of destination attributes differs across the dimensions. Destination attributes are divided into two categories per the modified Du Cros model: potential demand and supply.

The result indicates that there is a ***moderate potential supply and potential demand***. The modified Du Cros model assumes that tourist arrivals at heritage sites will increase the site's ability to cope with increasing visitation, which is becoming a noteworthy issue of concern. The mathematical model used for assessing ICH sites has been refined to address limitations found in previous studies (Malik & Bhat, 2015; Mamun & Mitra, 2012; Neupane et al., 2013), particularly concerning the neglect of market attractiveness and perceived resource value. In applying this modified model, carefully selecting site attributes was crucial.

Tourism potential indicators were primarily based on the Du Cros model and McKercher framework, with the current study adopting the key indicators from the Du Cros model, such as market attractiveness, product design, cultural significance, and robustness. The variables of each sub-indicator were adapted from the Du Cros model and the McKercher framework, improving the comprehensiveness of the assessment by refining and fragmenting certain aspects of the Du Cros and McKercher frameworks.

Notably, the study disregarded certain indicators from the Du Cros model. The robustness indicator was excluded, which relates to issues like fragility, state of repair, and the potential negative impacts of high visitation on the destination's physical and cultural aspects, which relates to issues like fragility, state of repair, and the potential negative impacts of high

visitation on the destination's physical and cultural aspects, was excluded. This was due to its overlap with market appeal concerns, which focus more on the destination's attractiveness than its physical condition or fragility. Similarly, aspects of cultural significance, such as educational value, research value, and representativeness, were also excluded as they were deemed challenging to measure or lacked substantial meaning for the study context (McKercher & Ho, 2006).

The modified model has been rigorously tested for reliability and validity, yielding acceptable results with notably higher SD. The model consists of two dimensions: potential demand and supply. Each of these dimensions includes a series of indicators and sub-indicators, with different weights allocated based on the varying contribution of each element to the overall tourism potential of the site (McKercher & Ho, 2006; Puerta et al., 2020; Sánchez Rivero et al., 2014). This weighted sum method allows for a more nuanced and quantifiable approach, addressing the predominance of qualitative methods in assessing tourism potential in previous studies.

The study uses a dual-perspective approach to assess the potential of ICH sites: tourists evaluate the potential demand, and residents evaluate the potential supply. This approach allows for a comprehensive view of the tourism dynamics from both the demand (tourists') and supply (residents') sides. The model is designed to be user-friendly, allowing even those without a deep mathematical background to understand and apply it. The two-step weighted sum method is straightforward, making the model accessible for practical use in regional tourism planning and site evaluation.

Based on the computed potential values, sites are classified according to the Du Cros matrix evaluation. This categorisation is crucial as it helps identify sites with the most promising tourism potential, enabling better-informed decisions regarding site promotion and development. The study results indicate moderate potential supply and demand for the assessed sites. These findings align with previous studies, such as Bjeljac et al. (2012), where certain heritage sites fall into medium-value categories for significance and market attractiveness.

Similarly, Li and Lo (2004) suggest that conservation and visitor management programs should be carefully maintained to protect heritage sites from over-tourism while encouraging visitation. The evaluation process highlights the importance of balancing tourism

development with the preservation of heritage assets, ensuring that large numbers of visitors maintain the cultural integrity of the site.

In addition, the study's findings support those of Stamenković and Jakšić (2013), who assessed the old town centre in Sombor and found it an example of a heritage site that requires careful promotion and management to safeguard its long-term sustainability. The results also suggest that tourism carrying capacity should be monitored, and various activities should be introduced to expand the tourism offerings without compromising the heritage's value. However, the study's results differ from those of Pobric et al. (2019), who assessed Baščaršija in Sarajevo and found it to possess high cultural significance and market attractiveness. While the study disagrees with the specific results for Baščaršija, it still supports the idea that certain heritage sites with high significance and market appeal require systematic management to ensure long-term sustainability.

The modified Du Cros model has the potential to be applied across numerous ICH sites in the region, providing valuable insights into their tourism potential. This could assist policymakers in identifying priority sites for development, especially those that may not have global recognition but offer authentic experiences for tourists seeking unique cultural heritage. As such, the model contributes to the broader goal of sustainable tourism development, where heritage valorisation is critical for enhancing the attractiveness of sites while respecting the principles of sustainability and "value for money".

This modified Du Cros model provides an important framework for the tourism sector. It helps to evaluate and prioritise cultural heritage sites based on their potential and guides the development of effective marketing and management strategies for these assets. By adopting this approach, heritage tourism can become a powerful tool for regional development, ensuring that local communities benefit from tourism while preserving their cultural heritage for future generations.

8.3.2 Factors Influencing Tourists' Behavioural Intentions to Revisit ICH Resources

The ***second objective***, by applying the extended TPB model, investigates the relationships between various constructs and their effects on tourists' satisfaction, behavioural intention to revisit, and actual behaviour. The key findings from the hypotheses testing are stated

herewith: ***Tourists' attitudes, motivations, destination image, and memorable experiences*** have a positive and significant influence on their ***satisfaction***. In contrast, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control are insignificant.

The findings also show that ***tourist attitudes, destination image, memorable experiences, and satisfaction*** positively and significantly affect ***behavioural intention to revisit***. On the other hand, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and tourist motivation do not significantly influence their behavioural intention to revisit. Moreover, the study also found a significant effect of tourists' behavioural intentions to revisit on their actual behaviour of the visit. The analysis explores the mediating role of ***tourist satisfaction*** in the relationships between various ***antecedents and behavioural intention to revisit***. When analysed, it is found that tourist satisfaction significantly mediates the relationship between the constructs, such as the tourist's attitude, motivation, destination image, memorable experience, and behavioural intention to revisit. The tourists' subjective norms and perceived behavioural control, are unsupported, as the tourist's satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and tourists' behavioural intentions to revisit.

The findings comprehensively understand the factors influencing tourists' satisfaction, intention to revisit a destination, and actual revisiting behaviour. To better understand, this study extended the literature on tourist behaviour by investigating the influence of tourist satisfaction, tourist motivation, destination image, memorable experience, tourist attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. This study applied an extended model of the TPB, widely used for predicting behavioural intentions, as opposed to the TRA.

This study significantly contributes to the following aspects using extended TPB as the theoretical framework. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) stated that a person's attitude towards an object is obtained by measuring their belief of salient attributes that the object has and their evaluation of each attribute. Similarly, individuals are more likely to perform a behaviour if they perceive the existence of more significant social pressure from the salient referents to perform that behaviour. Furthermore, increased perceived behavioural control will result in behavioural intention and the likelihood of performing the act. However, the results of this study demonstrated the utility of TPB as a conceptual framework in analysing the behaviour of visiting a destination among potential visitors based on only the tourist's attitude that has

a direct and positive impact on behavioural intention to revisit (AL Ziadat, 2015; Alonso et al., 2015; Hsu & Huang, 2010; Lee, 2009; Soliman, 2019).

Subjective norms and perceived behavioural control do not significantly impact the behavioural intention to revisit. The results do not support and are inconsistent with previous research such as Ziadat (2015), Alonso et al. (2015), Hsu and Huang (2010), and Soliman (2019). Reza Jalilvand et al. (2012) also stated a significant and positive effect of attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control on behavioural intention to revisit. Thus, this study contradicts the previous literature, which has adopted TPB and contributes to the new literature in cultural tourism studies. This indicates that tourists' decisions are less likely to be affected by social pressures or expectations, and their perceived ease or difficulty in visiting the destination does not play a major role in their satisfaction or intention to return.

Furthermore, tourist motivation significantly affects satisfaction, highlighting the importance of understanding and catering to tourists' intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. The findings established the positive effects of motivation on tourist satisfaction presented in the conceptual model and supported by prior studies (Albaity & Melhem, 2017; Preko et al., 2019; Simpson et al., 2020). However, the impact of motivation on behavioural intention to revisit was insignificant, suggesting that although motivation can enhance satisfaction, it does not directly translate to a higher likelihood of revisiting. The study is consistent with previous research, like Çelik and Dedeoğlu (2019), where cultural motivation did not significantly impact tourists' behavioural intentions. However, it does have a positive impact on satisfaction. The study is inconsistent with some studies, like Albaity and Melhem (2017), Hsu and Huang (2010), and Simpson et al. (2020), which argued that travel motivation is a significant factor in behavioural intention.

Since the travel motivations and revisit intention with the cultural destination ensure the satisfaction of individuals' expectations, it is usual to expect that quality perceptions would be positively affected by this situation. Motivation had an insignificant influence on behavioural intention because individuals came to the destination with the hope of experiencing the culture of the place but could not find what they dreamed of in the cultural destination. However, if they are satisfied with the experience, it will automatically increase the behavioural intention to revisit the cultural destination.

Similarly, the study is also consistent with previous research, which highlighted that destination image significantly influences behavioural intention to revisit (Albaity & Melhem, 2017; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Reza Jalilvand et al., 2012; Sharma & Nayak, 2018; Tosun et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2009). The study is also consistent with the findings of Albaity and Melhem (2017); Alcocer and Ruiz (2019); Maleki and Gholamian (2020); Ramseook-Munhurrun et al. (2015); and Wang and Hsu, (2010), which stated that there is a significant relationship between destination image and tourist satisfaction. However, the study contradicts the result of the previous literature, which indicated that destination image does not significantly influence tourist satisfaction (Chen & Tsai, 2007) and behavioural intention or destination loyalty (Ramseook-Munhurrun et al., 2015; Wang & Hsu, 2010).

It is acknowledged that realms of memorable experience affect the tourist's satisfaction. The study is also consistent with Sharma and Nayak (2018), who stated that a significant relationship exists between joy, love, and positive surprise with satisfaction. Calza et al. (2019) also showed the direct and positive effect between visitor experience and overall satisfaction and behavioural intentions in heritage tourism. The study also confirms that memorable experiences affect the overall intention to revisit visitors (Gani et al., 2019; Hamid et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2018).

Hamid et al. (2020) also stated that the emotional experience of joy, love, and positive surprise, significantly influences tourists' revisit intention to UNESCO World Heritage Sites. Domínguez-Quintero et al. (2018) and Mansour and Ariffin (2016) also found a solid positive relationship between experience quality and behavioural intentions in the context of cultural heritage tourism. They further stated that to encourage positive behavioural intentions, cultural heritage tourism products must offer memorable and meaningful experiences that will stay with one for an extended time.

To accomplish this, the tourists' must be immersed in the offering to feel a sensation. To feel the sensation, tourists' must be actively involved or participate in the service performance. Thus, cultural heritage products must be designed to allow input from tourists. Therefore, it reveals that a positive destination image and creating memorable experiences are crucial for tourist satisfaction and can drive repeat visits. Furthermore, the study also confirms and is consistent with the previous research that satisfaction directly impacts behavioural intention to revisit (Albaity & Melhem, 2017; An et al., 2019; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Preko et al., 2019; Ramseook-Munhurrun et al., 2015; Sharma & Nayak, 2018;

Tavitiyaman & Qu, 2013). A possible interpretation of this analysis is that a higher level of satisfaction would induce tourists to revisit the same destination and simultaneously influence tourists to tell other people to visit the destination.

Ramseook-Munhurrun et al. (2015) suggested that managers should take note of the significant role of image and value in stimulating tourists' satisfaction and loyalty. This triggers tourists to visit the destination again and also recommend the destination to others. Establishing high tourist satisfaction levels in ICH resources is important to create positive future behavioural intentions, thus improving and sustaining the destination's competitiveness.

Lastly, the direct relationship between revisiting behavioural intention and tourists' actual behaviour is also predicted, validating the notion that the intention is a strong precursor to the tourists' actual behaviour during the visit. Efforts to boost tourists' intention to revisit should focus on the factors that enhance satisfaction and memorable experiences. Minimal work has been done to understand the relationship between behavioural intentions and actual behaviour.

Our results are consistent with the prominent study conducted by Hsu and Huang (2010); however, the magnitude of the effect is very low. This may be due to other factors playing more decisive roles in determining the actual behaviour, as the study focused only on the number of tourists visiting and staying in Goa. This study empirically investigated the ability of behavioural intention to predict tourists' actual behaviour in a cultural tourism context. The results indicate that a reliable model could not be generated when the study included tourists' actual behaviour as a construct. Future research should investigate the relationship between behavioural intention and the tourists' actual behaviour to validate these findings.

Furthermore, regarding the mediating effect of tourist satisfaction, the results show a partial mediation of tourist satisfaction in the relationship between tourist attitude and behavioural intention to revisit (Lee, 2009). It indicates that while tourist attitude directly affects behavioural intention, a significant portion of this effect is mediated by tourist satisfaction. This suggests that positive attitudes increase satisfaction, enhancing the intention to revisit.

No mediation effect was found for subjective norms and perceived behavioural control, as neither the direct nor indirect effects were significant. This indicates that subjective norms

and perceived behavioural control do not significantly influence behavioural intention to revisit tourist satisfaction directly and indirectly. The study also confirms that tourist satisfaction partially mediates the relationship between tourist motivation, destination image, and memorable experiences through behavioural intention to revisit. The study is consistent with the previous research (Ali et al., 2015; Lee, 2009; Wang & Hsu, 2010). This suggests that motivated tourists are more satisfied, and this increased satisfaction significantly enhances their intention to revisit.

Even though the direct effect is insignificant, the mediation through satisfaction is strong. Similarly, a positive destination image and memorable experience lead to higher satisfaction, partially explaining the increased intention to revisit. This underscores the importance of creating a good destination image and memorable experiences to foster repeat visits. The results agree with tourism studies employing the extended TPB model (Lee et al., 2007; Lee, 2009). The empirical results suggest that satisfaction and the likelihood of future behaviour increase with positive tourist attitudes, motivation, destination image, and memorable experience. Tavitiyaman and Qu (2013) revealed that destination image alone could not directly drive a traveller's future behavioural intention.

Overall satisfaction is required to force the action of revisiting intention and recommendation. Similarly, the mediating role of satisfaction in the relationship between destination quality and tourists' behavioural intentions was examined as the destination quality perceptions had a significant impact on satisfaction, and satisfaction had a positive and significant impact on tourists' behavioural intentions (Çelik & Dedeoğlu, 2019).

Furthermore, regarding the impact of relaxation motivation on behavioural intentions, it can be indicated that satisfaction could indirectly impact itself and destination quality (Çelik & Dedeoğlu, 2019). A similar result was also found by Albaity and Melhem (2017), where tourist satisfaction has a positive mediating effect on the relationship of destination image and novelty seeking with loyalty, suggesting that the impact of destination image and novelty seeking on loyalty increases through tourist satisfaction. A very limited amount of empirical research has focused on examining especially the indirect effect of satisfaction between memorable experiences of tourists and behavioural intentions, such as Ali et al. (2015), who examined the mediating effect of tourist satisfaction between memorable experiences of tourists' and behavioural intentions and found that there is a partial relationship between the constructs.

Further, Calza et al. (2019) and Chen and Chen (2010a) also revealed that visitors' memorable experiences affected behavioural intentions through overall satisfaction in heritage tourism studies. This indicates that tourist satisfaction has a stronger mediating role in the relationship between various dimensions and behavioural intentions. Thus, the extended TPB model reveals that the relationships among the construct can be appropriately applied to examine the relevant behavioural model that will contribute to the cultural-based tourism literature. Based on this causal relationship, tourist attitude, motivation, destination image, and memorable experience toward cultural tourism are important predictors for tourists' satisfaction and behavioural intention to revisit and the actual behaviour of visiting ICH resources.

8.3.3 Factors Influencing Residents' Support for Cultural Tourism through ICH Resources

The ***third objective*** investigates the factors influencing residents' support for cultural tourism. The finding shows that ***community attachment, involvement, attitude toward cultural tourism, and attitude towards cultural tourists*** have positively and significantly influenced the ***resident's support for cultural tourism***. However, perceived cultural impact is not statistically significant; thus, the relationship between perceived cultural impact and support for cultural tourism is weak. Overall, it is observed that attitude towards cultural tourists more significantly influences the support for cultural tourism than residents' attachments, involvement, perceived cultural impact, and attitude towards cultural tourism.

In addition, ***residents perceived cultural impact*** was found to significantly and positively influence their ***attitude toward cultural tourism and tourists***. Moreover, ***residents' community attachment and involvement*** significantly influence their ***perceived cultural impact***. It is remarkable to note that, comparatively, community involvement influences perceived cultural impact more than community attachment does. Additionally, ***community attachment and involvement*** are more influenced by ***perceived cultural impact than support for cultural tourism***. In this regard, it is reasonable that these residents who have recently felt involved in cultural-related activities have perceived a positive impact from this sector.

This study estimated the explanatory power of the exogenous latent constructs in the study model. It contributed to the literature by examining the linear relationship between these

variables and highlighting the simple, parallel, and serial relationship between constructs. The result reveals a lack of simple mediating effect of perceived cultural impact between community attachments, involvement, and support for cultural tourism. From a similar understanding, the study is also interested in testing the parallel mediation effect of attitudes towards cultural tourism and tourists. Results found a significant ***parallel positive partial mediating effect of residents' attitudes towards cultural tourism and cultural tourists between perceived cultural impact and support for cultural tourism***.

Concerning the serial mediation effect, it is found that the indirect effect of ***residents' perceived cultural impact and attitude towards cultural tourism and residents' perceived cultural impact and attitude towards cultural tourists*** have serially partially mediated the relationship between ***community attachment and support for cultural tourism.*** *Similarly, the indirect effect of* ***residents' perceived cultural impact and attitude towards cultural tourism and residents' perceived cultural impact and attitude towards cultural tourists*** *was* also found to serially partially mediate the relationship between community involvement and support for cultural tourism.

This study focuses on improving the SET framework in the context of cultural tourism research. Therefore, this research contributes in two main ways. ***Firstly,*** it fills gaps by understanding the factors influencing residents to support cultural tourism. The study found that residents with strong community attachments are likelier to perceive the positive impact of cultural tourism and support cultural tourism. This aligns with previous research by Adongo et al. (2017), Eslami et al. (2019), Lee (2013), López et al. (2018), and Nicholas et al. (2009). However, the findings contradict this relationship. Notably, most residents were born and raised in their communities and showed significant attachment levels.

On the other hand, the study found that community involvement positively influences the perception of cultural impact and support of cultural tourism. This means greater community involvement in cultural tourism leads to more positive benefits and support for industry. Previous studies, like López et al., (2018), have shown that residents participating in tourism planning activities perceive benefits from the sector. However, Nicholas et al. (2009) found that even though residents supported tourism, their involvement was low due to the destination area being unfamiliar to them. This lack of involvement may explain the relationship between community involvement and perceived benefits.

Interestingly, community involvement has a more significant impact on perceived cultural impact than community attachment, as seen in López et al. (2018) research. However, other studies, like Lee (2013) and Nicholas et al. (2009), suggest that community attachment has a greater impact on perceived cultural impact than community involvement. This indicates that community attachment and involvement are important factors in perceiving a positive impact and support for cultural tourism. Further, the study confirms that a significant positive relationship exists between the residents' attitudes toward cultural tourism and cultural tourists and support for cultural tourism. Thus, the study is also consistent with the previous research conducted by Martín et al. (2017), where residents' behaviours supporting tourism in their communities are similarly influenced by their attitudes towards cultural tourism and cultural tourists.

The present research shows that perceived cultural impact is the most critical factor determining the residents' attitudes. This finding aligns with Vargas-Sánchez et al. (2015), who establish that the perceptions of these specific impacts have been identified as the most influential factor in resident attitudes formation. However, the study found no direct relationship between the perceived cultural impact and support for cultural tourism. This result is inconsistent with López et al. (2018) and Uslu et al. (2023), which highlighted a positive correlation between perceived benefits and support for tourism. Their research also suggests that perceptions of tourism impacts are interconnected.

Similarly, Nicholas et al. (2009) confirm a significant direct influence on resident perception and support for tourism development. This is because a shift in how residents perceive one impact, such as economic benefits, can influence their views on social and cultural impacts. For instance, when residents strongly believe in the economic advantages of tourism, their perceptions of its social and cultural impacts are likely to be positively influenced as well. Therefore, how one type of impact is perceived can significantly shape the overall perception of tourism's effects on the community. Although the result is inconsistent with previous research work due to the generalisation of tourism studies, adding more variables to the constructs in cultural tourism studies will help provide a more detailed analysis for future researchers.

Secondly, residents' perceptions of tourism impacts and their influence on attitudes toward tourism in host communities have received much attention in previous research. However, previous studies failed to identify indirect relationships linking support for cultural tourism

(Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; López et al., 2018). Therefore, this study represents a new step in the tourism phenomenon from the resident's point of view by taking a different and more comprehensive approach to SET.

This study mainly develops a new model of SET based on the "perceptions-attitudes-support" sequence for cultural tourism studies. It includes two types of resident attitudes: attitudes toward cultural tourism and attitudes towards cultural tourists. Indirect relationships were explored through mediation analysis in current research. Therefore, this study examined the positive and significant relationship between community attachment and involvement, perceived cultural impact, attitude towards cultural tourism, attitude towards cultural tourists, and support for cultural tourism. It contributed to the literature by examining the linear relationship between these variables and highlighting the serial and parallel relationship between constructs.

The study found that perceived cultural impact has insignificant relationships between community attachment and involvement and support for cultural tourism, indicating that perceived cultural impact is not the mediating factor between the relationships. According to Lee (2013), perceived benefit partially mediates the parallel relationship between community attachment, community involvement, and support for sustainable tourism development. Therefore, community managers should promote tourism among host residents by developing cultural activities, increasing cultural exchanges, and providing opportunities for leisure and tourism. As previously mentioned, no direct and significant correlation exists between perceived cultural impact and support for cultural tourism. However, the study attempts to demonstrate a partially parallel mediated relationship between perceived cultural impact, attitude towards cultural tourism and tourists, and support for cultural tourism.

Additionally, the study found a serially mediating effect of perceived cultural impact, attitude towards cultural tourism, and attitude towards cultural tourists between community attachment and support for cultural tourism. The stronger the attachment to the community, the more likely they perceive cultural tourism to enhance their local identity and pride. The mediation effect indicates that a positive cycle is triggered, where community attachment fosters positive perceptions of tourism's impact, shaping attitudes towards tourism and tourists and ultimately resulting in support for cultural tourism.

Moreover, the study also found a serially mediating effect of perceived cultural impact, attitude towards cultural tourism, and attitude towards cultural tourists between community and support for cultural tourism in Goa. This means that communities with a strong, unified identity are more likely to embrace cultural tourism when they believe it will contribute positively to their cultural preservation and local development. For Goa, these findings underscore the importance of community participation, involvement, and perceptions in the success of cultural tourism. Stakeholders in the tourism industry should prioritise creating initiatives that highlight and promote the benefits of cultural tourism to residents, especially in terms of cultural preservation and community pride.

8.3.4 Designing a Model for Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development through ICH Resources

The findings of the ***fourth objective*** reveal the following, based on the sub-objectives.

Sub-objective 1 was achieved by identifying the new scale development with the seven most important CSI— ***authenticity, awareness, commodification and transformation, empowerment, parallel development, promotion, sustainability practices***, and one indicator of SCTD growth—***SCTD***, through EFA. This study introduces a practically oriented indicator system tailored to Goa's unique traditions and characteristics. It presents a comprehensive framework for evaluating CSI and SCTD.

Authenticity indicates that preserving and promoting authentic cultural practices and traditions positively contributes to the sustainable development of cultural tourism. ***Awareness*** highlights that greater awareness among stakeholders about the importance of cultural preservation leads to better sustainable outcomes.

Commodification and transformation imply that while cultural elements may be adapted or commercialised for tourism, such transformations can contribute to sustainability when managed responsibly. This factor was also one of the most important factors, and a high percentage of variance was explained. ***Empowerment*** signifies that empowering local communities through participation and cultural tourism benefits enhances sustainability. ***Sustainable practices*** underscore the importance of implementing conservation, responsible tourism, and waste management to achieve sustainable outcomes.

Parallel development contributes to cultural sustainability by enabling simultaneous efforts in heritage conservation, community development, and sustainable tourism infrastructure. This approach ensures cultural preservation while supporting tourism growth. However, careful coordination is required to avoid conflicts and resource mismanagement. When effectively implemented, parallel development fosters collaboration among stakeholders and promotes integrated planning, enhancing the sustainability of cultural assets.

Promotion plays a vital role in cultural sustainability by raising awareness and appreciation for cultural heritage. Through campaigns, festivals, and educational programs, promotion encourages responsible tourism while creating economic opportunities for local communities. However, it must balance authenticity with commercial goals to prevent the over-commercialisation of cultural practices. Community-driven, authentic promotion strengthens cultural identity and contributes to sustainable cultural tourism development.

Sub-objective 2 was achieved by examining the influence of CSI on SCTD. The results show authenticity, awareness, commodification and transformation, empowerment, and sustainable practices play a crucial role and thus were found to have a strong and significant relationship with SCTD. On the other hand, the study also revealed that parallel development and promotion did not significantly influence SCTD. This suggests that while these factors are important, their direct impact on sustainable cultural tourism development may be limited, requiring further exploration to understand their role in the broader context. Through PLS-SEM, the identified seven primary CSI are thoroughly explained to clarify their significance and the meaning of their associated variables towards SCTD.

Authenticity (AU): This indicator emphasises the practitioner's identity while utilising appropriate and authentic culture to preserve ICH's original or traditional version. This study demonstrated that authenticity is a multifaceted concept that incorporates three criteria: the practitioners' identities, the inherited meaning, and the long-standing ICH custom (Ahmad, 2013). This research is consistent with Thimm, (2019), which upholds the relationship between authenticity and SCTD. In Goa, these three criteria can be used to determine whether an ICH was authentic in preserving the original text, preserving and protecting the meaning of the text, and emphasising the identity of the practitioners for better cultural sustainability.

Crucially, these three elements interacted and converged into a sophisticated concept of authenticity rather than being mutually exclusive. To guarantee that commodified and altered versions of performances retain degrees of authenticity, practitioners who stressed the necessity of maintaining authentic ICH placed a high value on training and mastering the performance of original versions. This interpretation of ICH is influenced by objective authenticity, which gives weight to traditions and variables seen to be authentic (E. Cohen & Cohen, 2012).

Modernisation progressively erases Kampong Ayer's authentic traits and values (Ahmad, 2013). According to Belhassen et al. (2008) and Belhassen and Caton (2006), authenticity is a multifaceted concept influenced by various elements, including the location, a traditional dance performance, and visitors' and practitioners' beliefs and behaviour. That is to say, the authenticity of ICH is influenced by a practitioner's cultural identity, performances, and beliefs about audiences rather than solely dependent on one factor like gesture or spirit. According to the respondents, the transmitted performance, meaning, and message that support ICH and the practitioners' identities all impact the composite notion of ICH authenticity.

Awareness (AW): This indicator outlines the comprehension of cultural tourism, sustainability, and its advantages to all parties involved. In favour of this, Sangchumnong and Kozak (2018) stated that an "educational focus" should be placed on educating visitors about sustainable tourism and how it fits into their lives. Furthermore, a "regulatory focus" is required to establish local visitor policies and regulations, provide crime prevention teams, raise community awareness of potential criminal activity, and revise local regulations through an approval process. On the other hand, Ahmad (2013) revealed that a significant barrier to drawing travellers' interest in a destination is a lack of information.

Therefore, creating awareness about culture and its sustainability is crucial. Cultural practices remain resilient in vulnerable communities, even in multidimensional deprivation. These practices are deeply rooted in the social and territorial fabric of the community, making them critical for policies aimed at valuing both physical and symbolic local heritage. Additionally, there are varying levels of awareness about cultural heritage sites associated with different cultural practices. This suggests that focused policies aimed at expanding and promoting cultural practices could effectively enhance the appreciation and value of the local cultural environment (Liburd, 2007).

To address this, planners must assess stakeholders' understanding of tourism impacts and sustainability principles before implementing participatory approaches (Cárdenas et al., 2015). Tourist awareness of cultural heritage also plays a role, with factors like nationality, age, and education influencing knowledge levels (Yan & Morrison, 2008). Developing a common understanding of sustainable tourism among stakeholders, including local communities and planners, is essential for successfully implementing sustainable development policies (Phori et al., 2024). These findings highlight the importance of education and awareness programs for residents, tourists, and other stakeholders to promote SCTD. Such initiatives can help preserve cultural resources and ensure the long-term viability of tourism destinations.

Commodification and Transformation (CT): This indicator relates to the stakeholder's curiosity about whether ICH must be changed or combined with other contemporary music to capture the audience's interest. Most respondents to this study had a favourable view regarding the commodification and change of ICH, which was an intriguing conclusion. The individuals primarily in charge of preserving the resource's authenticity are ICH practitioners (Lenzerini, 2011). Because of this, it is commonly believed that they would be against the ICH's commodification, as it could jeopardise the ICH's authenticity (Halewood & Hannam, 2001).

However, it supported the ICH's commodification and transformation to draw more tourists' attention. Shortening presentation durations, fusing ICH with other contemporary performances (e.g., modern and contemporary music with traditional dances; modern materials with conventional craftsmanship), and altering gestures or lyrics to encourage audience participation are examples of commodification and transformational changes. The primary causes of ICH practitioners' favourable sentiments regarding the commodification of ICH were their worries that audiences would find the original ICH version uninteresting and difficult to understand. Transforming content, to some extent, boosts interest in ICH and aids in audience understanding, which makes it useful for transmission. Similarly, the original version requires more time, and the entire performance can be too difficult to play and dull for the audience.

Additionally, the original ICH used simple language that all audiences could grasp because the terms were extremely strong dialectal, which the audiences could not understand. Tourism policymakers should prioritise the concept of co-creation, which enables tourists to

tailor travel experiences around their specific interests, fostering more personalised and meaningful engagements. Additionally, co-creation strengthens the bond between businesses and customers by actively involving travellers in creating their experiences, enhancing customer satisfaction and loyalty (Gaonkar & Sukthankar, 2024b). This supports the collaboration between tourism and ICH developments, whereby ICH is adapted to tourists' interests and thereby helps promote ICH as a valuable resource and draws more visitors to the area, promoting sustainable and community-based cultural tourism development.

Empowerment (EM): Empowerment is defined as the ability to act, whether on an individual or collective level. While empowerment can be an effective means to enhance the capacities and resources of local communities, true community empowerment requires active participation and collective effort, rather than just individual actions (Ahmad & Abu Talib, 2015). In tourism studies, community empowerment is crucial in sustainable tourism development (Boley et al., 2014; Khalid et al., 2019).

This research emphasises the significant link between empowering communities and improving SCTD. Educating the community, empowering stakeholders to market locally made, sustainable goods, and fostering their independence on ICH leads to empowerment. Because it allows solutions tailored to each ICH to be developed, ICH practitioners must be empowered to facilitate ICH as a sustainable tourist resource. ICH protection and promotion are underpowered due to a common top-down development style. This research finds a positive relationship between SCTD and empowerment. Goans feel that substantial assistance from the government and other stakeholders is required to construct the ICH hub and other cultural institutions. To empower the locals, particularly the young and women of diverse religious backgrounds, the Goa Department of Culture takes the lead. The Korean government's Cultural Heritage Administration oversees the growth of ICH. One authority to assess and select individuals to become ICH practitioners is the head of the Cultural Heritage Administration (Kim et al., 2019).

Parallel Development (PD): This aspect pertains to the advantages that all parties involved stand to gain and, consequently, the growth of the tourism and cultural sectors. The research indicates that the relation between SCTD and parallel development is negligible. One possible explanation could be the divergent views of locals and other tourism sector players toward SCTD. The respondents recommended segmenting the development of cultural tourism according to its goal (e.g., tourism or safeguarding purpose). They contended that it

is critical to distinguish between the functions of pertinent ICH groups based on whether their goal is to protect, transmit, or monetise to appease tourists. For instance, the parties in charge of safeguarding ICH must concentrate on doing so; conversely, the parties using and promoting it must do so.

The parallel presence of tourism and cultural heritage management introduced by McKercher et al., (2005) can assist with this strategy. The supporters of parallel existence believe that developing cultural heritage and tourism play different roles. For instance, the ownership and daily operations of the assets are within the purview of the cultural heritage development sector, while product development and marketing fall under the purview of the tourism sector. In developed destinations, parallel partnerships are typical between two sectors (such as tourism and cultural heritage development) with complementary but distinct agendas (McKercher et al., 2005). Parallel connections between cultural heritage and tourism growth can take many forms, from exclusive (without communication) to symbiotic (like some cooperation). Even if the relationship that respondents proposed was less clearly stated than this one, a parallel relationship approach might protect ICH's cultural values while also enabling its socio-economic value through ICH's commercial promotion.

Promotion (PM): This involves creating ICH hubs to market and promote cultural products to a wider audience. Encouraging people to use ICH is essential because, without locals recognising and utilising it, ICH's survival is at risk. This is especially true for the younger generation (Bortolotto, 2007). Nevertheless, the study shows no significant relationship between SCTD and promotion. In India, Goa state is smaller than other states and has a higher proportion of rural than urban residents. Rural areas are experiencing a diversity of cultures and customs. Because of this, businesses struggle to market and promote their products to a wider audience, which makes many cultural performing arts and other intangible heritages unknown to tourists.

As a result of this lack of interest, knowledge, and respect for practising ICH, most respondents noted that most current generations, especially the younger generation, have less motivation to be practitioners and pose a threat to the spread of ICH. The primary issue is that the current generation has no interest in learning about and passing along ICH (S. Kim et al., 2019).

Therefore, embracing and transmitting the value is more challenging as most of this generation finds it difficult to understand. Kozak and Baloglu, (2010) noted that for the tourism business to benefit, culture and heritage must be distinctive and marketable. However, culture is never static, and when cultural symbols are required for newer, more contemporary purposes, tensions may arise that need to be addressed. When tourism does, however, there will unavoidably be a two-way interchange of ideas and cultures. In this way, visitors may see the native culture, and residents can see how the tourists represent a foreign culture.

Sustainable Practices (SP): This covers various methods and practices that should be followed to ensure culture's sustainability. These include allowing local artists to exhibit and perform traditional art and music, setting fair prices, and helping small and medium-sized businesses build the system. The result of the research shows that sustainable practices have a sufficiently favourable effect on SCTD, which is also consistent with the result of Prayag et al. (2022), who discussed local food, resource conservation, sustainable transportation, and recycling and waste disposal habits are some of the sustainable practices that must be followed for sustainable tourism development. Adopting sustainability principles in everyday practices and strategic management is essential for achieving long-term goals in cultural tourism (Liburd, 2007).

Sustainable cultural tourism protects and revitalises cultural traditions, particularly within ethnic minority communities (Thi et al., 2024). However, mass tourism can threaten ecological sustainability and social cohesion (Culver, 2011). To counter these risks, it is crucial to prioritise community participation, implement responsible policies, and incorporate local perspectives into tourism planning (Thi et al., 2024). Furthermore, cultural heritage tourism is most effective and sustainable when integrated into a broader, diversified economic framework rather than being a community's sole source of income (Culver, 2011).

Sukthankar and Gaonkar (2022) concluded that COVID-19 has significantly influenced people's travel habits by avoiding travel in groups and deciding the destination based on their choices, and concern about travellers' hygiene and health issues. This shift suggests that tourism stakeholders must emphasise culturally sustainable practices to maintain attractive and safe destinations, aligning with travellers' evolving preferences for cleanliness and health-conscious environments. Therefore, it is important to adopt healthy habits that will help to attract tourists' and generate demand for cultural items.

Sub-objective 3 examines the moderating effects of demographic factors on the relationship between specific indicators of cultural sustainability and SCTD. The findings reveal several key insights. Any demographic factors do not moderate the relationship between ***authenticity and SCTD***. Similarly, the relationship between ***awareness and SCTD*** also shows no significant moderation by demographic variables.

However, an interesting result emerges regarding the relationship between ***commodification and transformation and SCTD.*** Age and annual income significantly moderated this relationship, while other demographic factors show no significant influence. Additionally, the study reveals that the relationship between ***empowerment and SCTD*** is significantly moderated by **age**, whereas other demographic factors have no significant impact in this context. There is no direct relationship between ***parallel development and promotion and SCTD.*** Furthermore, demographic factors do not moderate this relationship significantly. In contrast, the relationship between ***sustainable practices and SCTD*** is significantly moderated by age, with other demographic factors showing no meaningful effect.

The study offers novel insights by identifying age as one of the most critical demographic factors influencing the relationships studied. Younger and older age groups perceive cultural transformation differently in the context of sustainability. Additionally, age influences how empowerment contributes to sustainable tourism and impacts the adoption or perception of sustainable practices. Specifically, the moderating role of age significantly affects the relationships between ***commodification and transformation and SCTD,*** as well as between ***empowerment and SCTD*** and ***sustainable practices and SCTD.*** These findings underscore the nuanced role of age in shaping the dynamics of cultural sustainability and SCTD.

The negative significance of age in moderating the relationship between commodification and transformation and SCTD aligns with findings from Bagri and Kala (2016), Sharma and Gursoy (2014), and Sinclair-Maragh et al. (2015), which highlights that older individuals tend to be more resistant to or less supportive of cultural transformations that commodify traditional practices. This suggests that while younger generations may be more open to commercialising and adapting cultural elements for tourism, older generations often perceive such changes as a threat to the authenticity and integrity of cultural heritage.

Moreover, the study's findings regarding age's moderating influence on the relationship between empowerment and SCTD, as well as sustainable practices and SCTD, are consistent

with Pavlić et al. (2019), who also emphasised the importance of age as a moderating factor in cultural tourism development. Older age groups tend to place greater importance on preserving traditional practices, which may influence their support for sustainable cultural tourism initiatives. In contrast, younger individuals, who may be more familiar with contemporary sustainable practices, might view such initiatives more favourably. Thus, these findings suggest that the role of age in moderating these relationships is complex and context-dependent, with generational differences influencing perceptions of commodification, empowerment, and sustainable practices within cultural tourism.

Interestingly, significant moderation of annual individual income was observed in the relationship between commodification and transformation and SCTD. This implies that income does significantly influence how commodification impacts SCTD. Higher income levels empower local communities to preserve cultural heritage, resist exploitative practices, and develop sustainable tourism models that maintain authenticity. In contrast, lower income levels may lead to over-reliance on tourism revenues, risking cultural erosion and unsustainable practices.

As a moderating factor, annual income emphasises the need for financial inclusion and equitable benefit distribution to balance cultural commodification and transformation with sustainability goals. Policies that enhance local income opportunities can strengthen cultural preservation and sustainable tourism practices.

8.4 Conclusion

Cultural tourism can be defined as commoditisation, nostalgia for heritage and the past, a psychological experience, a process of learning and curiosity, a modern pilgrimage form, an industry representing cultural values, and a specific way of cultural consumption. Cultural tourism can play a crucial role in the construction and reconstruction of identity for the sake of tourism consumption. It is not just about consuming cultural products, but it also deals with the contemporary way of life and culture of people (Seyed et al., 2016).

Cultural tourism has become crucial to evaluating the tourism industry, society's development, and the global economy. Thus, the sector has a more significant impact on the development of society and the global economy. Even though the trade-offs are common in cultural tourism development, cultural exchanges are particularly noticeable in developing

nations due to the multiple dimensions. Thus, leading to more conflicts of interest among stakeholders towards cultural heritage tourism development (Poria & Ashworth, 2009; Porter & Salazar, 2005; Yang et al., 2013).

A large section of the research community has focused on economic, environmental, and social goals, exploring its policies and sustainable development path (Xiang et al., 2022). It has rarely considered culture as a significant dimension. Therefore, targeted recommendations to improve cultural sustainability in any region must be revised (Yin & Qian, 2020). Commercial concerns and infrastructure investment are sometimes prioritised over culture (Chen et al., 2023), requiring heightened attention. Many regions, such as Colombia, Florence, and London, also develop cultural preservation zones with limited commercialisation to conserve culture, people, and the environment (UNESCO & The World Bank, 2021).

Traditional social relationships and cultural practices are losing their identity; stakeholders, especially local communities, need more decision-making power. It is important to note that the concept of cultural sustainability is itself dynamic and takes the local values and practices of different cultural groups as its starting point for sustainable living. For educators, the challenge lies in exerting pressure to reinstate or restore crucial traditional beliefs and foster diversity in ways that speak to rural and urban populations. As a reflection of how we live now and, in the future, more sustainably, cultural sustainability is understood in this research as a contemplative and sensitising notion that may be utilised to evaluate the various values and knowledge of all people.

Goa's culture is a diverse tapestry that merges various elements, resulting in a unique blend of traditions, art forms, and flavours. It reflects the harmonious coexistence of different religious and cultural influences, making it a fascinating destination for cultural exploration. Goa's rich cultural heritage has significantly influenced its tourism industry. The unique cultural elements of the region attract tourists from around the world. The rich cultural tapestry and diverse offerings of Goa have contributed to the growth of its tourism industry. The state's cultural influence on tourism provides economic opportunities.

It promotes cross-cultural understanding and appreciation of the region's heritage, making it a desirable destination for travellers seeking an immersive cultural experience. Cultural tourism has often improved tourism growth and development, becoming an attractive

component of many destinations (Li & Kwortnik, 2021; Woyo & Woyo, 2019). People want to experience living places and cultures other than their environment. Thus, the tourism industry has a comprehensive scope to sustain and preserve cultural tourist destinations.

In conclusion, Goa's ICH holds immense potential for enhancing cultural tourism. By employing the modified Du Cros model, this study identifies a moderate potential supply of areas and potential demand for ICH products. These findings support the modified Du Cros model and suggest that stakeholders can develop sustainable, attractive ICH tourism products, ensuring visitor engagement and the preservation of Goa's rich heritage for future generations. The extended TPB model highlights key factors influencing tourist satisfaction and revisit intentions, including attitudes, motivations, memorable experiences, and destination image. Therefore, strategies to enhance tourist satisfaction should focus on improving these elements, particularly attitudes, motivations, destination image, and memorable experiences, supporting the extended TPB model. While subjective norms and perceived behavioural control showed limited influence on satisfaction and revisit intentions, tourist satisfaction emerged as a significant mediator in these relationships, providing actionable insights for tourism managers.

Community-based tourism dynamics, analysed through a revised SET framework, reveal that community attachment and involvement play critical roles in shaping positive perceptions and support for cultural tourism. While not a direct driver of support, perceived cultural impact significantly influences attitudes toward cultural tourism and tourists. Tourism managers should prioritise enhancing community involvement, addressing perceptions, and fostering positive attitudes to build robust support for cultural tourism development. The revised SET framework further emphasises the complex interplay between community factors, attitudes, and support for cultural tourism. While perceived cultural impacts alone do not drive support, positive attitudes can compensate for mismatched perceptions. Therefore, monitoring residents' attitudes and perceptions is essential to ensure sustainable tourism initiatives align with community priorities.

Cultural tourism has significantly benefited Goa's tourism and hospitality sectors by improving locals' quality of life, generating revenue, and promoting sustainable tourism models. The proposed framework for cultural sustainability aligned with the UNWTO's SCTD framework highlights the importance of preserving authenticity, raising awareness, managing commodification, empowering communities, and integrating sustainable

practices. These efforts will ensure the long-term viability of cultural tourism while supporting economic and social empowerment.

Demographic factors such as gender, age, occupation, marital status, education, and income offer nuanced insights into the relationship between CSI and SCTD. While gender, occupation, marital status, and education do not significantly moderate key relationships, age and income levels influence perceptions of commodification and transformation. Similarly, age significantly influences stakeholder empowerment and sustainability practices in the relationship between CSI and SCTD. Therefore, destination managers should tailor strategies to address diverse needs, focusing on inclusive, age, and income-sensitive approaches that enhance visitor experiences and support community well-being. Tourism stakeholders can ensure a sustainable cultural tourism model by preserving Goa's cultural heritage, prioritising authenticity, and fostering community involvement. These efforts will support the SCTD framework while promoting equitable, inclusive, and empowering practices for visitors and local communities.

8.5 Theoretical Contribution

The study provides a comprehensive theoretical contribution to cultural tourism, sustainable development, and community-based tourism studies. It bridges the gaps in the existing literature by offering new frameworks, models, and scales specifically tailored to the nuances of ICH. The integration of multiple theoretical perspectives enriches the academic discourse in various ways.

Firstly, the study advances a comprehensive framework to assess cultural tourism's potential demand and supply through ICH. By systematically evaluating the components of ICH using the Du Cros model, the study provides a nuanced understanding of how cultural assets can be leveraged to attract tourists. The Du Cros model, in the earlier studies, has been used to evaluate only tangible heritage sites (Laing et al., 2014; Puerta et al., 2020; Ramírez-Guerrero et al., 2021; Yan et al., 2017). The present study has taken a further step by adopting it to analyse the ICH sites and proposing a new model of cultural tourism potentialities. Yan et al., (2017) stated that inclusive of the robusticity dimensions is a cause for any under-visited heritage sites. However, this study argues that cultural tourism development must focus on market attractiveness and robusticity dimensions.

There can be differences in the variables generated in tangible and intangible heritage sites due to the physical assets involved in tangible heritage. Therefore, the study has adapted and generated only those variables that can be used for intangible heritage sites. The market attractiveness and robustness are not statistically validated and scaled up by previous studies. However, this study statistically validated all the dimensions using CA, CR, and AVE. Furthermore, the variables under each dimension are properly scaled using a 7-point Likert scale.

Secondly, this study enhances the extended TPB model by incorporating cultural-specific dimensions such as tourists' attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, tourist motivation, tourist destination image, tourist satisfaction, and memorable experiences influencing tourists' satisfaction and intentions to revisit. Each dimension adds a layer to understanding the intentions behind revisits, highlighting that cultural tourism goes beyond surface-level engagement. This enhanced TPB framework supports tourism developers in creating culturally rich, appealing experiences that encourage loyalty and repeat visits, thus promoting sustainable cultural tourism by fostering long-term relationships with visitors. It also enhances the understanding of how these factors influence tourists' satisfaction and behavioural intentions to revisit ICH resources.

Thirdly, the study revises the SET framework to examine how residents' support for cultural tourism is influenced by their community attachment, community involvement, perceived cultural impact, resident's attitude towards cultural tourism, and cultural tourists. Residents with strong ties to their community and active involvement in tourism tend to support initiatives they perceive as beneficial, while those concerned about cultural degradation may resist tourism growth.

By identifying these factors, the revised SET model underscores the importance of engaging residents in tourism planning and balancing cultural preservation and development. This framework contributes to the sustainability discourse by demonstrating that cultural tourism thrives only when the local community is positively engaged and perceives that tourism benefits both the culture and residents themselves. Such an approach minimises cultural degradation and empowers residents to protect and showcase their ICH.

Lastly, the ***first theoretical contribution*** of the study is introducing and empirically testing a new scale for measuring cultural sustainability and SCTD to fill a gap in the existing

literature. Due to the complexity of the terminologies and concepts, the literature review has revealed that more research needs to be done to understand CSI and its influence on SCTD. Therefore, this study primarily focuses on a methodological approach to developing and validating a new scale.

This scale can be used for further research and practical assessment of cultural tourism projects. Except for deleting several variables, the seven indicators of cultural sustainability are identified as the best predictor in the context of Goa. These seven indicators are authenticity, awareness, commodification and transformation, empowerment, parallel development, promotion, and sustainable practices. Compared with the first draft of 40 variables, this study deleted 04 variables (at the face validity and content validity stage), and 08 variables were deleted after the final data collection and analysis, as the factor loading of these variables was below 0.50. Even though deleting 12 variables, the structure of seven dimensions of cultural sustainability is still confirmed, indicating good universality.

The ***second theoretical contribution*** is to build and confirm the relationship model between CSI and SCTD. Of the seven indicators of cultural sustainability, only five are significant: authenticity, awareness, commodification and transformation, empowerment, and sustainable practices, which positively influence SCTD. On the other hand, parallel development and promotion are insignificant to SCTD. Moreover, it also contributes to investigating how demographic characteristics such as gender, age, education, income, occupation, and marital status moderate the relationship between CSI and sustainable tourism development. This adds to the theoretical understanding of demographic influences in the context of cultural tourism. This contributes to market segmentation by showing how different demographic groups perceive and contribute to cultural sustainability differently, aiding in targeted marketing and policymaking. Thus, it provides a robust foundation for future research and practical applications in SCTD.

8.6 Managerial and Practical Implications

The study reinforces the managerial and practical guidance on leveraging Goa's ICH into tourism models. It underscores the need for a balanced approach considering ICH assets' attractiveness and sustainability. The managerial and practical exploration focuses on how cultural heritage can be effectively preserved and promoted within the tourism industry.

8.6.1 Potentialities of Cultural Tourism Demand and Supply through ICH Resources

The analysis of Goa's ICH in the modified framework of the Du Cros model demonstrates the importance of integrating ICH into tourism models. This integration provides a more holistic understanding of how cultural assets can be leveraged for tourism while preserving their intrinsic values. The moderate market attractiveness and product design scores suggest that ICH can attract tourists to create potential demand. Similarly, the moderate cultural significance and robusticity suggests that ICH can significantly improve the potential supply of resources for cultural heritage management.

Thus, the study implies key steps based on the key findings:

Market Attractiveness of Goa's ICH: The market attractiveness scores indicate room to improve the awareness and symbolic value of Goa's ICH. Therefore, cultural heritage managers, in alignment with residents, should invest in marketing campaigns highlighting these cultural assets' uniqueness and storytelling potential. Leveraging festivals and special events, telling a "good" or "interesting story", and distinguishing it clearly from other attractions can significantly attract cultural tourists. Therefore, tourism managers should collaborate with cultural institutions to develop and promote such events at all levels.

Improved Product Design Need: High scores in providing unique experiences suggest that maintaining and enhancing these features can be beneficial. Thus, tourism managers should focus on creating more interactive and engaging tours that meet diverse tourist expectations. Providing high-quality interpretation and meeting different tourists' expectations is essential. Therefore, cultural heritage managers should ensure that interpretative materials and services like guided tours and audio guides are high quality and enhance the visitor experience.

Cultural Significance and Preservation: The cultural significance score indicates that Goa should present ICH's aesthetic, historical, and social values. Cultural heritage management should implement a strategy to protect and preserve aesthetic, historical, and social values. More awareness must be created among the residents' and ICH practitioners, especially the younger generations, to keep the ICH resources alive for longer. This can also be done by regularly performing and practising ICH products without ruining their original value. Thus, this will help the cultural heritage manager, the residents, and the ICH practitioner keep up

to date and utilise the ICH resources to improve knowledge and their living standards by performing and showcasing the ICH product at different festivals and cultural events.

Robustness in Managing ICH: The robusticity scores indicate the presence of management plans and policies. Tourism organisers should ensure these plans are effectively implemented and updated regularly to cope with evolving tourism demands. Ongoing involvement and consultation with key stakeholders and monitoring and maintenance of ICH are crucial. Thus, tourism and cultural heritage managers should establish continuous discussions with local communities, cultural custodians, and tourists to ensure sustainable development and management of ICH sites. The potential negative impacts of modifications on cultural heritage and local lifestyles must be carefully managed. Therefore, cultural heritage managers should conduct thorough impact assessments before implementing changes to ensure they do not harm the community's cultural integrity or social fabric.

The findings suggest a need for a balanced development strategy that equally emphasises market attractiveness, product design, cultural significance, and robust management. Tourism and cultural heritage managers should adopt an integrated approach that aligns with cultural preservation and tourism growth objectives.

The need for balanced development is highlighted, where cultural significance and robusticity are equally important. This balance is crucial to avoid negative impacts on local communities' cultural fabric and lifestyle, aligning with sustainable cultural tourism theories.

8.6.2 Factors Influencing Tourists' Behavioural Intentions to Revisit ICH Resources

Tourist satisfaction, behavioural intention to revisit, and the actual behaviour of visiting ICH resources are pivotal in ensuring the growth of cultural tourism. High satisfaction with ICH experiences encourages tourists to return intention and recommend the destination. When these intentions lead to actual revisits, it strengthens the value and relevance of ICH, ensuring its continued vibrancy and long-term sustainability while benefiting local communities and preserving cultural practices.

Thus, the study offers several key implications for improvement based on the findings:

Focus on Enhancing Tourist Attitudes: Tourist attitude significantly influences satisfaction and behavioural intention to revisit. Tourism managers should develop strategies to foster positive attitudes toward the destination by emphasising its unique features and cultural significance. Marketing campaigns highlighting local attractions, authentic cultural experiences, and the destination's unique value proposition can effectively enhance attitudes. Positive initial impressions, such as seamless online booking and welcoming interactions at the cultural destination, are critical for shaping favourable tourist attitudes.

Address Tourists Motivational Drivers: Although a tourist's motivation does not significantly influence behavioural intention to revisit, it significantly impacts satisfaction and indirectly affects behavioural intentions through satisfaction. Tourism managers should tailor their offerings to address intrinsic needs such as personal enrichment and cultural learning and extrinsic needs such as entertainment and relaxation motivations. For instance, providing engaging cultural activities like historical tours or cultural performances aligned with the diverse interests of cultural tourists can boost satisfaction. By aligning marketing and service offerings with motivational drivers, tourism managers can strengthen tourists' connection to the destination.

Strengthen Cultural Destination Image: Destination image is pivotal in influencing satisfaction and behavioural intention to revisit. Managers should ensure a strong and consistent positive image of the destination by maintaining the quality of services, preserving the cultural and historical environment, and actively promoting the unique aspects of the destination. Efforts should also be made to counteract negative perceptions by engaging in effective public relations, addressing tourist complaints, and showcasing success stories through testimonials or social media.

Prioritise Memorable Experiences: Tourists' memorable experiences strongly influence satisfaction and revisit intentions. Thus, tourism managers should focus on designing experiences that leave a lasting impression, such as interactive tours, cultural festivals, and personalised activities. These experiences should be immersive and engage tourists emotionally to create meaningful connections with the destination. For example, offering behind-the-scenes cultural insights or workshops where tourists can actively participate can enhance their emotional and intellectual engagement.

Improve Satisfaction as a Mediating Factor: Tourist satisfaction directly influences the behavioural intentions to revisit and mediates the relationship between attitude, motivation, destination image, memorable experiences, and revisit intentions. Ensuring high satisfaction should, therefore be a priority. This can be achieved by delivering excellent customer service, addressing issues or complaints promptly, and exceeding expectations through attention to detail. Additionally, monitoring and improving the quality of tourist facilities, services, and experiences are critical for sustaining satisfaction and enhancing repeat intention to visit cultural destinations.

Encourage Repeat Visits Through Simplified Processes: Behavioural intention to revisit significantly predicts actual revisiting behaviour. Therefore, tourism managers should make it easy for tourists to follow through on their intentions by simplifying booking and planning processes. This includes providing user-friendly websites, accessible customer support, and information on transportation, lodging, and attractions. Incentives such as loyalty programs, discounts for repeat visits, or bundled cultural experiences can encourage tourists to return.

Reevaluate the Role of Subjective Norms and Perceived Behavioural Control: The study found that subjective norms and perceived behavioural control do not significantly influence satisfaction or behavioural intentions. This highlights the need for further investigation into these factors. Tourism managers should still consider designing campaigns that subtly address social influences and control perceptions by emphasising peer recommendations or reviews and ensuring accessibility for all travellers.

Continuous Monitoring and Feedback Collection: The findings suggest that satisfaction and its antecedents are dynamic and require continuous improvement. Managers should regularly collect tourist feedback through surveys or online reviews to identify areas needing attention. This data can guide targeted interventions, ensuring the ICH destination remains competitive and relevant to tourists' evolving preferences.

8.6.3 Factors Influencing Residents' Support for Cultural Tourism through ICH Resources

A better understanding of residents' perceptions of cultural tourism impacts and their attitudes, community attachment, community involvement, and support for cultural tourism

could assist tourism managers and planners in better predicting Goa's residents' reactions in the future.

Therefore, the study provides several important implications for enhancement based on its findings:

Fostering Community Attachment and Involvement: The significant positive relationship between community attachment and perceived cultural impact highlights that residents who feel a strong connection to their community are more likely to identify and appreciate the cultural impacts of tourism. The significant positive impact of community involvement on perceived cultural impact implies that active participation in community activities enhances awareness and appreciation of tourism's cultural impacts.

Similarly, the positive relationship between community attachment and support for cultural tourism suggests that strong community bonds encourage residents to support cultural tourism initiatives. Further, the relationship between community involvement and support for cultural tourism indicates that residents actively engaged in their communities are more likely to support tourism initiatives. Therefore, tourism managers should develop programs that enhance community attachment and involvement. This can include community events, volunteer opportunities, and local heritage projects that foster residents' sense of belonging and active participation. Transparent and continuous communication about the benefits of cultural tourism and involving community members in decision-making can strengthen their attachment and involvement.

In addition, it educates the community about tourism's positive cultural impacts through workshops, seminars, and information campaigns. Highlighting the preservation and promotion of local culture can enhance residents' perceptions of tourism's cultural benefits. To reinforce these benefits, share success stories that highlight specific examples of positive cultural impacts driven by tourism.

Addressing the Perceived Cultural Impact: While perceived cultural impact did not directly affect support for cultural tourism, it did influence attitudes toward tourism and tourists. Similarly, the lack of mediating effect of perceived cultural impact between community attachments, community involvement, and support for cultural tourism suggests that tourism managers should focus on long-term engagement strategies. This could include creating sustainable tourism practices that integrate local culture into the tourism experience,

organising regular community dialogues about tourism impacts, and establishing collaborative planning sessions. These efforts will help maintain resident support and minimise potential conflicts. Tourism managers as well as practitioners should emphasise the positive cultural impacts of tourism, such as the preservation of local heritage and the economic benefits it brings. Addressing potential concerns and highlighting the role of cultural tourism in sustaining local traditions can help improve the perception of tourism's cultural impact.

Emphasising Positive Attitudes Towards Cultural Tourism and Tourists: The study reveals that residents' attitudes toward cultural tourism and cultural tourists are key drivers of support for cultural tourism. Therefore, tourism managers should promote positive attitudes through community engagement, education, and awareness campaigns highlighting cultural tourism's benefits. By fostering positive relationships between locals and tourists, it is possible to increase residents' acceptance and enthusiasm for hosting cultural tourists. The present study supports theories of social exchange, where positive exchanges lead to supportive behaviours. Therefore, tourism managers should create opportunities for positive interactions between residents and tourists through cultural exchange programs, community tours, and joint events that foster mutual understanding and respect. They should also develop promotional campaigns that highlight the cultural benefits of tourism, aiming to improve residents' attitudes towards both tourists and the broader concept of cultural tourism.

Enhancing Mediating Effects of Residents' Attitudes: The study found that attitudes toward cultural tourism and attitudes toward cultural tourists have a parallel mediating effect on the relationship between perceived cultural impact and support for cultural tourism. This suggests that shaping positive attitudes can strengthen the connection between cultural tourism and community support. Tourism managers should invest in programs and campaigns that educate residents on the value of cultural tourism and the positive role tourists can play in preserving cultural heritage.

The insignificant relationship indicates that perceived cultural impact alone may only directly influence support for cultural tourism by mediating other factors, such as attitudes. The perceived cultural impact often tends to follow later. As tourist numbers increase, these impacts must be factored into tourism planning and development. A better understanding of residents' perceptions of cultural tourism impacts and support for cultural tourism

development could assist tourism planners in better predicting Goa's residents' reactions in the future.

Therefore, in alignment with tourism planners such as the GTDC and the Goa Tourism Department, the Government of Goa should proactively engage residents and tourism-related businesses in meetings to listen to their concerns, lessen negative feelings toward tourism development, and help have a concerted effort in dealing with any negative impact tourism brings to Goan society. Such planners should maintain ongoing engagement with local communities to understand their perspectives on cultural tourism. Methods like focus group discussions and community meetings can help gather feedback on the cultural impacts of tourism.

This understanding is crucial in predicting how local communities respond to future tourism projects. Community support plays a pivotal role in the success of tourism initiatives; negative perceptions may result in resistance or opposition, while positive perceptions can lead to cooperation and local endorsement. Since cultural tourism directly affects residents' daily lives, their involvement is essential in crafting balanced, sustainable policies that ensure long-term benefits for both the community and the tourism sector.

Strategic Community Engagement: The serial mediation effects involving perceived cultural impact, attitudes towards cultural tourism, and attitudes towards cultural tourists are significant for understanding how community attachment and involvement shape support for cultural tourism in Goa. Thus, the study suggests that perceived cultural impact is foundational in shaping how community members relate to and assess tourism.

When locals perceive that cultural tourism positively impacts their community by preserving traditions, promoting cultural exchange, or fostering pride, they are more likely to develop a positive attitude toward cultural tourism. Attitude towards cultural tourism becomes a critical intermediary. When community members perceive that tourism promotes their culture and benefits them socially and economically, they tend to have a more favourable attitude not just toward the practice of cultural tourism but also toward cultural tourists. A positive attitude towards cultural tourists reflects how locals view those who engage with their culture, whether they see them as respectful visitors or potential disruptors. In cases where the perception is positive, this leads to greater support for cultural tourism, making it an essential serial mediator.

The primary audience for these efforts is the residents of Goa and the ICH practitioners, who feel the immediate effects of tourism. Their participation helps shape tourism practices that reflect the region's social and cultural fabric. Additionally, tourists benefit from the authentic cultural experiences of community-driven tourism, while businesses depend on local cooperation for their success.

In line with SET, the success of tourism development hinges on a reciprocal relationship between locals and tourists. Residents are more likely to support tourism when they perceive the benefits, such as improved infrastructure, job creation, and cultural preservation, outweighing the costs, including environmental or social disruptions. When nurtured properly, this reciprocal relationship leads to stronger community support and long-term sustainability in tourism projects. Similar to Goa, destinations like Bali, Hawaii, and Cusco face the challenge of balancing tourism growth with cultural preservation. In these regions, engaging local communities in the planning process is vital for ensuring that tourism enhances economic opportunities without eroding cultural identity.

Governments often implement policies to protect heritage sites and manage tourist numbers to prevent over-commercialisation. In these places, the emphasis is placed on sustainable development and community-driven tourism models, where residents play an active role in decision-making and benefit directly from tourism. Greater attention should be given to negative cultural impacts to make cultural tourism more developed and sustainable in Goa. Local businesses must run their business to utilise local sources and materials for producing artefacts, souvenirs, and local traditional cuisines and dishes.

Provide incentives for community members to support cultural tourism initiatives, including financial benefits, job opportunities, and recognition programs for those actively participating in and supporting tourism projects. Establish mechanisms for community feedback and suggestions, ensuring residents feel their opinions are valued and considered in tourism planning and development. This will reduce leakages and retain income from the tourism industry, thereby increasing the benefits for both residents and the tourism industry. By adopting these strategies, tourism planners in culturally rich destinations can create initiatives that foster economic growth while safeguarding local traditions and gaining the community's trust and support.

8.6.4 Designing a Model for Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development through ICH Resources

The study has significant managerial and practical implications. ***Firstly,*** the study proved that authenticity, awareness, commodification and transformations, empowerment, and sustainable practices are the best predictors of SCTD.

Therefore, the following steps need to be taken:

Cultural Innovation: It is essential to prioritise cultural innovation to preserve traditional art and culture through artistic advancements. This approach is expected to appeal to travellers interested in traditional music, dance, drama, folk art, and various other forms of entertainment. It will enhance the tourism sector's attractiveness, impact and competitiveness.

Initiatives to Uphold Authenticity: Destination managers should prioritise initiatives that preserve cultural assets' authenticity and enhance visitors' and residents' awareness of local cultures and heritage. This can include heritage conservation programs, cultural education initiatives, and interpretive experiences to foster meaningful interactions between visitors and local communities.

Develop an Attractive Brochure: Tourism groups and stakeholders should create a concise and accessible pamphlet that explains the cultural landscape of Goa and highlights the importance of protecting the region's artistic treasures. This pamphlet should be helpful for residents and visitors, providing a comprehensive overview of Goa's cultural heritage. It should include the historical context, popular cultural tourist attractions, activities, travel logistics, and suggestions for meaningful cultural souvenirs.

Engaging Local Communities: Involving local communities in tourism decision-making is essential for promoting empowerment and active participation in tourism development initiatives. Establishing organised systems with each ICH association will enhance self-reliance; it is essential to encourage community-led initiatives that focus on sustainable practices. These initiatives may include helping local artists showcase and perform traditional arts, enforcing fair pricing for cultural experiences, and supporting small and medium enterprises. This approach will strengthen the cultural tourism framework and create sustainable livelihood opportunities.

Develop Policies and Regulations: Additionally, there is an urgent need to implement policies and rules that manage the commodification of cultural resources while addressing the negative impacts of over-commercialisation. Striking a balance between tourism development and preserving cultural integrity and social well-being is essential to ensuring the long-term sustainability of cultural tourism destinations.

Secondly, the current study fails to accept the relationship between parallel development and promotion with SCTD. However, as parallel development and promotion are the best predictors of CSI, there is still room to address this issue. Therefore, there is a need to take further action in this regard.

Develop an Integrative and Collaborative Approach to SCTD: As an integrative and collaborative model of SCTD, it will bring endless benefits to all the stakeholders (including tourists, residents, and tourism organisations such as GTDC, Goa Tourism Department, Directorate of Art and Culture, and other principal service providers such as hoteliers, transport, and food and beverages), in cost savings, local and national economic development, collaborations and partnerships, and diversified cultural tourism products. Such integration should emphasise cultural heritage conservation and address two critical aspects: the relationship between conservation and local development and between cultural tourism and tourists' and the support of local people. Consequently, this study is valuable for all the stakeholders to understand how parallel development is employed and what antecedents will influence its formation of parallel development.

Focus on Youth: For continued growth of cultural tourism, one requires more people (staff and tourists'), additional cultural resources, increased funding, and a possible expansion to year-round cultural tourism offerings (most locations only operate during summer months). A clear focus on the involvement of Goan youth was emphasised to preserve culture and instil a sense of pride in younger generations. It was also recognised that concerted efforts must be made among Goan communities regarding clear communication, collaboration, and networking. Thus, connecting the two districts of Goa, sharing knowledge among these districts, and learning from each other is essential for growth.

Develop Strong Marketing Strategies: The need for increased advertising quantity and quality and organised marketing plans must be emphasised. The remoteness of certain tourism locations and the need for clear mapping and directions to such places can be

addressed in addition to creating attractive brochures, using television advertising, and developing and enhancing websites. The literature emphasises the importance of proper destination marketing, stating that potential tourists base their decisions on the marketing and images they see related to aboriginal tourism.

Demonstration Effect: Facilitating a demonstration effect based on face-to-face communication between hosts and guests, where tourism can meaningfully contribute to cultural sustainability and vice versa. The continued and substantial growth of the sustainable tourism subfield over a few years shows a progression toward maturity; however, there is still some distance to travel. Therefore, building long-term projects and partnerships with local communities to provide employment to local people and involve and improve the environment by actively exploring so much is essential for SCTD.

Thirdly, further research is needed to understand the relationships between demographic characteristics, CSI and SCTD. However, the following strategies can be taken to investigate the potential indirect effects of demographic characteristics that may influence the contribution of these factors to sustainability outcomes.

Age-Neutral Strategies: Destination managers and policymakers can focus on implementing tailored strategies that acknowledge different age groups' perceptions and preferences to promote empowerment, commodification and transformations, and sustainable practices in SCTD growth. By understanding each age demographic's needs and priorities, destinations can design more effective initiatives that resonate with diverse visitor segments. Targeted communication and engagement initiatives to appeal to different age groups and effectively communicate the value of SCTD can also be developed. Therefore, the use of age-appropriate messaging, channels, and experiences to engage younger and older visitors and stakeholders in sustainability efforts.

Income Neutral Strategies: Annual income does not significantly moderate the relationship between CSI and SCTD, except the relationship between commodification and transformation and SCTD. Therefore, destination managers should implement strategies to address the potential negative impacts of commodification on sustainable cultural tourism. These strategies could include pricing policies, visitor management measures, and community engagement initiatives that mitigate the adverse effects of commercialisation. The destination managers should ensure equitable access to sustainable tourism experiences

for visitors across different income brackets. An initiative that promotes affordability and accessibility, such as eco-friendly cultural tours, cultural heritage experiences, and responsible accommodation options, can be implemented.

Gender Neutral Strategies: Given the lack of significant moderating effects of gender, destination managers can focus on developing strategies that appeal to these demographic factors. By prioritising inclusive and equitable initiatives, destinations can ensure that tourism benefits are accessible to all genders, fostering social inclusion and diversity. Encourage the participation of individuals of all genders in tourism planning and decision-making processes to ensure diverse perspectives and experiences are considered. By actively engaging stakeholders from different gender backgrounds, destinations can develop more inclusive and responsive tourism strategies that address the needs and preferences of diverse visitor groups.

Occupation Neutral Strategies: Given the lack of significant moderating effects of occupation, tourism managers can still emphasise cultural preservation and community engagement to resonate with diverse occupational groups. Encourage broad stakeholder engagement in sustainable tourism initiatives, irrespective of occupation, to make them feel involved and integral to the process. Foster collaboration and partnership among individuals from different occupational backgrounds to leverage diverse expertise and perspectives in shaping sustainable tourism development strategies.

Marital Status Neutral Strategies: While marital status may not directly impact perceptions of sustainable tourism development, destination managers can still personalise communication and experiences to cater to the needs and preferences of different visitor segments. This emphasis on personalised communication will make the audience feel understood and catered to in their unique roles.

Education Qualification Neutral Strategies: Given the lack of a significant moderating effect of educational qualification on the relationship, destination managers can still focus on implementing general educational initiatives to raise awareness about the potential impacts of commodification and transformation on sustainable cultural tourism. These initiatives should foster informed decision-making among visitors without tailoring strategies to specific educational levels. Communication strategies should prioritise clarity and accessibility, using simple and inclusive language in promotional materials and

interpretive signage. This ensures that educational messages effectively reach and resonate with all visitors, regardless of their educational qualifications.

8.7 Limitations of the Study

The present study suffers from certain limitations, which may be enumerated as follows:

i. Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development (SCTD) is a growing field in tourism studies. However, its lack of a universally accepted definition and the complexity of the concept can make it challenging to implement. This complexity can hinder the development of specific strategies for cultural tourism destinations.
ii. Developing sustainable tourism attractions requires deep knowledge of the area's cultural, historical, and environmental aspects. However, due to the lack of recent economic data on cultural tourism, including tourist arrivals and product supply, the researcher relied solely on first-hand data collection from tourists and residents.
iii. While the quantitative methodology is ideal, this study must address sampling biases to ensure the sample demographic aligns with the population. Additionally, rating variables may have been difficult for participants to understand, leading to some constructs having R^2 values below the acceptable limit.
iv. First-hand data collection from respondents, especially foreign tourists, had to be restricted due to language barriers and difficulty conveying the concepts.

8.8 Scope for Future Research

Several avenues for future research exist in cultural tourism and sustainable development through ICH. These directions address gaps in existing literature and pave the way for practical applications in policy-making and tourism management.

i. The present research mainly focuses on a quantitative study of ICH as a single geographical region. However, future research can compare different geographical regions or types of ICH resources. Other dimensions include digital platforms and social media in promoting ICH, and their impact on cultural tourism demand and supply potentialities can be studied.
ii. The present research studies tourists' behavioural intentions to physically visit or revisit ICH resources. Future research can also investigate the influence of augmented reality and

virtual reality experiences on tourists' intentions to revisit ICH resources. Thus, exploring the role of mobile applications and smart tourism technologies in enhancing the cultural tourism experience can be another future direction for the researchers.

iii. The present study mainly focuses on the perceived cultural impact on residents' support. The study provides future scope for the researcher to investigate positive and negative economic, social, and environmental impacts on resident support for cultural tourism. Additionally, future studies need to consider moderating factors such as residents' economic status, length of residence, occupation, or direct commitment to cultural tourism business using multi-group analysis, which is lacking in the present study.

iv. A more comprehensive, multi-dimensional scale for cultural sustainability can be developed, including cultural, social, economic, and environmental dimensions, and validated through empirical testing in diverse aspects of SCTD, such as tourist demand, community well-being, and economic growth. Future research can also focus on refining and operationalising the concept of sustainable cultural tourism for specific regions or types of cultural assets. Comparative studies across different ICH resources could explore how various aspects of sustainability can be integrated in a balanced way to suit regional contexts, particularly in developing economies or fragile cultural heritage sites. Further qualitative studies can be conducted through case studies to illustrate successful implementations of cultural sustainability practices by involving the local communities in planning and decision-making. In addition, the cluster analysis approach can be examined to identify distinct demographic segments with different responses to cultural sustainability initiatives.

Annexure I

Construct Measurements

A. Constructs Measurements of Modified Du Cros Model of Cultural Tourism Potential Demand and Supply

Codes	Constructs and Variables	Adapted from Previous Studies
Market Attractiveness		
MA1	Goa's ICH has an ambience and setting.	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); Stamenković and Jakšić (2013); and Yan et al. (2017)
MA2	Goa's ICH is known.	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); and Stamenković and Jakšić (2013)
MA3	Goa's ICH has a national or important icon or symbol.	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); and Stamenković and Jakšić (2013)
MA4	Goa's ICH tells a "good" or "interesting story".	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); and Stamenković and Jakšić (2013)
MA5	Goa's ICH has an aspect to distinguishes it clearly from other attractions.	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); Stamenković and Jakšić (2013); and Yan et al. (2017)
MA6	Goa's ICH has appealed to special needs or uses that would also attract tourists' (e.g., festivals)	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); Stamenković and Jakšić (2013); and Yan et al. (2017)
MA7	Goa's ICH complements other tourism products in the area/ region/destination.	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); Sánchez Rivero et al. (2014); Stamenković and Jakšić (2013); and Yan et al. (2017)
MA8	Goa's ICH is a tourism activity.	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); Sánchez Rivero et al. (2014); Stamenković and Jakšić (2013); and Yan et al. (2017)
MA9	Goa's ICH attraction is associated with other ICHs.	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); and Yan et al. (2017)
Product Design		
PRD1	Goa's ICH has cultural site access features.	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); Popichit et al. (2013); Sánchez Rivero et al. (2014); Stamenković and Jakšić (2013); and Yan et al. (2017)

Codes	Constructs and Variables	Adapted from Previous Studies
PRD2	Goa's ICH destination has availability of transport.	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); Popichit et al. (2013); Sánchez Rivero et al. (2014); Stamenković and Jakšić (2013); and Yan et al. (2017)
PRD3	Goa's ICH destination has proximity to other heritage attractions.	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); Stamenković and Jakšić (2013); and Yan et al. (2017)
PRD4	Goa's ICH destination has amenities (washrooms, parking, pathways, refreshments, availability of information)	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); Popichit et al. (2013); Stamenković and Jakšić (2013); and Yan et al. (2017)
PRD5	Goa's ICH attraction has the potential to offer a unique experience.	McKercher and Ho (2006); and Sheng and Lo (2010)
PRD6	Goa's ICH attraction provides a participatory, engaging, and entertaining experience.	McKercher and Ho (2006); and Sheng and Lo (2010)
PRD7	Goa's ICH attraction is meeting different tourists' expectations.	McKercher and Ho (2006); and Sheng and Lo (2010)
PRD8	Goa's ICH is providing good quality interpretation (personal interpretation/guided tour, audio guide, signage of exhibits)	McKercher and Ho (2006); and Sheng and Lo (2010)
Cultural Significance		
CS1	Goa's ICH has aesthetic value.	Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); Stamenković and Jakšić (2013); and Yan et al. (2017)
CS2	Goa's ICH has historical value.	Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); Popichit et al. (2013); Stamenković and Jakšić (2013); and Yan et al. (2017)
CS3	Goa's ICH has educational value.	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); and Stamenković and Jakšić (2013)
CS4	Goa's ICH has social value.	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); and Stamenković and Jakšić (2013)
CS5	Goa's ICH has scientific/Research value.	Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); and Stamenković and Jakšić (2013)
CS6	Goa's ICH has site site-type attraction.	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); Popichit et al. (2013); and Stamenković and Jakšić (2013)
CS7	Goa's ICH has representativeness.	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); Popichit et al. (2013); and Stamenković and Jakšić (2013)

Codes	Constructs and Variables	Adapted from Previous Studies
Robustness		
RB1	Goa's ICH is Fragile.	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); and Stamenković and Jakšić (2013)
RB2	Goa's ICH is in a state of repair.	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); and Stamenković and Jakšić (2013)
RB3	Goa's ICH has a management plan and policy.	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Pobric et al. (2019); Popichit et al. (2013); and Stamenković and Jakšić (2013)
RB4	Goa's ICH has monitoring and maintenance.	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); and Stamenković and Jakšić (2013)
RB5	Goa's ICH has the potential for ongoing involvement and consultation with key stakeholders.	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); and Stamenković and Jakšić (2013)
RB6	Goa's ICH has the possibility of negative impacts of high visitation on the fabric of the destination.	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); Popichit et al. (2013); and Stamenković and Jakšić (2013)
RB7	Goa's ICH has the possibility of negative impacts of high visitation on the lifestyle and cultural traditions of the local community(ies)	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); Popichit et al. (2013); and Stamenković and Jakšić (2013)
RB8	Goa's ICH provides a participatory, engaging, and entertaining experience.	McKercher and Ho (2006); and Sheng and Lo (2010)
RB9	Goa's ICH is in meeting different tourists' expectations.	McKercher and Ho (2006); and Sheng and Lo (2010)
RB10	Goa's ICH has the potential to offer experience.	McKercher and Ho (2006); and Sheng and Lo (2010)
RB11	Goa's ICH has the possibility of modifications (as part of product development) to have negative impacts on the fabric of the asset(s)	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); and Stamenković and Jakšić (2013)
RB12	Goa's ICH has the possibility of modifications (as part of product development) to have negative impacts on the lifestyle and cultural traditions of the local community(ies)	Bjeljac et al. (2012); Bucurescu (2015); Li and Lo (2004); Pobric et al. (2019); and Stamenković and Jakšić (2013)
RB13	Goa's ICH is providing good quality interpretation (personal interpretation/guided tour, audio guide, signage of exhibits)	McKercher and Ho (2006); and Sheng and Lo (2010)

Source: *Author's compilation based on previous research studies*

Note: *The final data analysis phase led to the deletion of variables highlighted in red.*

B. Constructs Measurement of Extended TPB Model

Codes	Construct and Variables	Adapted from Previous Studies
Tourist Attitude		
TA1	Goa's culture is very enjoyable.	Abbasi et al. (2020); Ajzen (1992); Chen and Tung (2014); Han et al. (2011); Han and Kim (2010); Hasan et al. (2020); Hasan et al. (2019); Hsu and Huang (2010); Huang and Hsu (2009); Lam and Hsu (2004, 2006); Perugini and Bagozzi (2001); Quintal et al. (2010); Soliman (2019); and Sparks and Pan (2009)
TA2	Goa's culture is very pleasant.	Abbasi et al. (2020); Ajzen (1992); AL Ziadat (2015); Chen and Tung (2014); Han et al. (2011); Han and Kim (2010); Hasan et al. (2020); Hasan et al. (2019); Hsieh et al. (2016); Hsu and Huang (2010); Huang and Hsu (2009); Jalilvand and Samiei (2012); Lam and Hsu (2004, 2006); Li et al. (2016); Pereira et al. (2019); Perugini and Bagozzi (2001); Shen et al. (2009); Soliman (2019); and Sparks and Pan (2009)
TA3	Goa's culture is very favourable.	Boguszewicz-Kreft et al. (2020); Chen and Tung (2014); Han and Kim (2010); Lam and Hsu (2004, 2006); Pereira et al. (2019); and Soliman (2019)
TA4	Goa's culture is precious.	Han et al. (2011); Hsieh et al. (2016); and Pereira et al. (2019)
Subjective Norms		
SN1	People who are important to me think that I should revisit Goa in the near future.	Abbasi et al. (2020); Ajzen (1992); Chen and Tung (2014); Han et al. (2011); Han and Kim (2010); Hasan et al. (2020); Hsieh et al. (2016); Hsu and Huang (2010); Lam and Hsu (2004, 2006); Quintal et al. (2010); Soliman (2019); Sparks and Pan (2009); and Yamada and Fu (2012)
SN2	People whose opinions are valued by me would approve of my visit to Goa shortly.	AL Ziadat (2015); Boguszewicz-Kreft et al. (2020); Chen and Tung (2014); Han et al. (2011); Hsu and Huang (2010); Lam and Hsu (2004, 2006); Perugini and Bagozzi (2001); and Soliman (2019)
SN3	People who are important to me would recommend visiting Goa as a cultural destination.	Abbasi et al. (2020); Bianchi et al. (2017); Hasan et al. (2020); Hsieh et al. (2016); and Sparks and Pan (2009)
Perceived Behavioural Control		
PBC1	In the near future, whether or not I revisit is completely up to me	AL Ziadat (2015); Chen and Tung (2014); Han et al. (2011); Han and Kim (2010); Hasan et al. (2020); Hsu and Huang (2010); Quintal et al. (2010); and Soliman (2019)
PBC2	I am confident that I can revisit it anytime if I want.	Chen and Tung (2014); Han et al. (2011); Hasan et al. (2020); Shen and Shen (2020); and Soliman (2019)
PBC3	I have resources, time, money, and opportunities to revisit	Abbasi et al. (2020); Ajzen (1992); Alonso et al. (2015); Han et al. (2011); Hasan et al. (2020); Hsieh et al. (2016); Leong et al. (2014); Shen et al. (2009); Soliman (2019); and Sparks and Pan (2009)

Codes	Constructs and Variables	Adapted from Previous Studies
Tourist Motivation		
TM1	To visit different cultural attractions which have never seen before	Preko et al. (2019); and Soliman (2019)
TM2	To experience varied cultures and traditions.	Pereira et al. (2019); Preko et al. (2019); and Soliman (2019)
TM3	To fulfil the curiosity about Goa's culture.	Vong and Ung (2012)
TM4	To increase knowledge about cultural attractions.	Çelik and Dedeoğlu (2019); Hsu and Huang (2010); Pereira et al. (2019); Simpson et al. (2020); and Soliman (2019)
Tourist Destination Image		
TDI1	Goa has a good name and reputation as a cultural destination.	Çelik and Dedeoğlu (2019); Ghorbanzade et al. (2019); Kaur and Kaur (2019); and Soliman (2019)
TDI2	Goa has a rich diversity of local history and traditional culture.	Cheng and Lu (2013); Ezeuduji and Mhlongo (2019); Haarhoff (2018); Ramseook-Munhurrun et al. (2015); Zhang et al. (2018)
TDI3	It offers exciting and interesting cultural events and festivals.	Abbasi et al. (2020); Agapito et al. (2013); Baloglu and Mccleary (1999); Bosque and San Martín (2008); Hasan et al. (2019); Kaur and Kaur (2019); Maleki and Gholamian (2020); and Pereira et al. (2019)
TDI4	It has a unique image of ways of life and customs.	Cheng and Lu (2013); Alcocer and Ruiz (2019); Soliman (2019); and Zhang et al. (2018)
Tourist Satisfaction		
TS1	I enjoyed all the cultural activities which I wanted to do.	Abbasi et al. (2020); Albaity and Melhem (2017); Ghorbanzade et al. (2019); Hasan et al. (2019); Nguyen Viet et al. (2020); Wang and Hsu (2010); and Žabkar et al. (2010)
TS2	My choice to visit this destination was a wise one.	Ghorbanzade et al. (2019); Maleki and Gholamian (2020); Palau-Saumell et al. (2012); and Wang and Hsu (2010)
TS3	The cultural activities at the destination were exactly what I had expected.	Abbasi et al. (2020); Albaity and Melhem (2017); Amoah et al. (2019); Çelik and Dedeoğlu (2019); Hasan et al. (2019); Lee et al. (2007); Lu et al. (2020); and Žabkar et al. (2010)
TS4	Overall, I am satisfied with my decision to visit this destination as a tourist cultural destination.	Abbasi et al. (2020); Albaity and Melhem (2017); Amoah et al. (2019); Calza et al. (2020); Hasan et al. (2019); Nguyen Viet et al. (2020); Palau-Saumell et al. (2012); and Seong and Hong (2021)
Tourists' Memorable Experience		
TME1	A variety of opportunities to experience the local way of life	Chandralal and Valenzuela (2013); and Kim (2014)
TME2	Closely experienced the local culture.	Kim (2014), Kim et al. (2010) and Zhang et al. (2018)
TME3	Programs to learn about local history and culture	Kim (2014)
TME4	Good impressions about the local people	Kim et al. (2010) and Zhang et al. (2018)
TME5	I was delighted with the overall unique and memorable cultural experience.	Ali et al. (2015); Lu et al. (2020); and Yu-Ju et al. (2010)

Codes	Constructs and Variables	Adapted from Previous Studies
Tourists' Behavioural Intentions to Revisit		
BIR1	I intend to revisit Goa as a cultural attraction in the near future.	Adam et al. (2015); Amoah et al. (2019); An et al. (2019); Berhanu and Raj (2020); Çelik and Dedeoğlu (2019); Hamid et al. (2020); Hasan et al. (2019); Kempiak et al. (2017); Lee (2009); Mansour and Ariffin (2016); Nguyen Viet et al. (2020); Sharma and Nayak (2018); Tavitiyaman and Qu (2013); Wang and Hsu (2010); Yang et al. (2009); and Zhang et al. (2018)
BIR2	I would like to revisit Goa more for a cultural experience than other destinations.	An et al. (2019); Chen and Tsai (2007); Ghorbanzade et al. (2019); Hamid et al. (2020); Hasan et al. (2019); Jalilvand and Samiei (2012); Yu-Ju et al. (2010); and Zhang et al. (2018)
BIR3	I will encourage and plan to revisit Goa alone, with friends, or with family.	Berhanu and Raj (2020); Hamid et al. (2020); Jalilvand and Samiei (2012); and Preko et al. (2019)
BIR4	I will share my experience with others about the Goan culture.	Berhanu and Raj (2020); Çelik and Dedeoğlu (2019); Ghorbanzade et al. (2019); and Li et al. (2016)
BIR5	I will recommend Goa's cultural destination to someone who seeks advice.	Amoah et al. (2019); Çelik and Dedeoğlu (2019); Chen and Tsai (2007); Gani et al. (2019); Ghorbanzade et al. (2019); Hamid et al. (2020); Kempiak et al. (2017); Lee (2009); Li et al. (2016); Preko et al. (2019); Tavitiyaman and Qu (2013); and Wang and Hsu (2010)

Source: *Author's compilation based on previous research studies*

C. Constructs Measurement of Revised SET

Codes	Constructs and Variables	Adapted from Previous Studies
Residents' Community Attachment		
CA1	Living in this place means a lot to me.	Lee (2013); and López et al. (2018)
CA2	I am very much attached to the place where I stay.	Lee (2013; and López et al. (2018)
CA3	I feel a strong sense of belonging to the place where I stay.	Lee (2013); and López et al. (2018)
CA4	Many of my friends/family prefer this community over other communities.	Lee (2013); and López et al. (2018)
Residents' Community Involvement		
CI1	I participate in cultural-related activities.	Jaafar et al. (2015); Lee (2013); and López et al. (2018)
CI2	I am involved in research for the development of Goan culture.	Jaafar et al. (2015); Lee (2013); and López et al. (2018)
CI3	I am involved in the planning and management of cultural activities.	Jaafar et al. (2015); Lee (2013); and López et al. (2018)
CI4	I am involved in the decision-making for cultural activities.	Jaafar et al. (2015); Lee (2013); and López et al. (2018)
Residents Perceived Cultural Impact		
PCI1	I believe there is a development of cultural activities in my region/community.	Chen and Chen (2010b); Gursoy and Rutherford (2004); López et al. (2018); Papastathopoulos et al. (2019); Sharma et al. (2008); and Yoon et al. (2001)
PCI2	I believe there is a cultural exchange between tourists and residents.	Adongo et al. (2017); Bhat and Mishra (2020); Eslami et al. (2019); Guo et al. (2013); Gursoy and Rutherford (2004); López et al. (2018); Papastathopoulos et al. (2019); Sharma et al. (2008); and Yoon et al. (2001)
PCI3	I believe there is a preservation of local culture.	Adongo et al. (2017); López et al. (2018); and Sharma et al. (2008)
PCI4	I believe there is a positive effect on cultural identity.	Chen and Chen (2010b); Eslami et al. (2019); Gursoy and Rutherford (2004); López et al. (2018); Sharma et al. (2008); Sinclair-Maragh et al. (2015); and Yoon et al. (2001)
Residents' Attitude Towards Cultural Tourism		
ACT1	If tourism develops, then various cultural activities will increase even more.	Çelik and Rasoolimanesh (2021)
ACT2	Tourism offers a vital opportunity to understand different societies.	Çelik and Rasoolimanesh (2021)
ACT3	If tourism develops, there will be more cultural exchange between tourists and locals.	Çelik and Rasoolimanesh (2021)
ACT4	If tourism develops, it will positively affect our cultural identity.	Çelik and Rasoolimanesh (2021)
Residents' Attitude Toward Cultural Tourists		
ATCT1	The majority of tourists are interested in and respect our culture.	Zamani-Farahani and Henderson (2014)

Codes	Constructs and Variables	Adapted from Previous Studies
ATCT2	I like to meet with tourists' from as many countries as possible to learn about their cultures.	Zamani-Farahani and Henderson (2014)
ATCT3	I can extend my cultural experiences when I interact with tourists.	Martín et al. (2017); and Zamani-Farahani and Henderson (2014)
ATCT4	I am happy that tourists come to see our cultural activities.	Szromek et al. (2020)
ATCT5	I feel there is no natural effect on me when visiting tourist destinations.	Szromek et al. (2020)
Residents' Support for Cultural Tourism		
SFCT1	I recommend the cultural activities to the tourists and other visitors.	Martín et al. (2017)
SFCT2	I offer my assistance to cultural events/activities to be organised.	Martín et al. (2017)
SFCT3	I favour building new tourism activities, such as cultural events, folklore, and other historic-based attractions, which will attract more tourists.	Gursoy et al. (2002); Gursoy and Rutherford (2004); Nunkoo and Gursoy (2012); and Yoon et al. (2001)
SFCT4	I support cultural tourism and would like to see it become an essential part of my community.	Hanafiah et al. (2013); Huong and Lee (2017); Jaafar et al. (2015); Jaafar et al. (2015); Látková and Vogt (2012); McGehee and Andereck (2004); and Wang and Pfister (2008)

Source: *Author's compilation based on previous research studies*

D. List of Variables Adapted for CSI and SCTD

Variables for Pilot Study	Variables for Final Study	Codes for Analysis	Statements	Adapted from Previous Studies/Field Experts
Var 1	Var 1	AW1	Establish awareness programs among locals and youth to care for ICH and respect local customs.	Cárdenas et al. (2015); Khalid et al. (2019); Lynch et al. (2010); Nguyen et al. (2019); and Ranwa (2021)
Var 2	Var 2	AW2	Better understanding of what are the sustainability and tourism expectations.	Variables identified through discussions with field experts
Var 3	Var 3	AW3	A better understanding of how tourism and culture are interrelated and their benefit to the local community.	
Var 4	Var 4	AW4	Better understanding of various strategies and how they relate to the locals.	Madandola and Boussaa, (2023); and Valiati et al., (2023)
Var 5	Var 5	Deleted after EFA	Funding and management solutions for tourism-related problems for the empowerment of ICH practitioners.	Nguyen et al. (2019)
Var 6	Var 6	EM1	Training of community members for non-competitive tourism-related activities that complement the business.	Khalid et al. (2019) and Kim et al. (2019)
Var 7	Var 7	EM2	Self-reliance of each ICH association and practitioner by having their organised system.	Kim et al. (2019)
Var 8	Var 8	EM3	Encourage the means for local small entrepreneurs to develop and sell sustainable products that are based on the area's nature, history, or culture (including food, drink, crafts, and performance arts).	Khalid et al. (2019); Madandola and Boussaa (2023); and Nguyen et al. (2019)
Var 9	Deleted after Pilot Study	----------	Support initiatives for social and community participation and development, including, among others, infrastructure, education, health, and sanitation.	Madandola and Boussaa (2023)
Var 10	Var 9	PD1	Parallel existence and coordination between tourism and cultural heritage management.	Kim et al. (2019); Madandola and Boussaa (2023); and Ranwa (2021)
Var 11	Var 10	PD2	Stakeholders' initiatives and leadership in culture and tourism management.	Nguyen et al. (2019)
Var 12	Var 11	PD3	Strengthen the bond of action of the companies with the conservation and enhancement of cultural heritage.	Kim et al. (2019); and Madandola and Boussaa (2023)

Variables for Pilot Study	Variables for Final Study	Codes for Analysis	Statements	Adapted from Previous Studies/Field Experts
Var 13	Var 12	Deleted after EFA	Parallel participation in decision-making for cultural tourism sustainability.	Kim et al. (2019); and Ranwa (2021)
Var 14	Deleted after Pilot Study	----------	Stakeholders' contribution to the management of cultural resources.	Variables identified through discussions with field experts
Var 15	Deleted after Pilot Study	----------	Stakeholders' contribution to ensure greater benefits to the community.	
Var 16	Var 13	Deleted after EFA	Arts and culture in education must shift from being an extra-curricular activity to being part of the core syllabus.	Kim et al. (2019); and Madandola and Boussaa (2023)
Var 17	Var 14	PM1	Establishing ICH hubs or centres and hosting tourism activities such as events, festivals, and performances.	Nguyen et al. (2019)
Var 18	Var 15	PM2	Improving coordination of the various factors involved in the activity for development programs, marketing, education, and participation in the conservation and enhancement of cultural heritage.	Kim et al. (2019)
Var 19	Var 16	PM3	Promoting and using cultural tourism to differentiate the existing tourist facility, opening new market opportunities.	Kim et al. (2019); and Madandola and Boussaa (2023)
Var 20	Var 17	Deleted after EFA	Diversify mechanisms to promote and market segments with an interest in culture.	Kim et al. (2019)
Var 21	Deleted after Pilot Study	----------	Increasing awareness and interest in ICH among locals and youth.	Variables identified through discussions with field experts
Var 22	Var 18	Deleted after EFA	Encourage participants to purchase local products and services.	
Var 23	Var 19	SP1	Allow local artists to display and perform traditional art and culture.	Liburd (2007)
Var 24	Var 20	SP2	Reasonable prices can be kept for cultural products.	Liburd (2007) and Nguyen et al. (2019)
Var 25	Var 21	SP3	Facilitate the development of small and medium companies and grocery services to strengthen the system as a whole.	Liburd (2007); Nguyen et al. (2019); and Ranwa (2021)
Var 26	Var 22	Deleted after EFA	Encourage companies to provide tourists with information on cultural activities in the destination.	Khalifa (2020)

Variables for Pilot Study	Variables for Final Study	Codes for Analysis	Statements	Adapted from Previous Studies/Field Experts
Var 27	Var 23	AU1	Use appropriate and authentic cultural elements from the local region.	Doganer and Dupont (2013); Kim et al. (2019); and Ranwa (2021)
Var 28	Var 24	AU2	Emphasis on maintaining the original version of ICH.	Doganer and Dupont (2013); Kim et al. (2019); and Ranwa (2021)
Var 29	Var 25	AU3	Emphasis on maintaining/ safeguarding the meaning of ICH.	Kim et al. (2019); and Ranwa (2021)
Var 30	Var 26	AU4	Emphasis on the practitioners' identity.	Kim et al. (2019); and Ranwa (2021)
Var 31	Var 27	CT1	Shortening presentation times of cultural activities.	Kim et al. (2019)
Var 32	Var 28	CT2	Combining ICH with other modern performances (e.g., modern and contemporary music with traditional dances; modern materials with traditional craftsmanship).	Doganer and Dupont (2013); Kim et al. (2019); and Ranwa (2021)
Var 33	Var 29	CT3	Modifying lyrics or gestures to increase interaction with audiences.	Kim et al. (2019); and Ranwa (2021)
Var 34	Var 30	CT4	Transmitting ICH as it helps understand audiences and increases interest in ICH.	Kim et al. (2019); and Ranwa (2021)
Var 35	Var 31	Deleted after EFA	Sustainable cultural tourism can act as a well-accepted tourism product.	Variables identified through discussions with field experts
Var 36	Var 32	Deleted after EFA	Sustainable design and construction of infrastructure facilities for cultural tourists.	
Var 37	Var 33	SCTD1	Dynamic folk festivals and folklore traditions.	
Var 38	Var 34	SCTD2	Preservation of cultural resources and ruins and showcase of remarkable traditions.	
Var 39	Var 35	SCTD3	Full-time employment opportunities in the cultural tourism business.	
Var 40	Var 36	SCTD4	Community appreciation through economic and social life due to cultural tourism.	

Source: *Author's compilation*

Note: *Four variables highlighted in blue were deleted after the pilot study, and eight highlighted in red were deleted after EFA*

Annexure II

Determining Krejcie and Morgan Sample Size Table

A. Determining Sample Size from a Given Population

N (Population 1)	S (Sample Size 1)	N (Population 2)	S (Sample Size 2)	N (Population 3)	S (Sample Size 3)
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	242	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377
170	118	850	265	30000	379
180	123	900	269	40000	380
190	127	950	274	50000	381
200	132	1000	278	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	1000000	384

Source: Krejcie and Morgan, (1970)

Annexure III

Survey Instrument for Tourists'

A. Questionnaire for Tourists'

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am Mr. Sadanand Gaonkar, a Research Scholar currently pursuing PhD in **"Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development Through Intangible Cultural Heritage: An Empirical Study".** I request you to spare some time to answer the following questions kindly. I assure you that any information furnished by you will be used only for research purposes and will be strictly kept confidential.

Section I: Tourists' Behavioural Intention

1. Please respond to the following statements by tick marking the number that best describes your opinion towards the behavioural intention of revisiting Goa as a cultural destination. Note: (1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Somewhat Disagree, (4) Neither agree nor disagree, (5) Somewhat Agree, (6) Agree, and (7) Strongly Agree.

Tourists Attitude	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Goa's culture is very enjoyable.							
Goa's culture is very pleasant.							
Goa's culture is very favourable.							
Goa's culture is very valuable.							
Tourists Subjective Norms	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
People who are important to me think that I should revisit Goa in the near future.							
People whose opinions are valued by me would approve of my visit to Goa in the near future.							
People who are important to me would recommend that I visit Goa in the near future.							
Tourists Perceived Behavioural Control	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
In the near future, whether or not I revisit is completely up to me.							
I am confident that I can revisit it anytime if I want.							
I have resources, time, money, and opportunities to revisit							
Tourists Motivation	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
To visit different cultural attractions which have never seen before							
To experience varied cultural and traditional activities							
To fulfil the curiosity about Goan culture							
To increase the knowledge about the cultural attractions of Goa							
Tourists Destination Image	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Goa has a good name and reputation as a cultural destination.							
Goa has a rich diversity of local history and traditional culture.							
It offers exciting and interesting cultural events and festivals.							
It has a unique image of ways of life and customs.							

Tourists Satisfaction	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoyed all the cultural activities which I wanted to do.							
My choice to visit this destination was a wise one.							
The cultural activities at the destination were exactly what I had expected.							
Overall, I am satisfied with my decision to visit this cultural destination.							
Tourists Memorable Experience	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
A variety of opportunities to experience the local way of life							
Closely experienced the local culture							
Programs to learn about local history and culture							
Good impressions about the local people							
I was delighted with the overall unique and memorable cultural experience.							
Tourists' Behavioural Intentions to Revisit	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I intend to revisit Goa as a cultural attraction in the near future.							
I'd like to revisit Goa more for a cultural experience than other destinations.							
I will encourage and plan to revisit Goa alone, with friends, or with family.							
I will share my experience with others about the Goan culture.							
I will recommend Goa's cultural destination to someone who seeks advice.							

Section II: Potentialities of Cultural Tourism

1. Tick mark (√) the below-given element of ICH according to your opinion.

Statements	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Goa's ICH has an ambience and setting.							
Goa's ICH is known.							
Goa's ICH has a national or important icon or symbol.							
Goa's ICH tells a "good" or "interesting story".							
Goa's ICH has an aspect to distinguish it clearly from other attractions.							
Goa's ICH has appealed to special needs or uses that would also attract tourists' (e.g., festivals).							
Goa's ICH complements other tourism products in the area/ region/destination.							
Goa's ICH is a tourism activity.							
Goa's ICH attraction is associated with other ICHs.							
Goa's ICH has cultural site access features.							
Goa's ICH destination has availability of transport.							
Goa's ICH destination has proximity to other heritage attractions.							
Goa's ICH destination has amenities (washrooms, parking, pathways, refreshments, availability of information).							
Goa's ICH attraction has the potential to offer a unique experience.							
Goa's ICH attraction provides a participatory, engaging, and entertaining experience.							
Goa's ICH attraction is meeting different tourists' expectations.							
Goa's ICH provides good quality interpretation (personal interpretation/guided tour, audio guide, signage of exhibits).							

Section III: Cultural Tourism Sustainability

1. The following statements are given concerning Cultural Tourism Sustainability. Kindly respond to agreement or disagreement by tick marking the respective column. Note: (1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Somewhat Disagree, (4) Neither agree nor disagree, (5) Somewhat Agree, (6) Agree, and (7) Strongly Agree.

Statements	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Establish awareness programs among locals and youth to care for ICH and respect local customs.							
Better understanding of what are the sustainability and tourism expectations.							
A better understanding of how tourism and culture are interrelated and their benefit to the local community.							
Better understanding of various strategies and how they relate to the locals.							
Funding and management solutions for tourism-related problems for the empowerment of ICH practitioners.							
Training of community members for non-competitive tourism-related activities that complement the business.							
Self-reliance of each ICH association and practitioner by having their organised system.							
Encourage the means for local small entrepreneurs to develop and sell sustainable products that are based on the area's nature, history, or culture (including food, drink, crafts, and performance arts).							
Parallel existence and coordination between tourism and cultural heritage management.							
Stakeholders' initiatives and leadership in culture and tourism management.							
Strengthen the bond of action of the companies with the conservation and enhancement of cultural heritage.							
Parallel participation in decision-making for cultural tourism sustainability.							
Arts and culture in education must shift from being an extra-curricular activity to being part of the core syllabus.							
Establishing ICH hubs or center's and hosting tourism activities such as events, festivals, and performances.							
Improving coordination of the various factors involved in the activity for development programs, marketing, education, and participation in the conservation and enhancement of cultural heritage.							
Promoting and using cultural tourism to differentiate the existing tourist facility, opening new market opportunities.							
Diversify mechanisms to promote and market segments with an interest in culture.							
Encourage participants to purchase local products and services.							
Allow local artists to display and perform traditional art and culture.							
Reasonable prices can be kept for cultural products.							
Facilitate the development of small and medium companies and grocery services to strengthen the system as a whole.							
Encourage companies to provide tourists with information on cultural activities in the destination.							
Use appropriate and authentic cultural elements from the local region.							
Emphasis on maintaining the original version of ICH.							
Emphasis on maintaining/safeguarding the meaning of ICH.							

Emphasis on the practitioners' identity.
Shortening presentation times of cultural activities
Combining ICH with other modern performances (e.g., modern and contemporary music with traditional dances; modern materials with traditional craftsmanship).
Modifying lyrics or gestures to increase interaction with audiences.
Transmitting ICH as it helps understand audiences and increases interest in ICH.
Sustainable cultural tourism can act as a well-accepted tourism product.
Sustainable design and construction of infrastructure facilities for cultural tourists.
Dynamic folk festivals and folklore traditions.
Preservation of cultural resources and ruins and showcase of remarkable traditions.
Full-time employment opportunities in the cultural tourism business.
Community appreciation through economic and social life due to cultural tourism.

Section IV: Demographic Profile of the Respondent

Name:					
1	Nationality	Indian State: _____	Foreigner	Country: _____	
2	Gender	Male	Female		
3	Age (In Years)	18-30	31-44	45-59	60 and above
4	Occupation	Government Employee	Private Employee	Business	Other
5	Marital Status	Married	Unmarried		
6	Education Qualification	Up to 10th Grade	12th Grade	Graduation	Post Graduation Other
7	Annual Individual Income (domestic/ foreign tourist)	< Rs. 4 lakhs (Less than $5, 400)	Rs. 4-8 Lakhs ($5, 400-$10, 700)		> Rs. 8 Lakhs (More than $10, 700)
8	Number of visits in Goa	1st Time	2nd Time	3rd Time	More than three times
9	Number of days stayed in Goa	1-3 Days	4-6 Days	7-9 Days	More than 10 Days

Kindly mention the cultural activities that you have seen and experienced:

_____

----------THANK YOU----------

Annexure IV

Survey Instrument for Residents'

A. Questionnaire for Residents'

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am Mr. Sadanand Gaonkar, a Research Scholar currently pursuing a Ph.D. on the research topic **"Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development Through Intangible Cultural Heritage: An Empirical Study".** I request you to spare some time to answer the following questions kindly. I assure you that any information furnished by you will be used only for research purposes and will be strictly kept confidential.

Section I: Resident Perceived Impact and Support for Cultural Tourism

1. Please respond to each of the following statements by tick marking the number that best describes your opinion towards the impact of cultural tourism. Note: (1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Somewhat Disagree, (4) Neither agree nor disagree, (5) Somewhat Agree, (6) Agree, and (7) Strongly Agree.

Residents Community Attachment	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Living in the current place means a lot to me.							
I am very much attached to the place where I stay.							
I feel a strong sense of belonging to the place where I stay.							
Many of my friends/family prefer this community over other communities.							
Residents Community Involvement	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I participate in cultural-related activities.							
I am involved in research for the development of Goan culture.							
I am involved in the planning and management of cultural activities.							
I am involved in the decision-making for cultural activities.							
Residents Perceived Cultural Impact	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I believe there is a development of cultural activities in my region/ community.							
I believe there is a cultural exchange between tourists and residents.							
I believe there is a preservation of local culture.							
I believe there is a positive effect on cultural identity.							
Residents Attitude Towards Cultural Tourism	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
If cultural activities develop, then various other activities will increase even more.							
Cultural tourism offers an important opportunity to understand different societies and cultures.							
If cultural tourism develops, there will be more cultural exchange between tourists and locals.							
If cultural tourism develops, it will positively affect our cultural identity.							
Residents Attitude Towards Cultural Tourists	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
The majority of tourists are interested and respect our culture.							

I like to meet the tourists' from as many countries as possible.							
I can extend my cultural experiences when I interact with tourists.							
I am happy that tourists come to see our cultural activities.							
I feel there is no negative effect on me when visiting tourist destinations.							
Residents' Support for Cultural Tourism	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I recommend the cultural activities to the tourists and other visitors.							
I offer my assistance to cultural events/activities to be organised.							
I favour building new tourism activities, such as cultural events, folklore, and other historic attractions, which will attract more tourists.							
I support cultural tourism and would like to see it become an important part of my community.							

Section II: Potentialities of Cultural Tourism

1. Tick mark (√) the below-given element of ICH according to your opinion.

Statements	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Goa's ICH has aesthetic value.							
Goa's ICH has historical value.							
Goa's ICH has educational value.							
Goa's ICH has social value.							
Goa's ICH has scientific/Research value.							
Goa's ICH has a site-type attraction.							
Goa's ICH has representativeness.							
Goa's ICH is Fragile.							
Goa's ICH is in a state of repair.							
Goa's ICH has a management plan and policy.							
Goa's ICH has monitoring and maintenance.							
Goa's ICH has the potential for ongoing involvement and consultation with key stakeholders.							
Goa's ICH has the possibility of negative impacts of high visitation on the fabric of the destination.							
Goa's ICH has the possibility of negative impacts of high visitation on the lifestyle and cultural traditions of the local community(ies)							
Goa's ICH provides a participatory, engaging, and entertaining experience.							
Goa's ICH is in meeting different tourists' expectations.							
Goa's ICH has the potential to offer experience.							
Goa's ICH has the possibility of modifications (as part of product development) to have negative impacts on the fabric of the asset(s)							
Goa's ICH has the possibility of modifications (as part of product development) to have negative impacts on the lifestyle and cultural traditions of the local community(ies)							
Goa's ICH is providing good quality interpretation (personal interpretation/guided tour, audio guide, signage of exhibits)							

Section III: Cultural Tourism Sustainability

1. The following statements are given concerning Cultural Tourism Sustainability. Kindly give your response of agreement or disagreement by tick-marking the respective column. Note: (1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Somewhat Disagree, (4) Neither agree nor disagree, (5) Somewhat Agree, (6) Agree, and (7) Strongly Agree.

Statements	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Establish awareness programs among locals and youth to care for ICH and respect local customs.							
Better understanding of what are the sustainability and tourism expectations.							
A better understanding of how tourism and culture are interrelated and their benefit to the local community.							
Better understanding of various strategies and how they relate to the locals.							
Funding and management solutions for tourism-related problems for the empowerment of ICH practitioners.							
Training of community members for non-competitive tourism-related activities that complement the business.							
Self-reliance of each ICH association and practitioner by having their organised system.							
Encourage the means for local small entrepreneurs to develop and sell sustainable products that are based on the area's nature, history, or culture (including food, drink, crafts, and performance arts).							
Parallel existence and coordination between tourism and cultural heritage management.							
Stakeholders' initiatives and leadership in culture and tourism management.							
Strengthen the bond of action of the companies with the conservation and enhancement of cultural heritage.							
Parallel participation in decision-making for cultural tourism sustainability.							
Arts and culture in education must shift from being an extra-curricular activity to being part of the core syllabus.							
Establishing ICH hubs or center's and hosting tourism activities such as events, festivals, and performances.							
Improving coordination of the various factors involved in the activity for development programs, marketing, education, and participation in the conservation and enhancement of cultural heritage.							
Promoting and using cultural tourism to differentiate the existing tourist facility, opening new market opportunities.							
Diversify mechanisms to promote and market segments with an interest in culture.							
Encourage participants to purchase local products and services.							
Allow local artists to display and perform traditional art and culture.							
Reasonable prices can be kept for cultural products.							
Facilitate the development of small and medium companies and grocery services to strengthen the system as a whole.							
Encourage companies to provide tourists with information on cultural activities in the destination.							
Use appropriate and authentic cultural elements from the local region.							

Emphasis on maintaining the original version of ICH.
Emphasis on maintaining/safeguarding the meaning of ICH.
Emphasis on the practitioners' identity.
Shortening presentation times of cultural activities
Combining ICH with other modern performances (e.g., modern and contemporary music with traditional dances; modern materials with traditional craftsmanship).
Modifying lyrics or gestures to increase interaction with audiences.
Transmitting ICH as it helps understand audiences and increases interest in ICH.
Sustainable cultural tourism can act as a well-accepted tourism product.
Sustainable design and construction of infrastructure facilities for cultural tourists.
Dynamic folk festivals and folklore traditions.
Preservation of cultural resources and ruins and showcase of remarkable traditions.
Full-time employment opportunities in the cultural tourism business.
Community appreciation through economic and social life due to cultural tourism.

Section IV: Demographic Profile of the Respondent

Name:						
1	Gender	Male		Female		
2	Age (In Years)	18-30	31-44	45-59	60 and above	
3	Occupation	Government Employee	Private Employee		Business	Other
4	Marital Status	Married		Unmarried		
5	Education Qualification	Up to 10th Grade	12th Grade	Graduation	Post Graduation	Other
6	Annual Income (in Rs.)	< Rs. 4 lakhs	Rs. 4-8 Lakhs		> Rs. 8 Lakhs	
7	Family Composition (No. of Members)	One	Two	Three	More than three	
8	District	North-Goa			South-Goa	
9	Residential Area	Rural Village:	Urban Town:		**Taluka (You Resides):** _____	
10	Length of Residency (In Years)	< 10 Years	10- 20 Years		20-30 Years	> 30 Years

Kindly mention the cultural activities that are carried out in your village/community:

_____

----------THANK YOU----------

Annexure V

Academic Contributions

A. Participation in Workshops and Webinars

1. Attended a Four-days Online Workshop on *"Art of Writing Research Paper in Social Science",* organised by the Department of Physical Education and Sports, Swami Vivekanand Vidyaprasarak Mandal's College of Commerce, Borim, Ponda-Goa, conducted from 1st May to 4th May 2020.

2. Attended a One-day National Level Online Workshop on *"How to Write Quality Research Paper",* organised by BBA and BBA (IB) Dept., MAEER's MIT Arts, Commerce and Science College, Alandi, Pune, conducted on 15th May 2020.

3. Participated in a One-day Webinar on *"Use of Elsevier Tools for Developing Research Workflow and Academic Writing",* organised by the Directorate of Higher Education, Goa, in Collaboration with Elsevier, conducted on 18th May 2020.

4. Attended a Seven-days International Online Workshop on *"Research Methodology",* organised by Wilson College, KES' Shroff College of Arts and Commerce, and Vasantraodada Patil Institute of Management Studies and Research in association with the University of Mumbai, conducted from 19th May to 25th May 2020.

5. Attended a One-day Webinar on *"How to Write Great Research Paper and Get it Accepted by a Good Journal",* organised by the Directorate of Higher Education, Goa, in Collaboration with Elsevier, conducted on 3rd June 2020.

6. Attended a One-day Online FDP on *"Statistical Tools and Techniques of Social Science Research",* organised by Research and Development Cell, St. Francis College, Bengaluru, conducted on 20th June 2020.

7. Attended a Five-days National Faculty Development Program on "*Advanced Research Methods and Quantitative Data Analysis using SPSS",* organised by Edge India Academy, from 26th October 2020 to 1st November 2020.

8. Attended a One-day State Level Webinar on "*Multivariate Data Analysis",* organised by the Department of Research, Development, and Innovation, Government College of Arts, Science and Commerce, Khandola, Marcela-Goa on 3rd February 2021.

9. Attended a Three-days State Level Workshop on "*Structural Equation Modeling using SPSS AMOS",* organised by SVVM's College of Commerce, Bori, Ponda, in Collaboration with SSA Government College of Arts and Commerce and Research Center in Commerce, Virnoda, Pernem Goa, from 24th to 26th March 2021.

10. Attended a Six-day workshop on "*Foundation of Research Methodology",* organised by GEA, from 12th to 17th April 2021.

11. Attended a Two-days state-level Webinar on "*Basic of Econometrics using E Views",* organised by Government College Khandola, Goa, from 22nd to 23rd April 2021.

12. Attended International Webinar on *"Strengthening Your Understanding of Research Journals (Reading, Referencing, and Publishing)",* organised by K. J. Somaiya College of Science and Commerce in collaboration with ELSEVIER on 10th July 2021.

13. Attended a One-day State Level Workshop on *"Questionnaire Design and Testing",* organised by MFS- Goa Business School, Goa University, on 19th and 20th May 2022.

14. Attended a Three-days National Level Workshop on *"Moderated Mediation in SPSS using Hayes Process Macro",* organised by Primax Eduacademy, Bengaluru, Karnataka, from 01st to 03rd June 2022.

15. Attended a One-day workshop on *"Writing Manuscripts and Publishing in Quality Research Journals",* organised by DIQA, Goa University, on 27th August 2022.

16. Attended a One-day National Level Online Workshop on *"Social Science Thesis Writing: An Art or Skill of Researcher",* organised by Kongu Business School, Kongu Engineering College (Autonomous), Perundurai, Tamil Nadu on 27th January 2023.

17. Attended a Five-day Online FDP on *"Systematic Literature Review and Bibliometric Analysis",* organised by Presidency University, School of Management, from 12th to 16th June 2023.

18. Attended a Six-day *"Research Writing Workshop"*, organised by D-RDRM and HRDC, Goa University, from 03rd to 08th July 2023.

19. Attended a Five-day online National level Faculty Development Programme on *"Qualitative Data Analysis using VosViewer and NVIVO Software",* organised by the Department of Management Science, Sri Krishna Arts and Science College, Coimbatore, Tamil Nadu, India, from 9th to 13th January 2024.

20. Attended a two-day state-level workshop on *"Structural Equation Modelling using Smart-PLS 4",* organised by M. Com Department, Goa Business School, Goa University, from 06th March to 07th March 2024.

B. Research Paper Presentation

1. Presented a research paper titled ***"Travel Intention and Behavioural Changes during COVID-19 Pandemic: Empirical Implication for the Travel and Tourism Industry",*** at the Two-day International Conference on the theme *"Commerce, Management, and Interdisciplinary Subjects (ICCMIS)",* organised by Central University of Kerala, on 28th to 29th October 2021 on the digital platform.

2. Presented research paper titled ***"Conceptualising the Strategic Approach of Retailing and Culture for Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development",*** at the Two-day National Level Conference on the theme *"Challenges of Retailing and its Coping Strategies",* organised by the Post-Graduate Department of Commerce, Government College of Arts, Science, and Commerce, Khandola, Marcela-Goa, on 23rd to 24th January 2023.

3. Presented research paper titled ***"A Factor-Cluster Approach in Assessing Residents' Perceptions towards Sustainable Rural Tourism Development",*** at the International Conference on the theme *"Sustaining a Competitive Edge in the Changing Global Scenario",* organised by the Department of Commerce School of Commerce Finance and Accountancy CHRIST (Deemed to be University) Bangalore, India, on 9th and 10th March 2023.

4. Presented research paper titled ***"A Revised Social Exchange Theory Framework to Analyse the Resident's Support for Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development",*** at the 7 Asia-Africa Development International Conference, Summit, and Awards 2024 on the theme *"Sustainable Smartech Businesses across Global Economies",* organised by Dr. D Y Patil Institute of Management Studies, Akurdi, Pune, on 1st and 2nd March 2024.

5. Presented research paper titled ***"Measuring the Cultural Sustainability Indicators Toward Sustainable Cultural Tourism Development: Scale Development and Validation",*** at the 10th ICOMBS Conference on the theme *"Technology and Sustainability: Redefining the future of Marketing",* organised by the ICFAI Business School (IBS), Hyderabad, on 15th and 16th March 2024. **(RECEIVED BEST PAPER AWARD)**.

C. Research Paper Publication

1. Gaonkar, Sadanand and Sukthankar, S. V. (2025). Measuring and evaluating the influence of cultural sustainability indicators on sustainable cultural tourism development: Scale development and validation. *Heliyon,* 11(4) e42514. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2025.e42514

2. Gaonkar, Sadanand and Sukthankar, S. V. (2025). Evaluating the resident support for cultural tourism through a revised social exchange theory approach. *Review of Marketing Science*, 23(1). https://doi.org/10.1515/roms-2024-0092

3. Gaonkar, S. & Sukthankar, S. V. (2024). Mapping the behavioural intentions of tourists to revisit cultural destinations: A bibliometric analysis. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure,* 13(2), 274-284. https://doi.org/10.46222/ajhtl.19770720.507

4. Sukthankar, S. V. & Gaonkar, S. (2022). Travel intention and behavioural changes during COVID-19 pandemic: Empirical implication for the travel and tourism industry. *Turizam,* 26(4), 243–257. https://doi.org/10.5937/turizam26-33618

References

Abbasi, G. A., Kumaravelu, J., Goh, Y. N., & Dara Singh, K. S. (2020). Understanding the intention to revisit a destination by expanding the theory of planned behaviour (TPB). *Spanish Journal of Marketing - ESIC*, *25*(2), 282–311. https://doi.org/10.1108/SJME-12-2019-0109

Abd Hamid, M., Ismail, N., Iffah Mohd Fuza, Z., Najiah Ahmad, K., & Wahidin Awang, K. (2013). Sustainable tourism development practices of MICE venue providers in East Coast region, Peninsula Malaysia. *Journal of Tourism, Hospitality & Culinary Arts*, *5*(2), 19–29. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/328695082_Sustainable_tourism_development_practices_of_MICE_venue_provider_in_East_Coast_Region_Peninsula_Malaysia/references

Abdu, M., AL-Najjar, M., & P, I. (2018). A study on potentiality of tourism industry in Yemen. *Tourism Innovations*, *8*(2), 126–133. https://doi.org/10.37727/jkdas.2019.21.2.811

Adam, I., Adongo, C. A., & Dayour, F. (2015). International tourists' satisfaction with Ghanaian upscale restaurant services and revisit intentions. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism*, *16*(2), 181–201. https://doi.org/10.1080/1528008X.2014.892423

Adongo, R., Choe, J. Y., & Han, H. (2017). Tourism in Hoi An, Vietnam: Impacts, perceived benefits, community attachment and support for tourism development. *International Journal of Tourism Sciences*, *17*(2), 86–106. https://doi.org/10.1080/15980634.2017.1294344

Agapito, D., Oom do Valle, P., & da Costa Mendes, J. (2013). The cognitive-affective-conative model of destination image: A confirmatory analysis. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *30*(5), 471–481. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2013.803393

Ahmad, A. (2013). The constraints of tourism development for a cultural heritage destination: The case of Kampong Ayer (Water Village) in Brunei Darussalam. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *8*, 106–113. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2013.09.002

Ahmad, M. S., & Abu Talib, N. B. (2015). Empowering local communities: Decentralization, empowerment and community driven development. *Quality and Quantity*, *49*(2), 827–838. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-014-0025-8

Ajzen, I. (1985). From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behavior. In *Kuhl, J., Beckmann, J. (eds) Action Control. SSSP Springer Series in Social Psychology. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg,* 11–29. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-69746-3_2

Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *50*(2), 179–211. https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(91)90020-T

Ajzen, I. (1992). Application of the theory of planned behavior to leisure choice. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *24*(3), 207–224. https://doi.org/10.1080/00222216.1992.11969889

Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1970). The prediction of behavior from attitudinal and normative variables. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *6*(4), 466–487. https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-1031(70)90057-0

Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1980). *Understanding attitudes and predicting social behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall. https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/Understanding-Attitudes-and-Predicting-Social-Ajzen-Fishbein/2303e303f57636618d9c8d5b0050c558a565e835

AL Ziadat, M. T. (2015). Applications of planned behavior theory (TPB) in Jordanian tourism. *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, *7*(3), 96–106. https://doi.org/10.5539/ijms.v7n3p95

Alamineh, G. A., Hussein, J. W., Mulu, Y. E., & Taddesse, B. (2023). The negative cultural impact of tourism and its implication on sustainable development in Amhara Regional State. *Cogent Arts and Humanities*, *10*(1). https://doi.org/10.1080/23311983.2023.2224597

Alauddin, M., & Nghiemb, H. S. (2010). Do instructional attributes pose multicollinearity problems? An empirical exploration. *Economic Analysis & Policy*, *40*(3), 351–361. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0313-5926(10)50034-1

Albaity, M., & Melhem, S. B. (2017). Novelty seeking, image, and loyalty—The mediating role of satisfaction and moderating role of length of stay: International tourists' perspective. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *23*, 30–37. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2017.04.001

Alejandria-Gonzalez, M. C. P. (2016). Cultural tourism development in the Philippines: An analysis of challenges and orientations. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism*, *17*(4), 496–515. https://doi.org/10.1080/1528008X.2015.1127194

Ali, F., Ryu, K., & Hussain, K. (2015). Influence of experiences on memories, satisfaction and behavioral intentions: A study of creative tourism. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *33*(1), 85–100. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2015.1038418

Alonso, A. D., Sakellarios, N., & Pritchard, M. (2015). The theory of planned behaviour in the context of cultural heritage tourism. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *10*(4), 399–416. https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2015.1044992

Amoah, F., Novienyo, L., & Amoah, A. (2019). Tourist experience, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions of rural tourism destinations in the Eastern Cape, South Africa. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, *8*(4), 1–12. https://www.ajhtl.com/uploads/7/1/6/3/7163688/article_12_vol_8_4__2019_nmu.pdf

An, S., Suh, J., & Eck, T. (2019). Examining structural relationships among service quality, perceived value, satisfaction, and revisit intention for Airbnb guests. *International Journal of Tourism Sciences*, *19*(3), 145–165. https://doi.org/10.1080/15980634.2019.1663980

An, Y., Moon, J. W., & Norman, W. C. (2021). Investigating residents' attitudes towards tourism growth in Downtown Greenville, SC: The effect of demographic variables. *Sustainability*, *13*(15). https://doi.org/10.3390/su13158474

Andereck, K. L., Valentine, K. M., Knopf, R. C., & Vogt, C. A. (2005). Residents' perceptions of community tourism impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *32*(4), 1056–1076. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2005.03.001

Andereck, K. L., & Vogt, C. A. (2000). The relationship between residents' attitudes toward tourism and tourism development options. *Journal of Travel Research*, *39*(1), 27–36. https://doi.org/10.1177/004728750003900104

Anderson, J. C., Kellogg, J. L., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin*, *103*(3), 411–423. https://doi.org/0033-2909/88/$00.75

Andriotis, K. (2005). Community groups' perceptions of and preferences for tourism development: Evidence from Crete. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *29*(1), 67–90. https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348004268196

Ap, J. (1992). Residents' perception on tourism impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *19*(4), 665–690. https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(92)90060-3

Aranburu, I., Plaza, B., & Esteban, M. (2016). Sustainable cultural tourism in urban destinations: Does space matter? *Sustainability*, *8*(8), 1–14. https://doi.org/10.3390/su8080699

Arizpe, L. (2014). On the cultural and social sustainability of world development. In L. Arizpe (Ed.), *Springer Briefs on Pioneers in Science and Practice*, *Springer, Cham, 10,* 31–42. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-01896-6_4

Armenski, T., Dragičević, V., Pejović, L., Lukić, T., & Djurdjev, B. (2011). Interaction between tourists and residents: Influence on tourism development. *Polish Sociological Review*, *173*(1), 107–118. https://www.jstor.org/stable/41275189

Armitage, C. J., & Conner, M. (2001). Efficacy of the theory of planned behaviour: A meta-analytic review. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *40*, 471–499. https://doi.org/doi.org/10.1348/014466601164939

Artal-Tur, A., Villena-Navarro, M., & Alamá-Sabater, L. (2018). The relationship between cultural tourist behaviour and destination sustainability. *Anatolia*, *29*(2), 237–251. https://doi.org/10.1080/13032917.2017.1414444

Ashworth, G. (1995). Heritage, tourism & Europe: A European future for a European past? In *D. T. Herbert (Ed.), Heritage, tourism and society, Mansell, London*, 66–84. https://research.rug.nl/en/publications/heritage-tourism-and-europe-a-european-future-for-a-european-past

Ashworth, G. J., & Tunbridge, J. E. (1990). The tourist-historic city: Retrospect and prospect of managing the heritage city. In *London: Belhaven*, *16*. https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/Tourist-historic-city.-Ashworth-Tunbridge/9f213044c3ec3cbd8141ca0c727b3bb4a2dd9d99

Asmelash, A. G., & Kumar, S. (2019). The structural relationship between tourist satisfaction and sustainable heritage tourism development in Tigrai, Ethiopia. *Heliyon*, 1–31. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2019

Auld, C. J., & Case, A. J. (1997). Social exchange processes in leisure and non-leisure settings: A review and exploratory investigation. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *29*(2), 183–200. https://doi.org/10.1080/00222216.1997.11949793

Backman, K. F., Backman, S. J., Uysal, M., & Sunshine, K. M. (1995). Event Tourism: An examination of motivations and activities. *Festival Management and Event Tourism*, *3*(1), 15–24. https://www.ingentaconnect.com/contentone/cog/fmet/1995/00000003/00000001/art00003

Bagozzi, R. P., & Nataraajan, R. (2000). The year 2000: Looking forward. *Psychology & Marketing*, *17*(1), 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1520-6793(200001)17:1<1::AID-MAR1>3.0.CO;2-Y

Bagozzi, R. R., & Yi, Y. (1988). On the evaluation of structural equation models. *Journal of the Academy and Marketing Science*, *16*, 74–94. https://doi.org/0092-0703/88 / 1601-0074

Bagri, G. S., & Kala, D. (2016). Residents' attitudes toward tourism development and impacts in Koti-Kanasar, Indroli, Pattyur tourism circuit of Uttarakhand State, India. *PASOS Revista de Turismo y Patrimonio Cultural*, *14*(1), 23–39. https://doi.org/10.25145/j.pasos.2016.14.002

Baker, D. A., & Crompton, J. L. (2000). Quality, satisfaction and behavioral intentions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *27*(3), 785–804. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(99)00108-5

Baloglu, S. (2000). A path analytic model of visitation intention involving information sources, socio-psychological motivations, and destination image. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *8*(3), 81–90. https://doi.org/10.1300/J073v08n03_05

Baloglu, S., & Mccleary, K. W. (1999). A model of destination image formation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *26*(4), 868–897. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(99)00030-4

Barnes, S. J., Mattsson, J., & Sørensen, F. (2016). Remembered experiences and revisit intentions: A longitudinal study of safari park visitors. *Tourism Management*, *57*, 286–294. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.06.014

Bayih, B. E., & Singh, A. (2020). Modeling domestic tourism: Motivations, satisfaction, and tourist behavioral intentions. *Heliyon*, *6*(9), 1–17. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2020.e04839

Bayno, P. M., & Jani, D. (2016). Residents' attitudes on the contribution of cultural tourism in Tanzania. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, *16*(1), 41–56. https://doi.org/10.1080/14766825.2016.1211663

Beerli-Palacio, A., & Martín-Santana, J. D. (2017). How does confirmation of motivations influence on the pre- and post-visit change of image of a destination? *European Journal of Management and Business Economics*, *26*(2), 238–251. https://doi.org/10.1108/EJMBE-07-2017-014

Belhassen, Y., & Caton, K. (2006). Authenticity matters. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *33*(3), 853–856. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2006.03.009

Belhassen, Y., Caton, K., & Stewart, W. P. (2008). The search for authenticity in the pilgrim experience. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *35*(3), 668–689. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2008.03.007

Berglund, T., Gericke, N., Boeve-de Pauw, J., Olsson, D., & Chang, T. C. (2020). A cross-cultural comparative study of sustainability consciousness between students in Taiwan and Sweden. *Environment, Development and Sustainability*, *22*(7), 6287–6313. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10668-019-00478-2

Berhanu, K., & Raj, S. (2020). The relationship between tourist satisfaction and post-travel behaviour: Evidence from international tourists visiting Ethiopia. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, *9*(1). https://www.ajhtl.com/2020-early-volume.html

Besculides, A., Lee, M. E., & Mccormick, P. J. (2002). Residents' perceptions of the cultural benefits of tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *29*(2), 303–319. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(01)00066-4

Besermenji, S., Pivac, T., Vujicic, M., & Stamos, A. P. (2020). Minoan culture and tourism. *African Journal of Philosophy and Religious Studies*, *6*(6), 1–009. https://doi.org/10.5897/AJHC.9000022

Bhat, A. A., & Mishra, R. K. (2020). Demographic characteristics and residents' attitude towards tourism development: A case of Kashmir region. *Journal of Public Affairs*, *21*(2), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1002/pa.2179

Bhat, N. S., & Rao, N. (2013). History of Goa with special reference to its Feudal features. *Indian Historical Review*, *40*(2), 249–266. https://doi.org/10.1177/0376983613499680

Bianchi, C., Milberg, S., & Cúneo, A. (2017). Understanding travelers' intentions to visit a short versus long-haul emerging vacation destination: The case of Chile. *Tourism Management*, *59*, 312–324. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.08.013

Birkeland, I. (2008). Cultural sustainability: Industrialism, placelessness and the re-animation of place. *Ethics, Place and Environment*, *11*(3), 283–297. https://doi.org/10.1080/13668790802559692

Bjeljac, Ž., Ćurčić, N., & Brankov, J. (2012). Tourism evaluation of IBA areas in the Serbian part of Banat. *Forum Geografic*, *XI*(2), 161–167. https://doi.org/10.5775/fg.2067-4635.2012.034.d

Black, W., & Babin, Barry. J. (2019). Multivariate data analysis: Its approach, evolution, and impact. In B. J. Babin & M. Sarstedt (Eds.), *The Great Facilitator*. Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-06031-2_16

Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life* (2nd Edition). New York: John Wiley & Sons. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203792643

Blazey, M. A. (2002). Cultural tourism as regional destinations. *International Journal of Tourism Sciences*, *2*(1), 49–68. https://doi.org/10.1080/15980634.2002.11434530

Boguszewicz-Kreft, M., Kuczamer-Kłopotowska, S., Kozłowski, A., Ayci, A., & Abuhashesh, M. (2020). The theory of planned behaviour in medical tourism: International comparison in the young consumer segment. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *17*(5). https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17051626

Boley, B. B., McGehee, N. G., Perdue, R. R., & Long, P. (2014). Empowerment and resident attitudes toward tourism: Strengthening the theoretical foundation through a Weberian lens. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *49*, 33–50. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2014.08.005

Bonink, C. (1992). *Cultural tourism development and government policy*. https://scholar.google.com/scholar_lookup?title=Cultural+Tourism+Development+and+Government+Policy%27&publication_year=1992

Borges, C. J., Pereira, O. G., & Stubbe, H. (2000). *Goa and Portugal: History and development* (Vol. 10). Concept Publishing Company, New Delhi. https://books.google.co.in/books?id=diISslZgIAkC&newbks=1&newbks_redir=0&lpg=PP1&dq=Goa&pg=PP1#v=onepage&q&f=false

Bortolotto, C. (2007). From objects to processes: UNESCO's intangible cultural heritage. *Journal of Museum Ethnography*, *19*, 21–33. https://www.jstor.org/stable/40793837

Bramwell, B., Higham, J., Lane, B., & Miller, G. (2016). Twenty-five years of sustainable tourism and the Journal of sustainable tourism: Looking back and moving forward. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *25*(1), 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2017.1251689

Bramwell, B., & Lane, B. (2012). Towards innovation in sustainable tourism research? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *20*(1), 1–7. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2011.641559

Brebbia, C. A., Doganer, S., Dupont, W., Doganer, S., & Dupont, W. (2015). Accelerating cultural heritage tourism in San Antonio: A community-based tourism development proposal for the missions historic district. *International Journal of Sustainable Development and Planning*, *10*(1), 1–19. https://doi.org/10.2495/SDP-V10-N1-1-19

Brehm, J. M., Eisenhauer, B. W., & Krannich, R. S. (2004). Dimensions of community attachment and their relationship to well-being in the amenity-rich rural west. *Rural Sociology*, *69*(3), 405–429. https://doi.org/10.1526/0036011041730545

Brida, J. G., Riaño, E., & Aguirre, S. Z. (2011). Residents' attitudes and perceptions towards cruise tourism development: A case study of Cartagena de Indias (Colombia). *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, *11*(3), 181–196. https://doi.org/10.1177/1667358411415153

Brinberg, D., & Castell, P. (1982). A resource exchange theory approach to interpersonal interactions: A test of Foa's theory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *43*(2), 260–269. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.43.2.260

Brundtland Report. (1987). *Our common future: Report of the world commission on environment and development*. https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/content/documents/5987our-common-future.pdf

Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2015). *Business research methods* (Fourth Edition). Oxford University Press. https://books.google.co.in/books/about/Business_Research_Methods.html?id=l7u6BwAAQBAJ&redir_esc=y

Bucurescu, I. (2015). Managing tourism and cultural heritage in historic towns: Examples from Romania. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *10*(3), 248–262. https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2014.968162

Buigut, S., & Amaize, O. (2020). Determinants of theatre, dance, and art museum attendance in the United Arab Emirates. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *15*(6), 612–625. https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2020.1719117

Bujosa Bestard, A., Rosselló, J., & Rosselló Nadal, J. (2007). Attitudes toward tourism and tourism congestion. *Région et Développement*, 193–207. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/227626888

Burns, P. M., & Fridman, D. (2011). Actors' perceptions of the newly designated south downs national park: Social exchange theory and framework analysis approach. *Tourism Planning and Development*, *8*(4), 447–465. https://doi.org/10.1080/21568316.2011.628808

Burton, R. J. F., & Paragahawewa, U. H. (2011). Creating culturally sustainable agri-environmental schemes. *Journal of Rural Studies*, *27*(1), 95–104. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrurstud.2010.11.001

Buttle, F., & Bok, B. (1996). Hotel marketing strategy and the theory of reasoned action. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *8*(3), 5–10. https://doi.org/10.1108/09596119610115943

Byrd, E. T., Bosley, H. E., & Dronberger, M. G. (2009). Comparisons of stakeholder perceptions of tourism impacts in rural eastern North Carolina. *Tourism Management*, *30*(5), 693–703. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2008.10.021

Calza, F., Ferretti, M., Risitano, M., & Sorrentino, A. (2019). Analysing customer experience in heritage tourism: Empirical evidence from an Italian cultural district. *Mercati & Competitività*, *3*, 100–119. https://doi.org/10.3280/mc3-2019oa8503

Calza, F., Pagliuca, M., Risitano, M., & Sorrentino, A. (2020). Testing moderating effects on the relationships among on-board cruise environment, satisfaction, perceived value and behavioral intentions. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *32*(2), 934–952. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-09-2019-0773

Cárdenas, D. A., Byrd, E. T., & Duffy, L. N. (2015). An exploratory study of community awareness of impacts and agreement to sustainable tourism development principles. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, *15*(4), 254–266. https://doi.org/10.1177/1467358415580359

Cárdenas-García, P. J., Pulido-Fernández, J. I., & Pulido-Fernández, M. de la C. (2016). The Influence of Tourist Satisfaction on Tourism Expenditure in Emerging Urban Cultural Destinations. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *33*(4), 497–512. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2015.1064061

Cardoso, Fr. P. (2011). *The history and evolution of Goan Music*. Directorate of Art and Culture, Government of Goa. https://artandculture.goa.gov.in/en/node/7801

Casaló, L. V., Flavián, C., & Guinalíu, M. (2010). Determinants of the intention to participate in firm-hosted online travel communities and effects on consumer behavioral intentions. *Tourism Management*, *31*(6), 898–911. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2010.04.007

Caswell, C. (2017). *Culture: In our hearts and soul*. Retrieved from www.thehealthylivingplan.com

Çelik, S., & Dedeoğlu, B. B. (2019). Psychological factors affecting the behavioral intention of the tourist visiting Southeastern Anatolia. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights*, *2*(4), 425–450. https://doi.org/10.1108/JHTI-01-2019-0005

Çelik, S., & Rasoolimanesh, S. M. (2021). Residents' attitudes towards tourism, cost–benefit attitudes, and support for tourism: A pre-development perspective. *Tourism Planning and Development*, 1–19. https://doi.org/10.1080/21568316.2021.1873836

Chaigasem, T., LL, K. Y., & Tunming, P. (2019). International charter related to historical and cultural tourism and tourists' demands in historical tourist attraction management within Khao Phra Viharn national park area, Sisaket, Thailand. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, *8*(4), 1–13. https://ajhtl.com/uploads/7/1/6/3/7163688/article_14_vol_8_4__2019_thailand.pdf

Chami, M. F. (2018). Impact of cultural heritage site attributes to the tourist satisfaction in Zanzibar Stone Town, UNESCO World Heritage Site, Tanzania. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism, and Leisure*, *7*(3), 1–13. https://www.ajhtl.com/uploads/7/1/6/3/7163688/article_40_vol_7_3__2018.pdf

Chandra Bagri, S., & Kala, D. (2015). Tourists' satisfaction at Trijuginarayan, India: An importance-performance analysis. *Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Research (AHTR)*, *3*(2), 89–115. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/291973613

Chandralal, L., & Valenzuela, F.-R. (2013). Exploring memorable tourism experiences: Antecedents and behavioural outcomes. *Journal of Economics, Business and Management*, 177–181. https://doi.org/10.7763/joebm.2013.v1.38

Chen, C. F. (2008). Investigating structural relationships between service quality, perceived value, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions for air passengers: Evidence from Taiwan. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, *42*(4), 709–717. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tra.2008.01.007

Chen, C. F., & Chen, F. S. (2010a). Experience quality, perceived value, satisfaction and behavioral intentions for heritage tourists. *Tourism Management*, *31*(1), 29–35. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2009.02.008

Chen, C. F., & Chen, P. C. (2010b). Resident attitudes towards heritage tourism development. *Tourism Geographies: An International Journal of Tourism Space, Place and Environment*, *12*(4), 525–545. https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2010.516398

Chen, C. F., & Tsai, D. C. (2007). How destination image and evaluative factors affect behavioral intentions? *Tourism Management*, *28*(4), 1115–1122. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2006.07.007

Chen, C. M., Chen, S. H., & Lee, H. T. (2010). Assessing destination image through combining tourist cognitive perceptions with destination resources. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, *11*(1), 59–75. https://doi.org/10.1080/15256480903539628

Chen, M. F., & Tung, P. J. (2014). Developing an extended theory of planned behavior model to predict consumers' intention to visit green hotels. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *36*, 221–230. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2013.09.006

Chen, Y., Liu, G., & Zhuang, T. (2023). Evaluating the comprehensive benefit of urban renewal projects on the area scale: An integrated method. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *20*(1). https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph20010606

Cheng, T. M., & Lu, C. C. (2013). Destination image, novelty, hedonics, perceived value, and revisiting behavioral intention for island tourism. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *18*(7), 766–783. https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2012.697906

Chhabra, D. (2008). Social exchange theory in resort and non-resort casino settings. *Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, *19*(1), 155–160. https://doi.org/10.1080/13032917.2008.9687060

Chiabai, A., Paskaleva, K., & Lombardi, P. (2013). e-Participation model for sustainable cultural tourism management: A bottom-up approach. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *15*(1), 35–51. https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.871

Chiu, R. L. H. (2004). Socio-cultural sustainability of housing: A conceptual exploration. *Housing, Theory and Society*, *21*(2), 65–76. https://doi.org/10.1080/14036090410014999

Choi, H. C., & Murray, I. (2010). Resident attitudes toward sustainable community tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *18*(4), 575–594. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669580903524852

Chuang, S. T. (2010). Rural tourism: Perspectives from social exchange theory. *Social Behavior and Personality*, *38*(10), 1313–1322. https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2010.38.10.1313

Cochran, W. G. (1991). *Sampling Techniques, 3rd Edition*. https://www.wiley.com/en-us/Sampling+Techniques%2C+3rd+Edition-p-9780471162407#download-product-flyer

Cohen, B. H. (2008). *Explaining Psychological Statistics*. John Wiley & Sons. https://books.google.co.in/books/about/Explaining_Psychological_Statistics.html?id=xWENVdl6D0YC&redir_esc=y

Cohen, E. (1979). A phenomenology of tourist experiences. *Sociology*, *13*(2), 179–201. https://doi.org/10.1177/003803857901300203

Cohen, E. (1988). Authenticity and commoditization in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *15*, 371–386. https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(88)90028-X

Cohen, E., & Cohen, S. A. (2012). Authentication: Hot and cool. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *39*(3), 1295–1314. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2012.03.004

Collins-Kreiner, N., & Wall, G. (2007). Evaluating tourism potential: A SWOT analysis of the Western Negev, Israel. *Tourism: An International Interdisciplinary Journal*, *55*, 51–63. https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Noga-Collins-Kreiner/publication/294837793_Evaluating_tourism_potential_A_SWOT_analysis_of_the_Western_Negev_Israel/links/5fa95ed2a6fdcc062420399a/Evaluating-tourism-potential-A-SWOT-analysis-of-the-Western-Negev-Israel.pdf

Connelly, S. (2007). Mapping sustainable development as a contested concept. *Local Environment*, *12*(3), 259–278. https://doi.org/10.1080/13549830601183289

Cooper, C., & Hall, C. M. (2007). *Contemporary tourism: An international approach* (First Edition). London: Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780080554990

Cooper, E. A. (2020). Cultural centres: A future for cultural Arctic tourism? *Journal of Tourism Futures*, *6*(1), 57–69. https://doi.org/10.1108/JTF-01-2019-0007

Coronado, G. (2014). Selling culture? Between commoditisation and cultural control in Indigenous alternative tourism. *PASOS Revista de Turismo y Patrimonio Cultural*, *12*(1), 11–28. https://doi.org/10.25145/j.pasos.2014.12.002

Council of Europe. (1997). *In from the margins. A contribution to the debate on culture and development in Europe*. The European Task Force on Culture and Development. Council of Europe Publishing. https://rm.coe.int/0900001680085bfc

Croes, R., & Semrad, K. J. (2015). The Relevance of cultural tourism as the next frontier for small island destinations. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *39*(4), 469–491. https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348013491599

Crompton, J. L. (1979). Motivation for pleasure vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 408–424. https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(79)90004-5

Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika*, *16*(3), 297–334. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02310555

Cuccia, T., & Rizzo, I. (2011). Tourism seasonality in cultural destinations: Empirical evidence from Sicily. *Tourism Management*, *32*(3), 589–595. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2010.05.008

Culver, L. (2011). Cultural tourism and sustainable local development. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, *9*(1), 45–48. https://doi.org/10.1080/14766825.2010.540370

Curran, P. J., West, S. G., & Finch, J. F. (1996). The robustness of test statistics to nonnormality and specification error in confirmatory factor analysis. *Psychological Methods*, *1*(1), 16–29. https://doi.org/10.1037/1082-989X.1.1.16

D'Angella, F., Friel, M., Miglietta, A., & Sainaghi, R. (2021). Cultural events for a sustainable tourism development in urban destinations: The case of Milan's week. *Sinergie- Haltan Journal of Management*, *39*(1), 103–124. https://doi.org/10.7433/S114.2021.07

De Souza, T. R. (1990). *Goa through the ages: An economic history: Vol. II*. Concept Publishing Company. http://irgu.unigoa.ac.in/drs/bitstream/handle/unigoa/281/Goa_Through_Ages_1990_1-54.pdf?sequence=1

Deb Burman, P., Cajee, L., & Laloo, D. D. (2007). Potential for cultural and eco-tourism in North East India: A community-based approach. *WIT Transactions on Ecology and the Environment*, *102*, 715–724. https://doi.org/10.2495/SDP070692

Debeş, T. (2011). Cultural tourism: A neglected dimension of tourism industry. *Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, *22*(2), 234–251. https://doi.org/10.1080/13032917.2011.593910

Deccio, C., & Baloglu, S. (2002). Nonhost community resident reactions to the 2002 winter olympics: The spillover impacts. *Journal of Travel Research*, *41*(1), 46–56. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287502041001006

Demirel, O. (2004). A research on the determination of the tourism potential of natural and cultural resources at Çoruh watershed area (Yusufeli Region): A case study. *Journal of Applied Sciences*, *4*(3), 456–460. https://doi.org/10.3923/jas.2004.456.460

Deng, J., King, B., & Bauer, T. (2002). Evaluating natural attractions for tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *29*(2), 422–438. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(01)00068-8

Dessein, J., Soini, K., Fairclough, G., & Horlings, L. (2015). *Culture in, for and as sustainable development: Conclusions from the cost action IS1007 investigating cultural sustainability*. University of Jyväskylä, Finland. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/283273104_Culture_in_for_and_as_Sustainable_Development_Conclusions_from_the_COST_ACTION_IS1007_Investigating_Cultural_Sustainability

Devesa, M., Laguna, M., & Palacios, A. (2010). The role of motivation in visitor satisfaction: Empirical evidence in rural tourism. *Tourism Management*, *31*(4), 547–552. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2009.06.006

Dick, W., & Hagerty, N. (1971). *Topics in measurement: Reliability and validity*. McGraw-Hill, 330 West 42nd Street, New York. https://books.google.co.in/books?id=afYgAAAAMAAJ

Diniz, S. R., Falleiro, S. P., Maria, M., & De Barros, M. (2014). Local residents' perception of the psycho-social and economic impact of tourism in Goa. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, *4*(11), 1–8. https://www.ijsrp.org/research-paper-1114.php?rp=P353334

Doganer, S., & Dupont, W. (2013). Cultural heritage tourism and authenticity: San Antonio missions historic district. *WIT Transactions on the Built Environment*, *131*, 15–27. https://doi.org/10.2495/STR130021

Dogru, T., Sirakaya-Turk, E., & Crouch, G. I. (2017). Remodeling international tourism demand: Old theory and new evidence. *Tourism Management*, *60*, 47–55. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.11.010

Domínguez-Quintero, A. M., González-Rodríguez, M. R., & Paddison, B. (2018). The mediating role of experience quality on authenticity and satisfaction in the context of cultural-heritage tourism. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *23*(2), 248–260. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2018.1502261

Doshi, S. (1983). *Goa: Cultural patterns*. Bombay Marg Publications. http://library.unigoa.ac.in/cgi-bin/koha/opac-detail.pl?biblionumber=77147

DPSE. (2023a). *Goa At A Glance (GAAG)*. https://www.dpse.goa.gov.in/Goa-at-a-Glance-2023.pdf

DPSE. (2023b). *Goa Economy in Figures*. https://www.goa.gov.in/wp-content/uploads/2023/09/Goa-Economy-in-Figures-2023.pdf

DPSE. (2023c). *Statistical hand book of Goa*. https://www.goa.gov.in/wp-content/uploads/2023/11/SHB-2021-22.pdf

D'Souza Clyde. (2021). *Susegad: The Goan art of contentment*. https://books.google.co.in/books?id=WX4fEAAAQBAJ&printsec=frontcover&dq=Goa&hl=en&newbks=1&newbks_redir=0&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwj-o9DZwfmJAxWV5TQHHZzKAgg4HhDoAXoECAwQAg#v=onepage&q=Goa&f=false

Du Cros, H. (2001). A new model to assist in planning for sustainable cultural heritage tourism. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *3*(2), 165–170. https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.297

Ducros, H. B. (2016). Confronting sustainable development in two rural heritage valorization models. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *25*(3), 327–343. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2016.1206552

Dyer, P., Gursoy, D., Sharma, B., & Carter, J. (2007). Structural modeling of resident perceptions of tourism and associated development on the Sunshine Coast, Australia. *Tourism Management*, *28*(2), 409–422. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2006.04.002

Eckstein, H. (1996). Culture as a foundation concept for the social sciences. *Journal of Theoretical Politics*, *8*(4), 471–497. https://doi.org/10.1177/0951692896008004003

Emerson, R. M. (1962). Power-dependence relations. *American Sociological Review*, *27*(1), 31–41. https://doi.org/https://www.jstor.org/stable/2089716

Empacher, C., & Wehlung, P. (2002). *Soziale dimensionen der nachhaltigkeit*. Frankfurt am Main: ISOE-Studientexte. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/318632715_Soziale_Dimensionen_der_Nachhaltigkeit

Enrique Bign, J., Isabel, M. S., Jose, J., & Piqueras, R. (2001). Tourism image, evaluation variables and after purchase behaviour: Inter-relationship. *Tourism Management*, *22*, 607–616. https://doi.org/10.1016/S2061-517700035-8

Esfehani, M. H., & Albrecht, J. N. (2016). Roles of intangible cultural heritage in tourism in natural protected areas. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *13*(1), 15–29. https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2016.1245735

Eslami, S., Khalifah, Z., Mardani, A., Streimikiene, D., & Han, H. (2019). Community attachment, tourism impacts, quality of life, and residents' support for sustainable tourism development. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *36*(9), 1061–1079. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2019.1689224

European Centre for Traditional and Regional Cultures (ECTARC). (1989). *Contribution to the drafting of a charter for cultural tourism (tourism and the environment): A report of directorate general XI, Commission of the European Communities.* Wales: ECTARC. https://resourcecentre.tourism.gov.my:8080/webopac/Record/0000004315

Ezenagu, N. (2020). Heritage resources as a driver for cultural tourism in Nigeria. In *Cogent Arts and Humanities* (Vol. 7, Issue 1). Cogent OA. https://doi.org/10.1080/23311983.2020.1734331

Ezeuduji, O., & Mhlongo, P. S. (2019). Tourists' perceptions of a destination brand image: KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, *8*(4), 1–11. https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Ikechukwu-Ezeuduji/publication/335429665_Tourists%27_perceptions_of_a_destination_brand_Image_KwaZulu-Natal_South_Africa/links/5d652de7458515d61027cd8d/Tourists-perceptions-of-a-destination-brand-Image-KwaZulu-Natal-South-Africa.pdf

Ezeuduji, O., & Mlambo, S. S. (2019). Tourists' profile and perceptions of a destination brand essence: KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, *8*(4), 1–12. https://www.ajhtl.com/uploads/7/1/6/3/7163688/article_75_vol_8_4__2019_unizul.pdf

Farsani, N. T., Coelho, C., & Costa, C. (2011). Geotourism and geoparks as novel strategies for socio-economic development in rural areas. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *13*, 68–81. https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr

Ferreira, D., & Perks, S. (2020). A dimensional framework of tourism indicators influencing destination competitiveness. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, *9*(3), 1–21. https://doi.org/10.46222/ajhtl.19770720-1

Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics* (Fourth Edition). Sage Publications Ltd. https://us.sagepub.com/sites/default/files/upm-binaries/52063_00_Field_4e_SPSS_Prelims.pdf

Fielding, K. S., McDonald, R., & Louis, W. R. (2008). Theory of planned behaviour, identity and intentions to engage in environmental activism. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, *28*(4), 318–326. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvp.2008.03.003

Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention, and behavior: An Introduction to theory and research*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley. https://books.google.co.in/books?id=8o0QAQAAIAAJ

Fornell, C., & Larcker F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *18*(1), 39–50. https://doi.org/10.2307/3151312

Gabriel Brida, J., Disegna, M., & Osti, L. (2014). Residents' perceptions of tourism impacts and attitudes towards tourism policies. *Tourismos: An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism*, *9*(1), 37–71. http://eprints.bournemouth.ac.uk/23270/

Galí Espelt, N., & Donaire Benito, J. A. (2005). The social construction of the image of Girona: A methodological approach. *Tourism Management*, *26*(5), 777–785. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2004.04.004

Galí-Espelt, N. (2012). Identifying cultural tourism: A theoretical methodological proposal. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *7*(1), 45–58. https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2011.632480

Gandhi, M. (1968). The selected works of Mahatma Gandhi: The voice of truth. In *Shriman Narayan, Printed: Vol. V*. Navajivan Publishing House Ahmedabad 380014, India. https://www.mkgandhi.org/voiceoftruth/voiceoftruth.php

Gani, A. A., Mahdzar, M., Asmalina, N., & Anuar, M. (2019). Visitor's experiential attributes and revisit intention to Islamic tourism attractions in Malaysia. *Journal of Tourism, Hospitality & Culinary Arts*, *11*(1), 1–12. https://ir.uitm.edu.my/id/eprint/29256

Gannon, M., Rasoolimanesh, S. M., & Taheri, B. (2020). Assessing the mediating role of residents' perceptions toward tourism development. *Journal of Travel Research*, *60*(1), 1–23. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287519890926

Gaonkar, S., & Sukthankar, S. V. (2024a). A factor-cluster approach in assessing residents' perceptions towards sustainable rural tourism development. *Latin American Journal of Tourismology*, *10*(Regular), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.13629785

Gaonkar, S., & Sukthankar, S. V. (2024b). Mapping the behavioral intentions of tourists to revisit cultural destinations: A bibliometric analysis. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, *13*(2), 274–284. https://doi.org/10.46222/ajhtl.19770720.507

Garrod, B., & Fyall, A. (1998). Beyond the rhetoric of sustainable tourism? *Tourism Management*, *19*(3), 199–212. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(98)00013-2

Garrod, B., & Fyall, A. (2000). Managing heritage tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *27*(3), 682–708. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(99)00094-8

Geertz, C. (1966). The impact of the concept of culture on the concept of man. *Bulletin of the Atomic Scientists*, *22*(4), 2–8. https://doi.org/10.1080/00963402.1966.11454918

Geertz, C. (1974). "From the native's point of view": On the nature of anthropological understanding. *Bulletin of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences*, *28*(1), 26–45. https://doi.org/10.2307/3822971

Gemar, G., Soler, I. P., & Villar, H. (2019). Analysis of cultural distance's influence on intentions to visit Spain as a tourist destination. *Tourism and Management Studies*, *15*(2), 21–31. https://doi.org/10.18089/tms.2019.150202

George, D., & Mallery, P. (2010). *SPSS for windows step by step: A simple guide and reference*. 17.0 update (10a ed.) Boston: Pearson. https://books.google.co.in/books/about/SPSS_for_Windows_Step_by_Step.html?id=AghHAAAAMAAJ&redir_esc=y

George, D., & Mallery, P. (2019). Reliability analysis. In *IBM SPSS Statistics 26 Step by Step: A Simple Guide and Reference* (16th Edition, pp. 1–12). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429056765

Ghirardello, L., Walder, M., de Rachewiltz, M., & Erschbamer, G. (2022). Cultural sustainability from the local perspective: The example of Transhumance in South Tyrol. *Sustainability*, *14*(15). https://doi.org/10.3390/su14159052

Ghorbanzade, D., Mehrani, H., & Rahehagh, A. (2019). The effect of experience quality on behavioral intentions of domestic tourists in visiting water parks. *Cogent Business and Management*, *6*(1). https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2019.1580843

Girard, L. F., & Nijkamp, P. (2009). *Cultural tourism and sustainable local development* (First Edition). London: Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315258720

Gogitidze, G., Nadareishvili, N., Harun, R., Arion, I. D., & Muresan, I. C. (2023). Exploring residents' perceptions towards tourism development—A case study of the Adjara Mountain Area. *Sustainability*, *15*(1). https://doi.org/10.3390/su15010492

Gokhale, K., Sawant, N., & Ugavekar, N. (2014). Goa: Tourism and socio-cultural implications a study of selected tourist destination of South Goa District, Goa-India. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science (IOSR-JHSS)*, *19*(10), 36–41. https://www.iosrjournals.org/iosr-jhss/papers/Vol19-issue10/Version-1/E0191013641.pdf

Goldberg, V. P. (1980). Relational exchange: Economics and complex contracts. *American Behavioral Scientist*, *23*(3), 337–352. https://doi.org/10.1177/000276428002300304

Gomantak Times. (2024a). *Goa Festival: Goa Goa's tourism department wants to tap the potential of festivals*.

https://www.gomantaktimes.com/news/goa/goas-tourism-department-wants-to-tap-the-potential-of-festivals

Gomantak Times. (2024b). *Goa govt joins hands with MakeMyTrip to boost tourism in Goa*. https://www.gomantaktimes.com/news/goa/goa-govt-joins-hands-with-makemytrip-to-boost-tourism-in-goa

Gomantak Times. (2024c). *Stakeholders call for heritage tourism in Goa*. https://www.gomantaktimes.com/news/goa/stakeholders-call-for-heritage-tourism-in-goa

Govers, R., Go, F. M., & Kumar, K. (2007). Promoting tourism destination image. *Journal of Travel Research*, *46*(1), 15–23. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287507302374

Grafenauer, B. (2015). Potential of heritage as the basis for the development of town tourism- The case of Skofja Loka. *Turističko Poslovanje*, *2015*(15), 75–85. https://doi.org/10.5937/TurPos1515075G

Griethuijsen, R. A. L. F. van, van Eijck, M. W., Haste, H., den Brok, P. J., Skinner, N. C., Mansour, N., Gencer, A. S., & BouJaoude, S. (2015). Global patterns in students' views of science and interest in science. *Research in Science Education*, *45*(4), 581–603. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11165-014-9438-6

Guizzardi, A., & Mazzocchi, M. (2010). Tourism demand for Italy and the business cycle. *Tourism Management*, *31*(3), 367–377. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2009.03.017

Guo, Y., Kim, S., & Chen, Y. (2013). Shanghai residents' perceptions of tourism impacts and quality of life. *Journal of China Tourism Research*, *10*(2), 142–164. https://doi.org/10.1080/19388160.2013.849639

Gupta, P. (2014). *The relic state - St Francis Xavier and the politics of rituals in Portuguese, India*. Manchester University Press, Manchester and New York. https://doi.org/10.7228/manchester/9780719090615.001.0001

Gursoy, D., Jurowski, C., & Uysal, M. (2002). Resident attitudes: A structural modeling approach. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *29*(1), 79–105. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(01)00028-7

Gursoy, D., & Kendall, K. W. (2006). Hosting mega events: Modeling locals' support. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *33*(3), 603–623. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2006.01.005

Gursoy, D., & Rutherford, D. G. (2004). Host attitudes toward tourism: An improved structural model. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *31*(3), 495–516. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2003.08.008

Guzman, A., Heinen, J., & Sah, J. (2020). Evaluating the conservation attitudes, awareness and knowledge of residents towards Vieques National Wildlife Refuge, Puerto Rico. *Conservation and Society*, *18*(1), 13. https://doi.org/10.4103/cs.cs_19_46

Haarhoff, R. (2018). Tourist perceptions of factors influencing destination image: A case study of selected Kimberley resorts. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, *7*(4), 1–21. https://www.ajhtl.com/uploads/7/1/6/3/7163688/article_27_vol_7_4__2018.pdf

Haigh, M. (2020). Cultural tourism policy in developing regions: The case of Sarawak, Malaysia. *Tourism Management*, *81*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2020.104166

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2013). *Multivariate data analysis* (Seventh Edition). Pearson Education Limited. https://books.google.co.in/books?id=VvXZnQEACAAJ

Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2011). PLS-SEM: Indeed a silver bullet. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, *19*(2), 139–152. https://doi.org/10.2753/MTP1069-6679190202

Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2013). Partial least squares structural equation modeling: Rigorous applications, better results and higher acceptance. *Long Range Planning*, *46*(1–2), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lrp.2013.01.001

Hair, J. F., Sarstedt, M., Hopkins, L., & Kuppelwieser, V. G. (2014). Partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM): An emerging tool in business research. *European Business Review*, *26*(2), 106–121. https://doi.org/10.1108/EBR-10-2013-0128

Hair, J. F., Sarstedt, M., Matthews, L. M., & Ringle, C. M. (2016). Identifying and treating unobserved heterogeneity with FIMIX-PLS: Part I – method. *European Business Review*, *28*(1), 63–76. https://doi.org/10.1108/EBR-09-2015-0094

Hair, J. F., Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C. M., & Mena, J. A. (2012). An assessment of the use of partial least squares structural equation modeling in marketing research. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *40*(3), 414–433. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-011-0261-6

Halder, S., & Sarda, R. (2021). Promoting intangible cultural heritage (ICH) tourism: Strategy for socioeconomic development of snake charmers (India) through geoeducation, geotourism and geoconservation. *International Journal of Geoheritage and Parks*, *9*(2), 212–232. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijgeop.2021.02.008

Halewood, C., & Hannam, K. (2001). Viking heritage tourism: Authenticity and commodification. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *28*(3), 565–580. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(00)00076-1

Hamid, A. H. A., Mohamad, M. R., & Suki, N. M. (2020). Tourists' revisit intention to UNESCO world heritage sites in a developing nation: Investigating the mediating role of place dependence. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *27*(2), 119–132. https://doi.org/10.1177/1356766720969739

Han, H., Hsu, L. T. (Jane), & Sheu, C. (2010). Application of the theory of planned behavior to green hotel choice: Testing the effect of environmental friendly activities. *Tourism Management*, *31*(3), 325–334. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2009.03.013

Han, H., & Kim, Y. (2010). An investigation of green hotel customers' decision formation: Developing an extended model of the theory of planned behavior. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *29*(4), 659–668. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2010.01.001

Han, H., Lee, S., & Lee, C. K. (2011). Extending the theory of planned behavior: Visa exemptions and the traveller decision-making process. *Tourism Geographies*, *13*(1), 45–74. https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2010.529930

Hanafiah, M. H., Jamaluddin, M. R., & Zulkifly, M. I. (2013). Local community attitude and support towards tourism development in Tioman Island, Malaysia. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *105*, 792–800. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.11.082

Hasan, K., Abdullah, S. K., Islam, F., & Neela, N. M. (2020). An integrated model for examining tourists' revisit intention to beach tourism destinations. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism*, *21*(6), 716–737. https://doi.org/10.1080/1528008X.2020.1740134

Hasan, M. K., Abdullah, S. K., Lew, T. Y., & Islam, M. F. (2019). The antecedents of tourist attitudes to revisit and revisit intentions for coastal tourism. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism, and Hospitality Research*, *13*(2), 218–234. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCTHR-11-2018-0151

Hawkes, J. (2001). *The fourth pillar of sustainability: Culture's essential role in public planning*. Common Ground Publishing Pty Ltd in association with the Cultural Development Network (Vic). https://www.researchgate.net/publication/200029531

Haynes, S. N., Richard, D. C. S., & Kuabany, E. S. (1995). Content validity in psychological assessment: A functional approach to concepts and methods. *Psychological Assessment*, *7*(3), 238–247. https://doi.org/10.1037/1040-3590.7.3.238

Heldt Cassel, S., & Miranda Maureira, T. (2015). Performing identity and culture in Indigenous tourism– A study of indigenous communities in Québec, Canada. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, *15*(1), 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1080/14766825.2015.1125910

Henkel, R., Henkel, P., Agrusa, W., Agrusa, J., & Tanner, J. (2006). Thailand as a tourist destination: Perceptions of international visitors and Thai residents. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *11*(3), 269–287. https://doi.org/10.1080/10941660600753299

Henly, S. J. (1993). Robustness of some estimators for the analysis of covariance structures. *British Journal of Mathematical and Statistical Psychology*, *46*(2), 313–338. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8317.1993.tb01019.x

Henn, A. (2009). Hindu traditions in Goa. *Encyclopedia of Hinduism*, *1*, 249–254. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/299437344_1_Hindu_Traditions_in_Goa_in_Encyclopedia_of_Hinduism_vol_I_ed_Knut_A_Jacobson_Leyden_2009_Brill_pp249-254

Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2015). A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *43*(1), 115–135. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-014-0403-8

Hofstede, G., & Hofstede, G. J. (2005). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind*. Third Millennium Edition. McGraw-Hill. https://research.wur.nl/en/publications/cultures-and-organizations-software-of-the-mind-third-millennium-

Holster, J. D. (2022). *Introduction to R for Data Science: A LISA 2020 Guidebook*. Laboratory for Interdisciplinary Statistical Analysis. https://bookdown.org/jdholster1/idsr/

Homans, G. C. (1958). Social behavior as exchange. *American Journal of Sociology*, *63*(6), 597–606. https://doi.org/10.1086/222355

Homans, G. C. (1961). *Social behavior: Its elementary forms*. Oxford University Press, Harcourt, Brace. https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1962-06277-000

Hosany, S., & Witham, M. (2010). Dimensions of cruisers' experiences, satisfaction, and intention to recommend. *Journal of Travel Research*, *49*(3), 351–364. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287509346859

Hsieh, C. M., Park, S. H., & McNally, R. (2016). Application of the extended theory of planned behavior to intention to travel to Japan among Taiwanese youth: Investigating the moderating effect of past visit experience. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *33*(5), 717–729. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2016.1167387

Hsu, C. H. C., Cai, L. A., & Li, M. (2010). Expectation, motivation, and attitude: A tourist behavioral model. *Journal of Travel Research*, *49*(3), 282–296. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287509349266

Hsu, C. H. C., & Huang, S. (2010). An extension of the theory of planned behavior model for tourists. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *36*(3), 390–417. https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348010390817

Hsu, T. K., Tsai, Y. F., & Wu, H. H. (2009). The preference analysis for tourist choice of destination: A case study of Taiwan. *Tourism Management*, *30*(2), 288–297. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2008.07.011

Huang, S., & Hsu, C. H. C. (2005). Mainland Chinese residents' perceptions and motivations of visiting Hong Kong: Evidence from focus group interviews. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *10*(2), 191–205. https://doi.org/10.1080/10941660500135977

Huang, S., & Hsu, C. H. C. (2009). Effects of travel motivation, past experience, perceived constraint, and attitude on revisit intention. *Journal of Travel Research*, *48*(1), 29–44. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287508328793

Huete Alcocer, N., & López Ruiz, V. R. (2019). The role of destination image in tourist satisfaction: The case of a heritage site. *Economic Research- Ekonomska Istrazivanja, 33*(1), 2444–2461. https://doi.org/10.1080/1331677X.2019.1654399

Hughes, H., & Allen, D. (2005). Cultural tourism in Central and Eastern Europe: The views of "induced image formation agents." *Tourism Management*, *26*(2), 173–183. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2003.08.021

Hughes, H. L. (2002). Culture and tourism: A framework for further analysis. *Managing Leisure*, *7*(3), 164–175. https://doi.org/10.1080/1360671022000013701

Hung, W. L., Lee, Y. J., & Huang, P. H. (2014). Creative experiences, memorability and revisit intention in creative tourism. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *19*(8), 763–770. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2013.877422

Hunziker, W., & Krapf, K. (1942). *Grundriss der allgemeinen Fremdenverkehrslehre* (Vol. 1). Polygraphischer Verlag. https://books.google.co.in/books/about/Grundriss_der_allgemeinen_Fremdenverkehr.html?id=zYW0MAAACAAJ&redir_esc=y

Huong, P. M., & Lee, J. H. (2017). Finding important factors affecting local residents' support for tourism development in Ba Be National Park, Vietnam. *Forest Science and Technology*, *13*(3), 126–132. https://doi.org/10.1080/21580103.2017.1354337

Huttasin, N. (2008). Perceived social impacts of tourism by residents in the OTOP tourism village, Thailand. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *13*(2), 175–191. https://doi.org/10.1080/10941660802048498

I.A. Mikhailidi. (2014). Using GIS for assessing tourism potential of the Altai mountainous area. *Himalayan and Central Asian Studies*, *18*(3–4), 259–266. http://www.himalayanresearch.org/pdf/Vol18%20Nos3-4.pdf

Iacobucci, D. (2010). Structural equations modeling: Fit indices, sample size, and advanced topics. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *20*(1), 90–98. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcps.2009.09.003

IBEF. (2024). *Goa state report*. https://www.ibef.org/states/goa

ICOMOS. (1976). *Australia ICOMOS heritage toolkit: Cultural tourism*. Retrived. 20th March 2023. https://australia.icomos.org/resources/australia-icomos-heritage-toolkit/cultural-tourism/

Icoz, O., Selin Yilmaz, B., & Oter, Z. (2008). Developing new cultural tourism destination in Turkey: An integrative approach between travel agencies, local community and tourists. *International Tourism Conference, Alanya-Turkey*, 158–165. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/309418613

Io, M. U. (2011). Can the historic center of Macao be a popular tourist attraction? Examining the market appeal from tour marketers' perspective. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism*, *12*(1), 58–72. https://doi.org/10.1080/1528008X.2011.541811

Iso-Ahola, S. E. (1982). Toward a social psychological theory of tourism motivation: A rejoinder. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 250–262. https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(82)90049-4

Jaafar, M., Ismail, S., & Rasoolimanesh, M. (2015). Perceived social effects of tourism development: A case study of Kinabalu National Park. *Theoretical and Empirical Researches in Urban Management*, *10*(2), 5–20. https://doi.org/10.2307/24873524

Jaafar, M., Noor, S. M., & Rasoolimanesh, M. (2015). Perception of young local residents toward sustainable conservation programmes: A case study of the Lenggong world cultural heritage site. *Tourism Management*, *48*, 154–163. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.10.018

Jaafar, M., Rasoolimanesh, M., & Ismail, S. (2017). Perceived sociocultural impacts of tourism and community participation. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, *17*(2), 123–134. https://doi.org/10.2307/26366517

Jackowitz, L., Latkova, P., Tierney, P., & Strebel, J. (2016). Understanding coastal tourists' behavioral intentions toward nature-based experiences. *Journal of Tourism Insights*, *7*(1), 1–25. https://doi.org/10.9707/2328-0824.1063

Jalilvand, M. R., & Samiei, N. (2012). The impact of electronic word of mouth on a tourism destination choice: Testing the theory of planned behavior (TPB). *Internet Research*, *22*(5), 591–612. https://doi.org/10.1108/10662241211271563

Jamal, T., Camargo, B., Sandlin, J., & Segrado, R. (2010). Tourism and cultural sustainability: Towards an eco-cultural justice for place and people. *Tourism Recreation Research*, *35*(3), 269–279. https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2010.11081643

Jamal, T., & Stronza, A. (2008). 'Dwelling' with ecotourism in the Peruvian Amazon: Cultural relationships in local-global spaces. *Tourist Studies*, *8*(3), 313–335. https://doi.org/10.1177/1468797608100593

Jani, D. (2018). Residents' perception of tourism impacts in Kilimanjaro: An integration of the social exchange theory. *Tourism: An International Interdisciplinary Journal*, *66*(2), 148–160. https://hrcak.srce.hr/202744

Jauro, T. I., Rampedi, I. T., & Ifegbesan, A. P. (2019). An exploratory survey on satisfaction levels amongst tourists in the Vhembe Biosphere Reserve. *Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, *8*(Special Edition), 1–13. https://www.ajhtl.com/uploads/7/1/6/3/7163688/article_15_special_edition_cut_2019.pdf

Jeong Yun, H., & Zhang, X. (2017). Cultural conservation and residents' attitudes about ethnic minority tourism. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, *17*(2), 165–175. https://doi.org/10.2307/26366520

Jimura, T. (2011). The impact of world heritage site designation on local communities - A case study of Ogimachi, Shirakawa-mura, Japan. *Tourism Management*, *32*(2), 288–296. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2010.02.005

Jolliffe, L. (2014). *Spice and tourism: Destination, attraction and cuisines* (Vol. 8). Channel View Publication. https://books.google.co.in/books/about/Spices_and_Tourism.html?id=viDpAwAAQBAJ&redir_esc=y

Jönsson, C., & Devonish, D. (2008). Does nationality, gender, and age affect travel motivation? A case of visitors to the Caribbean Island of Barbados. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *25*(3–4), 398–408. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548400802508499

Jovicic, D. (2016). Cultural tourism in the context of relations between mass and alternative tourism. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *19*(6), 605–612. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2014.932759

Jurowski, C., & Gursoy, D. (2004). Distance effects on residents' attitudes toward tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *31*(2), 296–312. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2003.12.005

Kandolkar, Vishvesh. P. (2024). *Goa's Bom Jesus as visual culture: The Basilica's architecture, image, history and identity* (First Edition). Taylor & Francis Group, Routledge India. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003558064

Katemliadis, I., & Markatos, G. (2021). Stakeholders' involvement in sustainability planning and implementation: the case of Cyprus. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, *13*(6), 709–718. https://doi.org/10.1108/WHATT-07-2021-0095

Kaur, S., & Kaur, M. (2019). Behavioral intentions of heritage tourists: Influential variables on recommendations to visit. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *15*(5), 511–532. https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2019.1692852

Kausar, D. R. K., & Gunawan, M. P. (2018). Managing heritage tourism in Toraja: strengthening local values and improving tourists' experiences. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *13*(6), 550–561. https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2017.1411356

Kean Hua, A. (2018). Highlands sustainable development and tourist's satisfaction: A grounded model study. *Journal of Tourism, Hospitality & Culinary Arts (JTHCA) 2018*, *10*(2), 12–22. https://ir.uitm.edu.my/id/eprint/65303

Kelly, J. R. (1994). The symbolic interaction metaphor and leisure: Critical challenges. *Leisure Studies*, *13*(2), 81–96. https://doi.org/10.1080/02614369400390061

Kempiak, J., Hollywood, L., Bolan, P., & McMahon-Beattie, U. (2017). The heritage tourist: An understanding of the visitor experience at heritage attractions. *International Journal of Heritage Studies*, *23*(4), 375–392. https://doi.org/10.1080/13527258.2016.1277776

Kerlinger, F. N. (1973). *Foundations of behavioral research* (Second Edition). New York: Holt, Reinhart and Winston. https://openlibrary.org/books/OL5308250M/Foundations_of_behavioral_research

Kerstetter, D., & Cho, M. H. (2004). Prior knowledge, credibility, and information search. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *31*(4), 961–985. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2004.04.002

Khalid S., A. H. (2005). *Cultural sustainability: An asset of cultural tourism industry* (06/2005). https://www.researchgate.net/publication/23696873_Cultural_sustainability_an_asset_of_cultural_tourism_industry

Khalid, S., Ahmad, M. S., Ramayah, T., Hwang, J., & Kim, I. (2019). Community empowerment and sustainable tourism development: The mediating role of community support for tourism. *Sustainability*, *11*(22). https://doi.org/10.3390/su11226248

Khalifa, G. S. A. (2020). Factors affecting tourism organization competitiveness: Implications for the Egyptian tourism industry. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, *9*(3), 116–130. https://doi.org/10.46222/ajhtl.19770720-8

Khan, M. Y. H., Hossain, A., & Sarker, M. A. H. (2024). Predictors of sustainable tourism development during the post-pandemic period in Bangladesh. *Sustainability*, *16*(19). https://doi.org/10.3390/su16198333

Khizar, H. M. U., Younas, A., Kumar, S., Akbar, A., & Poulova, P. (2023). The progression of sustainable development goals in tourism: A systematic literature review of past achievements and future promises. *Journal of Innovation and Knowledge*, *8*(4). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jik.2023.100442

Kim, J. H. (2014). The antecedents of memorable tourism experiences: The development of a scale to measure the destination attributes associated with memorable experiences. *Tourism Management*, *44*, 34–45. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.02.007

Kim, J. H., Brent Ritchie, J. R., & Tung, V. W. S. (2010). The effect of memorable experience on behavioral intentions in tourism: A structural equation modeling approach. *Tourism Analysis*, *15*(6), 637–648. https://doi.org/10.3727/108354210X12904412049776

Kim, K., Uysal, M., & Sirgy, M. J. (2013). How does tourism in a community impact the quality of life of community residents? *Tourism Management*, *36*, 527–540. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.09.005

Kim, S., Whitford, M., & Arcodia, C. (2019). Development of intangible cultural heritage as a sustainable tourism resource: The intangible cultural heritage practitioners' perspectives. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *14*(5–6), 422–435. https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2018.1561703

Knutson, B. J., Beck, J. A., Kim, S., & Cha, J. (2010). Service quality as a component of the hospitality experience: Proposal of a conceptual model and framework for research. *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, *13*(1), 15–23. https://doi.org/10.1080/15378021003595889

Ko, D.-W., & Stewart, W. P. (2002). A structural equation model of residents' attitudes for tourism development. *Tourism Management*, *23*, 521–530. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(02)00006-7

Kohl, J. (2008). *Dialogues on sustainable paths for the future: Ethics, welfare and responsibility*. Finland Futures Research Centre, Turku School of Economics. https://urn.fi/URN:NBN:fi-fe2019052216687

Kothari, C. R. (2009). *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques* (Second Edition). India: New Age International Publishers. https://drive.google.com/file/d/1XBslFv864x-k2kG-gGxlc35IlDL8_3Z1/view?usp=sharing

Kotler, P., Saunders, J., & Wong, V. (2008). *Principles of marketing*. Financial Times Prentice Hall. https://books.google.co.in/books?id=6T2R0_ESU5AC

Kozak, M. (2002). Comparative analysis of tourist motivations by nationality and destinations. *Tourism Management*, *23*(3), 221–232. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(01)00090-5

Kozak, M., & Baloglu, S. (2010). *Managing and marketing tourist destinations: Strategies to gain a competitive edge* (1st Edition). Routledge, New York. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203842300

Krejcie, R., & Morgan, D. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *30*(3), 607–610. https://doi.org/10.1177/001316447003000308

Król, K. (2021). Assessment of the cultural heritage potential in Poland. *Sustainability*, *13*(12), 1–16. https://doi.org/10.3390/su13126637

Kumar Das, Dillip., & Biswas, S. Nath. (2019). *Tourism: Concepts, issues, and impacts*. Sage Publications India Pvt Ltd. https://books.google.co.in/books/about/Tourism.html?id=n5dVxgEACAAJ&redir_esc=y

Kuo, H. P., & Wu, K. L. (2013). The potential of cultural heritage tourism to promote sustainable urban development: The case of Tainan city. *Applied Mechanics and Materials*, *316–317*, 446–450. https://doi.org/10.4028/www.scientific.net/AMM.316-317.446

Kuvan, Y., & Akan, P. (2005). Residents' attitudes toward general and forest-related impacts of tourism: The case of Belek, Antalya. *Tourism Management*, *26*(5), 691–706. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2004.02.019

Laing, J., Wheeler, F., Reeves, K., & Frost, W. (2014). Assessing the experiential value of heritage assets: A case study of a Chinese heritage precinct, Bendigo, Australia. *Tourism Management*, *40*, 180–192. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.06.004

Lam, T., & Hsu, C. H. C. (2004). Theory of planned behavior: potential travelers from China. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *28*(4), 463–482. https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348004267515

Lam, T., & Hsu, C. H. C. (2006). Predicting behavioral intention of choosing a travel destination. *Tourism Management*, *27*(4), 589–599. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2005.02.003

Landorf, C. (2016). Assessing the tourism potential of an Australian industrial icon. *13th Australasian Urban History Planning History Conference*, 491–504. https://doi.org/10.25916/5c26afbca1924

Lane, B. (2008). Thirty years of sustainable tourism: Drivers, progress, problems—and the future. In *Sustainable Tourism Futures* (1st Edition, p. 14). Routledge, New York. https://www.taylorfrancis.com/chapters/edit/10.4324/9780203884256-10/thirty-years-sustainable-tourism-drivers-progress-problems%E2%80%94and-future-bernard-lane

Laroche, M., Bergeron, J., Tomiuk, M., & Barbaro-Forleo, G. (2002). Cultural differences in environmental knowledge, attitudes, and behaviours of Canadian consumers. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, *19*(3), 267–283. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1936-4490.2002.tb00272.x

Lascu, D. N., Manrai, L. A., Manrai, A. K., & Gan, A. (2018). A cluster analysis of tourist attractions in Spain: Natural and cultural traits and implications for global tourism. *European Journal of Management and Business Economics*, *27*(3), 218–230. https://doi.org/10.1108/EJMBE-08-2017-0008

Látková, P., & Vogt, C. A. (2012). Residents' attitudes toward existing and future tourism development in rural communities. *Journal of Travel Research*, *51*(1), 50–67. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287510394193

Lauesen, L. M. (2016). The role of the (Governance of the) arts in cultural sustainability: A case study of music. *Developments in Corporate Governance and Responsibility*, *9*, 49–74. https://doi.org/10.1108/S2043-052320160000009003

Lawson, F., & Baud Bovy, M. (1977). *Tourism and recreational development*. Architectural press, London. 51 Sleeper Street, Boston, MA. https://books.google.co.in/books/about/Tourism_and_recreation_development.html?id=VTYTAQAAIAAJ&redir_esc=y

Lee, C. K., Yoon, Y. S., & Lee, S. K. (2007). Investigating the relationships among perceived value, satisfaction, and recommendations: The case of the Korean D MZ. *Tourism Management*, *28*(1), 204–214. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2005.12.017

Lee, T. (2013). Influence analysis of community resident support for sustainable tourism development. *Tourism Management*, *34*, 37–46. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.03.007

Lee, T. H. (2006). Assessing a river tracing behavioural model: A Taiwan example. *Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, *17*(2), 322–328. https://doi.org/10.1080/13032917.2006.9687194

Lee, T. H. (2009). A Structural model to examine how destination image, attitude, and motivation affect the future behavior of tourists. *Leisure Sciences*, *31*(3), 215–236. https://doi.org/10.1080/01490400902837787

Lehto, X. Y., O'Leary, J. T., & Morrison, A. M. (2004). The effect of prior experience on vacation behavior. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *31*(4), 801–818. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2004.02.006

Lemmi, E., Sacco, P. L., Crociata, A., & Agovino, M. (2018). The lucca comics and games festival as a platform for transformational cultural tourism: Evidence from the perceptions of residents. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *27*, 162–173. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2018.06.005

Lenzerini, F. (2011). Intangible cultural heritage: The living culture of peoples. *European Journal of International Law*, *22*(1), 101–120. https://doi.org/10.1093/ejil/chr006

Leong, A. M. W., Yeh, S. S., Hsiao, Y. C., & Huan, T. C. T. C. (2014). Nostalgia as travel motivation and its impact on tourists' loyalty. *Journal of Business Research*, *68*(1), 81–86. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2014.05.003

Lepp, A. (2007). Residents' attitudes towards tourism in Bigodi village, Uganda. *Tourism Management*, *28*(3), 876–885. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2006.03.004

Lewis, J. E., Hilditch, J. R., & Wong, C. J. (2005). Further psychometric property development of the Menopause-Specific quality of life questionnaire and development of a modified version, MENQOL-Intervention questionnaire. *Maturitas- The European Menopause Journal*, *50*(3), 209–221. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.maturitas.2004.06.015

Li, M., & Cai, L. A. (2012). The effects of personal values on travel motivation and behavioral intention. *Journal of Travel Research*, *51*(4), 473–487. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287511418366

Li, M., Cai, L. A., & Qiu, S. (2016). A value, affective attitude, and tourist behavioral intention model. *Journal of China Tourism Research*, *12*(2), 179–195. https://doi.org/10.1080/19388160.2016.1225620

Li, Y., & Kwortnik, R. (2021). Chinese tourism to the United States: The role of perceived cultural similarity. *Journal of China Tourism Research*, *17*(3), 323–340. https://doi.org/10.1080/19388160.2020.1781724

Li, Y., & Lo, R. L. B. (2004). Applicability of the market appeal - robusticity matrix: A case study of heritage tourism. *Tourism Management*, *25*(6), 789–800. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2004.06.006

Liang, Z. X., & Hui, T. K. (2016). Residents' quality of life and attitudes toward tourism development in China. *Tourism Management*, *57*, 56–67. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.05.001

Liburd, J. J. (2007). Sustainable tourism, cultural practice and competence development for hotels and inns in Denmark. *Tourism Recreation Research*, *32*(1), 41–48. https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2007.11081522

Lindberg, K., & Johnson, R. L. (1997). Modeling resident attitudes towards tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *24*(2), 402–424. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(97)80009-6

Liro, J. (2020). Visitors' motivations and behaviours at pilgrimage centres: Push and pull perspectives. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *16*(1), 79–99. https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2020.1761820

Liska, A. E. (1984). A critical examination of the causal structure of the Fishbein/Ajzen attitude-behavior model. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, *47*(1), 61–74. https://doi.org/10.2307/3033889

Liu, B. S. C., Furrer, O., & Sudharshan, D. (2001). The relationships between culture and behavioral intentions toward services. *Journal of Service Research*, *4*(2), 118–129. https://doi.org/10.1177/109467050142004

Liu, G., & Chen, J. S. (2015). A dynamic model for managing cultural tourism. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *20*(5), 500–514. https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2014.904805

Liu, R. R., & Mcclure, P. (2001). Recognizing cross-cultural differences in consumer complaint behavior and intentions: An empirical examination. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *18*(1), 54–74. https://doi.org/10.1108/07363760110365813

Liu, S., & Shu, H. (2020). Sustainable cultural tourism and heritage conservation in China: Case studies of the ancient waterfront towns in the south of the Yangtze River. *WIT Transactions on Ecology and the Environment*, *241*, 15–26. https://doi.org/10.2495/SDP200021

Liu, Z. (2003). Sustainable tourism development: A critique. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *11*(6), 459–475. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669580308667216

Long, P. T., Perdue, R. R., & Allen, L. (1990). Rural resident tourism perceptions and attitudes by community level of tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, *28*(3), 3–9. https://doi.org/10.1177/004728759002800301

Lopes, S. D. F. (2011). Destination image: Origins, developments and implications. *PASOS. Revista de Turismo y Patrimonio Cultural*, *9*(2), 305–315. https://doi.org/10.25145/j.pasos.2011.09.027

López, M. F. B., Recuero Virto, N., Manzano, J. A., & Miranda, J. G. M. (2018). Residents' attitude as determinant of tourism sustainability: The case of Trujillo. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *35*, 36–45. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2018.02.002

López-Guzmán, T., & Santa-Cruz, F. G. (2016). Visitors' experiences with intangible cultural heritage: A case study from Córdoba, Spain. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *12*(4), 410–415. https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2016.1195834

Lu, C. Y., Dean, D., Suhartanto, D., Hussein, A. S., Suwatno, Kusdibyo, L., Chen, B. T., & Gunawan, A. I. (2020). Predicting tourist loyalty toward cultural creative attractions the moderating role of

demographic factors. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism*, *22*(3), 293–311. https://doi.org/10.1080/1528008X.2020.1773371

Lu, W., Su, Y., Su, S., Zhao, J., & Zhang, L. (2022). Perceived authenticity and experience quality in intangible cultural heritage tourism: The case of Kunqu Opera in China. *Sustainability*, *14*(5). https://doi.org/10.3390/su14052940

Luca, G. De, Dastgerdi, A. S., Francini, C., & Liberatore, G. (2020). Sustainable cultural heritage planning and management of overtourism in art cities: Lessons from atlas world heritage. *Sustainability*, *12*(9), 1–11. https://doi.org/10.3390/su12093929

Lynch, M. F., Duinker, P., Sheehan, L., & Chute, J. (2010). Sustainable Mi'kmaw cultural tourism development in Nova Scotia, Canada: Examining cultural tourist and Mi'kmaw perspectives. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *18*(4), 539–556. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669580903406605

MacCannell, D. (1999). *The tourist. A new theory of the leisure class*. University of California Press. https://books.google.co.in/books?id=6V_MQzy021QC

Mackinnon, D. P. (2008). *Introduction to statistical mediation analysis* (First Edition). Routledge, New York. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203809556

Madandola, M., & Boussaa, D. (2023). Cultural heritage tourism as a catalyst for sustainable development; the case of old Oyo town in Nigeria. *International Journal of Heritage Studies*, *29*(1–2), 21–38. https://doi.org/10.1080/13527258.2023.2169332

Madrigal, R. (1995). Personal values, traveler personality type, and leisure travel style. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *27*(2), 125–142. https://doi.org/10.1080/00222216.1995.11949738

Madrigal, R., & Kahle, L. R. (1994). Predicting vacation activity preferences on the basis of value-system segmentation. *Journal of Travel Research*, *32*(3), 22–28. https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/abs/10.1177/004728759403200304

Maitland, R. (2006). How can we manage the tourist-historic city? Tourism strategy in Cambridge, UK, 1978-2003. *Tourism Management*, *27*(6), 1262–1273. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2005.06.006

Makuzva, W., Ncedo, D., & Ntloko, J. (2018). Tourism product as a measure to determine the key elements that influence tourists' decisions to visit Victoria Falls, Zimbabwe. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, *7*(3), 1–12. https://www.ajhtl.com/uploads/7/1/6/3/7163688/article_2_vol_7_3__2018.pdf

Maleki, F., & Gholamian, A. (2020). Antecedents and consequences of ethnic tourist satisfaction: The moderating role of ethnic identity. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *15*(6), 597–611. https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2020.1712408

Malgonkar, M. (1982). *Inside Goa*. India: Directorate of Information and Publicity, Government of Goa, Daman, and Diu. https://books.google.co.in/books/about/Inside_Goa.html?id=oyBuAAAAMAAJ&redir_esc=y

Malik, M. I., & Bhat, M. S. (2015). Sustainability of tourism development in Kashmir - Is paradise lost? *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *16*, 11–21. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2015.05.006

Mamun, A., & Mitra, S. (2012). A methodology for assessing tourism potential: Case study Murshidabad district, West Bengal, India. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, *2*(9). www.ijsrp.org

Manfriani, C., Gualdani, G., Goli, G., Carlson, B., Certo, A. R., Mazzanti, P., & Fioravanti, M. (2021). The contribution of IoT to the implementation of preventive conservation according to European standards: The case study of the "cannone" violin and its historical copy. *Sustainability*, *13*(4), 1–10. https://doi.org/10.3390/su13041900

Mangwane, J., Hermann, U. P., & Lenhard, A. I. (2019). Who visits the apartheid museum and why? An exploratory study of the motivations to visit a dark tourism site in South Africa. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism, and Hospitality Research*, *13*(3), 273–287. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCTHR-03-2018-0037

Mankekar, K. (2004). *Culture and religious traditions in temples of Goa*. Publications Divisions, Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, Government of India. https://www.publicationsdivision.nic.in/index.php?route=product/product&product_id=156

Mansour, J. S. A., & Ariffin, A. A. M. (2016). The effects of local hospitality, commercial hospitality and experience quality on behavioral intention in cultural heritage tourism. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism*, *18*(2), 149–172. https://doi.org/10.1080/1528008X.2016.1169474

Manthiou, A., Kang, J., Chiang, L., & Tang, L. (Rebecca). (2015). Investigating the effects of memorable experiences: An extended model of script theory. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *33*(3), 362–379. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2015.1064055

Mapingure, C., Plessis, E. du, & Saayman, M. (2019). Travel motivations of domestic tourists: The case of Zimbabwe. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism, and Leisure*, *8*(2), 1–11. https://www.ajhtl.com/uploads/7/1/6/3/7163688/article_22_vol_8_2__2019.pdf

Maráková, V., Ďad'o, J., Táborecká-Petrovičová, J., & Rajic, T. (2018). Visitors' motivation for attending traditional cultural events as the basis for market segmentation: Evidence from Slovakia. *Acta Universitatis Agriculturae et Silviculturae Mendelianae Brunensis*, *66*(2), 543–551. https://doi.org/10.11118/actaun201866020543

Martín, H. S., de los Salmones Sánchez, M. M. G., & Herrero, Á. (2017). Residents' attitudes and behavioural support for tourism in host communities. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *35*(2), 231–243. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2017.1357518

Martín, J. M. M., Fernández, J. A. S., Martín, J. A. R., & de Dios Jiménez Aguilera, J. (2017). Assessment of the tourism's potential as a sustainable development instrument in terms of annual stability: Application to Spanish rural destinations in process of consolidation. *Sustainability*, *9*(10), 1–20. https://doi.org/10.3390/su9101692

Mason, P., & Cheyne, J. (2000). Residents' attitudes to proposed tourism development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *27*(2), 391–411. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(99)00084-5

Matei, F. D. (2015). Cultural tourism potential, as part of rural tourism development in the North-East of Romania. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, *23*(October), 453–460. https://doi.org/10.1016/s2212-5671(15)00584-5

Mathew, P. V., & Sreejesh, S. (2017). Impact of responsible tourism on destination sustainability and quality of life of community in tourism destinations. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *31*, 83–89. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2016.10.001

Matiza, T., & Slabbert, E. (2020). Exploring the place brand factors influencing tourism to South Africa. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, *9*(3), 167–182. https://doi.org/10.46222/ajhtl.19770720-11

Mawufemor, K., Eshun, G., & Tichaawa, T. M. (2019). Factors influencing choice of souvenirs by international tourists. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, *8*(5), 1–10. https://www.ajhtl.com/uploads/7/1/6/3/7163688/article_54_vol_8_5__2019_uj.pdf

Mbaiwa, J. E. (2005). The socio-cultural impacts of tourism development in the Okavango Delta, Botswana. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, *2*(3), 163–184. https://doi.org/10.1080/14766820508668662

Mccool, S. F., & Martin, S. R. (1994). Community attachment and attitudes toward tourism development. *Journal of Travel Research*, *32*(29), 29–34. https://doi.org/10.1177/004728759403200305

Mcdowall, S., & Choi, Y. (2010). A comparative analysis of Thailand residents' perception of tourism's impacts. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism*, *11*(1), 36–55. https://doi.org/10.1080/15280080903520576

McGehee, N. G., & Andereck, K. L. (2004). Factors predicting rural residents' support of tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, *43*(2), 131–140. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287504268234

McIntosh, A. J., Hinch, T., & Ingram, T. (2002). Cultural identity and tourism. *International Journal of Arts Management*, *4*(2), 39–49. https://www.jstor.org/stable/41064754?seq=1&cid=pdf-

McIntosh, R. W., & Goeldner, C. R. (1986). *Tourism: Principles, practices, philosophies* (5th Edition). Wiley, Northwestern University. https://books.google.co.in/books/about/Tourism.html?id=gVoXAQAAMAAJ&redir_esc=y

McKercher, B., & Du Cros, H. (2002). *Cultural tourism: The partnership between tourism and cultural heritage management* (1st Edition). Routledge, New York. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203479537

McKercher, B., & Ho, P. S. Y. (2006). Assessing the tourism potential of smaller cultural and heritage attractions. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *14*(5), 473–488. https://doi.org/10.2167/jost620.0

McKercher, B., Ho., P. S. Y., & Du Cros, H. (2004). Attributes of popular cultural attractions in Hong Kong. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *31*(2), 393–407. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2003.12.008

McKercher, B., Ho, P. S. Y., & Du Cros, H. (2005). Relationship between tourism and cultural heritage management: Evidence from Hong Kong. *Tourism Management*, *26*(4), 539–548. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2004.02.018

Melián-González, A., & Garcí-Falcón, J. M. (2003). Competitive potential of tourism in destinations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *30*(3), 720–740. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(03)00047-1

Milman, A. (2004). Residents' support for tourism growth in a mature destination: A chronological study of central Florida. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, *5*(4), 67–83. https://doi.org/10.1300/J149v05n04_04

Milman, A. (2015). Preserving the cultural identity of a world heritage site: The impact of Chichen Itza's souvenir vendors. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism, and Hospitality Research*, *9*(3), 241–260. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCTHR-06-2015-0067

Ministry of Home Affairs (MHA). (2011). *Census India- Goa population*. https://censusindia.gov.in/census.website/data/population-finder

Moh El-Barmelgy, H. (2013). Visitor management plan and sustainable culture tourism. *International Journal of Education and Research*, *1*(12), 2201–6740. http://www.ijern.com/journal/December-2013/42.pdf

Mokoena, L. G. (2019). Cultural tourism: Cultural presentation at the Basotho cultural village, Free State, South Africa. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, *18*(4), 470–490. https://doi.org/10.1080/14766825.2019.1609488

Moral-Cuadra, S., Orgaz-Agüera, F., & Cañero-Morales, P. M. (2019). Attitude towards border tourism and its relationship with visitor satisfaction and loyalty. *Geo Journal of Tourism and Geosites*, *25*(2), 609–622. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.2

Moscardo, G. (1996). Mindful visitors: Heritage and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *23*(2), 376–397. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(95)00068-2

Moscardo, G. (2008). Sustainable tourism innovation: Challenging basic assumptions. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, *8*(1), 4–13. https://doi.org/10.1057/thr.2008.7

Mousavi, S. S., Doratli, N., Mousavi, S. N., & Moradiahari, F. (2016). Defining cultural tourism. *International Conference on Civil, Architecture and Sustainable Development (CASD-2016)*, 70–75. https://doi.org/10.15242/iicbe.dir1216411

Moutinho, L. (2007). Consumer behaviour in tourism. *European Journal of Marketing*, *21*(10), 1–44. https://doi.org/10.1108/EUM0000000004718

Moutinho, L., Albayrak, T., & Caber, M. (2011). How far does overall service quality of a destination affects customers' post-purchase behaviors? *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *14*(4), 307–322. https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr

Mowforth, M., & Munt, I. (2008). *Tourism and sustainability: Development, globalisation and new tourism in the third world* (Third Edition). Routledge, London. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203891056

Munsters, W. (1994). *Cultuurtoerisme* (Second Edition). Garant, Apeldoorn. https://books.google.co.in/books?id=0qaBZwEACAAJ&source=gbs_ViewAPI&redir_esc=y

Mzembe, A. N., Koens, K., & Calvi, L. (2023). The institutional antecedents of sustainable development in cultural heritage tourism. *Sustainable Development*, *31*(4), 2196–2211. https://doi.org/10.1002/sd.2565

Nehru, J. (1954). *J. N. Speeches*. Publications Division, Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, Govt. of India. https://archive.org/details/jawaharialnehrus00unse

Neupane, R., KC, A., & Pant, R. R. (2013). Assessing tourism potential in Bhaktapur Durbar Square, Nepal. *International Journal of Environment*, *2*(1), 250–261. https://doi.org/10.3126/ije.v2i1.9225

Nguyen, T. H. H., & Cheung, C. (2014). The classification of heritage tourists: A case of Hue City, Vietnam. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *9*(1), 35–50. https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2013.818677

Nguyen, T. H. H., & Cheung, C. (2016). Chinese heritage tourists to heritage sites: What are the effects of heritage motivation and perceived authenticity on satisfaction? *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *21*(11), 1155–1168. https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2015.1125377

Nguyen, T. Q. T., Young, T., Johnson, P., & Wearing, S. (2019). Conceptualising networks in sustainable tourism development. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *32*, 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2019.100575

Nguyen Viet, B., Dang, H. P., & Nguyen, H. H. (2020). Revisit intention and satisfaction: The role of destination image, perceived risk, and cultural contact. *Cogent Business and Management*, *7*(1). https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2020.1796249

Nicholas, L. N., Thapa, B., & Ko, Y. J. (2009). Residents' perspectives of a world heritage site: The Pitons Management Area, St. Lucia. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *36*(3), 390–412. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2009.03.005

Nielsen, N., & Wilson, E. (2012). From invisible to indigenous-driven: A critical typology of research in indigenous tourism. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *19*(1), 67–75. https://doi.org/10.1017/jht.2012.6

Nijman, J. (1999). Cultural globalization and the identity of place: The reconstruction of Amsterdam. *Ecumene*, *6*(2), 146–164. https://doi.org/10.1177/096746089900600202

Nikjoo, A. H., & Ketabi, M. (2015). The role of push and pull factors in the way tourists choose their destination. *Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, *26*(4), 588–597. https://doi.org/10.1080/13032917.2015.1041145

Nongsiej, P., & Mothilal, L. (2019). Factors that motivate tourists in visiting the cultural festivals: A study of Meghalaya region festivals. *Turizam*, *23*(4), 166–177. https://doi.org/10.5937/turizam23-22766

Nunkoo, R. (2016). Toward a more comprehensive use of social exchange theory to study residents' attitudes to tourism. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, *39*(November), 588–596. https://doi.org/10.1016/s2212-5671(16)30303-3

Nunkoo, R., & Gursoy, D. (2012). Residents' support for tourism: An identity perspective. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *39*(1), 243–268. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2011.05.006

Nunkoo, R., & Ramkissoon, H. (2010a). Gendered theory of planned behaviour and residents' support for tourism. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *13*(6), 525–540. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500903173967

Nunkoo, R., & Ramkissoon, H. (2010b). Modeling community support for a proposed integrated resort project. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *18*(2), 257–277. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669580903290991

Obradović, S., & Tešin, A. (2023). Local communities' perceptions of tourism planning in natural areas. *Tourism and Hospitality*, *4*(2), 336–354. https://doi.org/10.3390/tourhosp4020021

Oliveira, R. A. de, Baracho, R. M. A., & Cantoni, L. (2024). The perception of UNESCO world heritage sites' managers about concepts and elements of cultural sustainability in tourism. *Journal of Cultural Heritage Management and Sustainable Development*, *14*(3), 297–311. https://doi.org/10.1108/JCHMSD-03-2021-0058

Oliver, R. L. (1980). A cognitive model of the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction decisions. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *XVII*(November), 460–469. https://doi.org/10.1177/002224378001700405

Oliver, R. L., & Swan, J. E. (1989). Consumer perceptions of interpersonal equity and satisfaction in transactions: A field survey approach. *Journal of Marketing*, *53*, 21–35. https://doi.org/10.2307/1251411

Ondimu, K. I. (2002). Cultural tourism in Kenya. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *29*(4), 1036–1047. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(02)00024-5

Orgaz-Agüera, F., Castellanos-Verdugo, M., Acosta Guzmán, J. A., Cobeña, M., & Oviedo-García, M. de los Á. (2022). The mediating effects of community support for sustainable tourism, community attachment, involvement, and environmental attitudes. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *46*(7), 1298–1321. https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348020980126

Osman, A. (2022). Empirical measure of cultural sustainability. *Applied Geography*, *145*, 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apgeog.2022.102745

Özel, Ç. H., & Kozak, N. (2012). Motive based segmentation of the cultural tourism market: A study of Turkish domestic tourists. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism*, *13*(3), 165–186. https://doi.org/10.1080/1528008X.2012.645199

Özel, Ç. H., & Kozak, N. (2016). An exploratory study of resident perceptions toward the tourism industry in Cappadocia: A social exchange theory approach. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *22*(3), 284–300. https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2016.1236826

Palau-Saumell, R., Forgas-Coll, S., Sánchez-García, J., & Prats-Planagumà, L. (2012). Tourist behavior intentions and the moderator effect of knowledge of UNESCO world heritage sites: The case of La Sagrada Família. *Journal of Travel Research*, *52*(3), 364–376. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287512465959

Palmer, A., Koenig-Lewis, N., & Medi Jones, L. E. (2013). The effects of residents' social identity and involvement on their advocacy of incoming tourism. *Tourism Management*, *38*, 142–151. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.02.019

Pandit, H., Mascarenhas, A., & Koshy, A. (1999). *Houses of Goa*. Architecture Autonomous. https://books.google.co.in/books?id=1uLVAAAAMAAJ&q=Goa&dq=Goa&hl=en&newbks=1&newbks_redir=0&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwj7hOSNufmJAxVGklYBHUJ8CFs4ChDoAXoECAoQAg

Pansiri, J. (2014). Tourist motives and destination competitiveness: A gap analysis perspective. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, *15*(3), 217–247. https://doi.org/10.1080/15256480.2014.925718

Papastathopoulos, A., Ahmad, S. Z., Al Sabri, N., & Kaminakis, K. (2019). Demographic analysis of residents' support for tourism development in the UAE: A bayesian structural equation modeling multigroup approach. *Journal of Travel Research*, *59*(6), 1119–1139. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287519874131

Pareta, K. (2013). Remote sensing and GIS based site suitability analysis for tourism development. *International Journal of Advanced Research in Engineering and Applied Sciences*, *2*(5), 43–58. http://www.garph.co.uk/IJAREAS/May2013/4.pdf

Paris, H., & Van den Broucke, S. (2008). Measuring cognitive determinants of speeding: An application of the theory of planned behaviour. *Transportation Research Part F*, *11*(3), 168–180. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trf.2007.09.002

Park, D. B., Nunkoo, R., & Yoon, Y. S. (2015). Rural residents' attitudes to tourism and the moderating effects of social capital. *Tourism Geographies*, *17*(1), 112–133. https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2014.959993

Parobo, P. D. (2020). Histories, identities and the subaltern resistance in Goa. *Journal of Human Values*, *26*(2), 177–185. https://doi.org/10.1177/0971685819891381

Pavlić, I., Portolan, A., & Puh, B. (2019). Segmenting local residents by perceptions of tourism impacts in an urban World Heritage Site: The case of Dubrovnik. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *15*(4), 398–409. https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2019.1656218

Pavlis, E., & Terkenli, T. (2017). Landscape values and the question of cultural sustainability: Exploring an uncomfortable relationship in the case of Greece. *Norwegian Journal of Geography*, *71*(3), 168–188. https://doi.org/10.1080/00291951.2017.1345977

Pawaskar, P., & Goel, M. (2012). Tourism and Acculturation: A Study of Goa. *Atna Journal of Tourism Studies*, *7*(1), 1–14. https://doi.org/10.12725/ajts.7.1

Payton, O. D. (1979). *Research: The validation of clinical practice*. Philadelphia, F.A. Davis Company. https://books.google.co.in/books/about/Research_the_Validation_of_Clinical_Prac.html?id=VThtAAAAMAAJ&redir_esc=y

Pearce, P. L. (1988). *The ulysses factor: Evaluating visitors in tourist settings*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4612-3924-6

Pearce, P. L. (1995). From culture shock and culture arrogance to culture exchange: Ideas towards sustainable socio-cultural tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *3*(3), 143–154. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669589509510719

Pearce, P. L. (2011). Travel motivation, benefits and constraints to destinations. In *Destination marketing and management: Theories and applications*. Cambridge, UK: CAB International. https://doi.org/10.1079/9781845937621.0039

Pereira, A. B. D. B. (2008). *Ethnography of Goa, Daman and Diu*. Penguin UK. https://books.google.co.in/books/about/Ethnography_of_Goa_Daman_and_Diu.html?id=MghtAwAAQBAJ&redir_esc=y

Pereira, H. N. (2007). Contemporary trends in conservation: Culturalization, significance and sustainability. *City & Time*, *3*(2), 15–25. https://typeset.io/pdf/contemporary-trends-in-conservation-culturalization-43w9iai230.pdf

Pereira, R. G. (1978). *Goa: Hindu temples and dieties*. Printwell Press, Luis Menezes Roads, Panaji, Goa. https://books.google.co.in/books/about/Goa_Hindu_temples_and_deities.html?id=9WM9AAAAIAAJ&redir_esc=y

Pereira, V., Gupta, J. J., & Hussain, S. (2019). Impact of travel motivation on tourist's attitude toward destination: Evidence of mediating effect of destination image. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *46*(5), 946–971. https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348019887528

Pérez Guilarte, Y., & Lois González, R. C. (2018). Sustainability and visitor management in tourist historic cities: The case of Santiago de Compostela, Spain. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *13*(6), 489–505. https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2018.1435665

Perugini, M., & Bagozzi, R. P. (2001). The role of desires and anticipated emotions in goal-directed behaviours: Broadening and deepening the theory of planned behaviour. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *40*(1), 79–98. https://doi.org/10.1348/014466601164704

Phaldesai, P. (2005). Ethnomusical Traditions of Goa. In *Govapuri: Vol. 4(1)* (pp. 20–28). Bulletin of Institute Menezes Braganca, Panaji, Goa. https://www.songs-from-goa.at/images/doks/Essay.pdf

Phori, M. M., Hermann, U. P., & Grobbelaar, L. (2024). Residents' perceptions of sustainable heritage tourism development in a rural municipality. *Development Southern Africa*, *41*(3), 551–569. https://doi.org/10.1080/0376835X.2024.2350391

Phosikham, T., Vilayphone, A., Wayakone, S., & Phimmavong, S. (2015). Tourists' attitudes towards tourism development and heritage preservation in the world heritage town of Luang Prabang, Lao PDR. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, *6*(8), 37–45. https://ijbssnet.com/journals/Vol_6_No_8_1_August_2015/4.pdf

Phu, N. H., Tuan, L. A., Toan, L. D., & Yen, H. T. P. (2020). Assessment of tourist satisfaction in Da Nang museum, Vietnam. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, *9*(1), 1–15. https://www.ajhtl.com/uploads/7/1/6/3/7163688/article_72_vol_9_1__2020_vietnam.pdf

Pizam, A., Neuman, Y., & Reichel, A. (1978). Dimensions of tourist satisfaction with a destination Area. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *3*, 314–322. https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(78)90115-9

Pobric, A., Sljivo, S., & Mulaosmanovic, N. (2019). Touristic valorization of cultural and historical heritage of the central core of Sarajevo based on Hilary du Cros method. *Journal of Geography, Politics and Society*, *9*(3), 33–41. https://doi.org/10.26881/jpgs.2019.3.05

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(5), 879–903. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879

Popichit, N., Anuwichanont, J., Chuanchom, J., Serirat, S., & Mechinda, P. (2013). A survey of destination potential, tourism activities and future travelling intention towards tourism along the rivers in Phra Nakhon Si Ayutthaya Province. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, *4*(7), 116–122. http://ijbssnet.com/journals/Vol_4_No_7_July_2013/13.pdf

Poria, Y., & Ashworth, G. (2009). Heritage tourism- Current resource for conflict. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *36*(3), 522–525. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2009.03.003

Poria, Y., Butler, R., & Airey, D. (2004). Links between tourists, heritage, and reasons for visiting heritage sites. *Journal of Travel Research*, *43*(1), 19–28. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287504265508

Porter, B. W., & Salazar, N. B. (2005). Heritage tourism, conflict, and the public interest: An introduction. *International Journal of Heritage Studies*, *11*(5), 361–370. https://doi.org/10.1080/13527250500337397

Pranee, S., Sriviboon, C., Rungthongpongampai, M., Saeng-on, P., & Piyamputra, P. (2020). Factors influencing Thai tourist decision-making on travelling to Ranong province. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, *9*(1), 1–10. https://www.ajhtl.com/uploads/7/1/6/3/7163688/article_8_vol_9_1__2020_thailand.pdf

Pratheep, P. S. (2017). The impact of tourism on Indian culture. *LSCAC Conference Proceedings- The 4th International Conference on Language, Society and Cultural in Asian Context*, *1*(3), 429–437. https://doi.org/10.18502/kss.v1i3.765

Prayag, G., Aquino, R. S., Hall, C. M., Chen, N., & Fieger, P. (2022). Is Gen Z really that different? Environmental attitudes, travel behaviours and sustainability practices of international tourists to Canterbury, New Zealand. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 1–22. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2022.2131795

Prayag, G., & Ryan, C. (2012). Antecedents of tourists' loyalty to Mauritius: The role and influence of destination image, place attachment, personal involvement, and satisfaction. *Journal of Travel Research*, *51*(3), 342–356. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287511410321

Preko, A., Doe, F., & Dadzie, S. A. (2019). The future of youth tourism in Ghana: Motives, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions. *Journal of Tourism Futures*, *5*(1), 5–21. https://doi.org/10.1108/JTF-12-2016-0059

Ptacek, P., Roubínek, P., & Raja, J. (2017). Historical heritage potential and tourism marketing: The example of Olomouc. In R. Zsolt (Ed.), *Enhancing competitiveness of V4 historic cities to develop tourism from historic heritage to tourism development*. DIDAKT Kft., Debrecen. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/322056552

Puerta, C., Manuel, D., Garrido, A., Manuel, Sánchez, L., & Antonio, J. (2020). Methodological proposal for the elaboration of a tourist potential index applied to historical heritage. *International Journal of Sustainable Development and Planning*, *15*(3), 295–300. https://doi.org/10.18280/ijsdp.150305

Qiu, Q., Zuo, Y., & Zhang, M. (2022). Intangible cultural heritage in tourism: Research review and investigation of future agenda. *Land*, *11*(1), 1–21. https://doi.org/10.3390/land11010139

Quadri-Felitti, D., & Fiore, A. M. (2012). Experience economy constructs as a framework for understanding wine tourism. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *18*(1), 3–15. https://doi.org/10.1177/1356766711432222

Quintal, V. A., Lee, J. A., & Soutar, G. N. (2010). Risk, uncertainty and the theory of planned behavior: A tourism example. *Tourism Management*, *31*(6), 797–805. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2009.08.006

Ramírez-Guerrero, G., García-Onetti, J., Arcila-Garrido, M., & Chica-Ruiz, J. A. (2021). A tourism potential index for cultural heritage management through the ecosystem services approach. *Sustainability*, *13*(11). https://doi.org/10.3390/su13116415

Ramseook-Munhurrun, P., Seebaluck, V. N., & Naidoo, P. (2015). Examining the structural relationships of destination image, perceived value, tourist satisfaction and loyalty: Case of Mauritius. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *175*, 252–259. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.01.1198

Ranasinghe, R., & Cheng, L. (2018). Tourism-induced mobilities and transformation of indigenous cultures: Where is the Vedda community in Sri Lanka heading to? *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, *16*(5), 521–538. https://doi.org/10.1080/14766825.2017.1393081

Ranwa, R. (2021). Impact of tourism on intangible cultural heritage: case of Kalbeliyas from Rajasthan, India. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, *20*(1–2), 20–36. https://doi.org/10.1080/14766825.2021.1900208

Rashid, I. (2020). Resident attitudes towards support for future tourism: Utilising social exchange theory (SET). *Journal of Tourism, Hospitality & Culinary Arts (JTHCA)*, *12*(3), 106–119. https://fhtm.uitm.edu.my/images/jthca/Vol12Issue3/Chap_7.pdf

Rasoolimanesh, S. M., & Jaafar, M. (2016). Sustainable tourism development and residents' perceptions in world heritage site destinations. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *22*(1), 34–48. https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2016.1175491

Rasoolimanesh, S. M., Jaafar, M., Kock, N., & Ramayah, T. (2015). A revised framework of social exchange theory to investigate the factors influencing residents' perceptions. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *16*, 335–345. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2015.10.001

Razzu, G. (2005). Urban redevelopment, cultural heritage, poverty and redistribution: The case of Old Accra and Adawso House. *Habitat International*, *29*(3), 399–419. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.habitatint.2003.12.002

Refaie, A. Al, Ko, J. H., & Li, M. H. (2012). Examining the factors that affect tourists' satisfaction, loyalty, WOM and intention to return using SEM: evidence from Jordan. *International Journal of Leisure and Tourism Marketing*, *3*(2), 179. https://doi.org/10.1504/ijltm.2012.048947

Reza Jalilvand, M., Samiei, N., Dini, B., & Yaghoubi Manzari, P. (2012). Examining the structural relationships of electronic word of mouth, destination image, tourist attitude toward destination and travel intention: An integrated approach. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, *1*(1–2), 134–143. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2012.10.001

Ribeiro, M. A., Pinto, P., Silva, J. A., & Woosnam, K. M. (2017). Residents' attitudes and the adoption of pro-tourism behaviours: The case of developing island countries. *Tourism Management*, *61*, 523–537. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2017.03.004

Ribeiro, M. A., Valle, P. O. do, & Silva, J. A. (2013). Residents' attitudes towards tourism development in Cape Verde Islands. *Tourism Geographies*, *15*(4), 654–679. https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2013.769022

Richards, G. (1996). *Cultural tourism in Europe*. CAB International, Wallingford, UK. Re-issued in 2005 in electronic format by the Association for Tourism and Leisure Education (ATLAS) www.atlas-euro.org. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/277040145

Richards, G. (2001). *Cultural attractions and European tourism*. Wallingford: CABI. https://archive.org/details/culturalattracti0000unse/page/n9/mode/2up

Richards, G. (2002). Tourism attraction systems: Exploring cultural behavior. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *29*(4), 1048–1064. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(02)00026-9

Richards, G. (2006). *Cultural tourism: Global and local perspectives* (First Edition). New York: Haworth Press, Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203826188

Richards, G. (2007). *ATLAS Cultural tourism survey-Summary report*. Retrieved April 14, 2011, from www.tram-research.-com/atlas

Richards, G. (2018). Cultural tourism: A review of recent research and trends. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *36*, 12–21. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2018.03.005

Richards, G., & Munsters, W. (2010). *Cultural tourism research methods*. Wallingford: CABI. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2011.07.014

Richards, G., & van der Ark, L. A. (2013). Dimensions of cultural consumption among tourists: Multiple correspondence analysis. *Tourism Management*, *37*, 71–76. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.01.007

Richards, G., & Wilson, J. (2006). Developing creativity in tourist experiences: A solution to the serial reproduction of culture? *Tourism Management*, *27*(6), 1209–1223. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2005.06.002

Ritchie, B. W., & Inkari, M. (2006). Host community attitudes toward tourism and cultural tourism development: The case of the Lewes District, Southern England. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *8*(1), 27–44. https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.545

Roberts, S., & Tribe, J. (2008). Sustainability indicators for small tourism enterprises – An exploratory perspective. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *16*(5), 575–594. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669580802159644

Robinson, J. P., Shaver, P. R., & Wrightsman, L. S. (1991). Criteria for scale selection and evaluation. In *Measures of Personality and Social Psychological Attitudes* (pp. 1–16). Elsevier. https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-0-12-590241-0.50005-8

Robinson, M. (1999). Collaboration and cultural consent: Refocusing sustainable tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *7*(3–4), 379–397. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669589908667345

Rockett, J., & Ramsey, D. (2016). Resident perceptions of rural tourism development: The case of Fogo Island and Change Islands, Newfoundland, Canada. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, *15*(4), 299–318. https://doi.org/10.1080/14766825.2016.1150287

Rodríguez del Bosque, I., & San Martín, H. (2008). Tourist satisfaction a cognitive-affective model. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *35*(2), 551–573. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2008.02.006

Roxas, F. M. Y., Rivera, J. P. R., & Gutierrez, E. L. M. (2020). Mapping stakeholders' roles in governing sustainable tourism destinations. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *45*(February), 387–398. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2020.09.005

Ruhanen, L., & Whitford, M. (2019). Cultural heritage and indigenous tourism. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *14*(3), 179–191. https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2019.1581788

Saha, J., & Paul, S. (2020). Tourists attitude and satisfaction of newly developed coastal tourism destination of West Bengal, India. *Asia Pacific Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, *8*(1), 72–80. http://www.apjmr.com/wp-content/uploads/2020/02/APJMR-2020.8.1.09.pdf

Sakdiyakorn, M., & Sivarak, O. (2016). Innovation management in cultural heritage tourism: Experience from the amphawa waterfront community, Thailand. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *21*(2), 212–238. https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2015.1048261

San Martín, H., & Rodríguez del Bosque, I. A. (2008). Exploring the cognitive-affective nature of destination image and the role of psychological factors in its formation. *Tourism Management*, *29*(2), 263–277. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2007.03.012

Sánchez Rivero, M., Sánchez Martín, J. M., & Rengifo Gallego, J. I. (2014). Methodological approach for assessing the potential of a rural tourism destination: An application in the province of Cáceres (Spain). *Current Issues in Tourism*, *19*(11), 1084–1102. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2014.978745

Sangchumnong, A., & Kozak, M. (2018). Sustainable cultural heritage tourism at Ban Wangka Village, Thailand. *Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, *29*(2), 183–193. https://doi.org/10.1080/13032917.2017.1414435

Sangchumnong, A., & Kozak, M. (2021). Impacts of tourism on cultural infiltration at a spiritual destination: A study of Ban Wangka, Thailand. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism, and Hospitality Research*, *15*(4), 477–493. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCTHR-09-2019-0163

Sardessai, M. L. (1983). The Portuguese influence on Konkani. *Journal of South Asian Literature*, *18*(1), 155–158. https://www.jstor.org/stable/40872551

Schofielf, P. (2010). City resident attitudes to tourism development and its impacts. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *13*, 218–233. https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr

Schwartz, S. H. (2004). Mapping and interpreting cultural differences around the world. In H. Vinken, J. Soeters, & P. Ester (Eds.), *Comparing Cultures, Dimensions of Culture in a Comparative Perspective43* (pp. 43–73). Leiden, The Netherlands: Brill. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/265596552_Mapping_and_interpreting_cultural_differences_around_the_world

Seong, B. H., & Hong, C. Y. (2021). Moderating effect of demographic variables by analyzing the motivation and satisfaction of visitors to the former presidential vacation villa: Case study of Cheongnam-Dae, South Korea. *Societies*, *11*(3). https://doi.org/10.3390/SOC11030104

Seyed, S. M., Doratli, N., Seyed, N. M., & Fereshte, M. (2016). Defining cultural tourism. *International Conference on Civil, Architecture and Sustainable Development*, 70–75. https://doi.org/10.15242/iicbe.dir1216411

Shadish, W. R., Cook, T. D., & Campbell, D. T. (2002). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for generalized casual inference*. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, New York. https://iaes.cgiar.org/sites/default/files/pdf/147.pdf

Shafiq, A., Mostafiz, M. I., & Taniguchi, M. (2019). Using SERVQUAL to determine generation Y's satisfaction towards hoteling industry in Malaysia. *Journal of Tourism Futures*, *5*(1), 62–74. https://doi.org/10.1108/JTF-01-2018-0004

Shahzalal, M. (2016). Positive and negative impacts of tourism on culture: A critical review of examples from the contemporary literature. *Journal of Tourism, Hospitality and Sports*, *20*, 30–34. https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/234696865.pdf

Sharma, A., & Sharma, S. (2017). Heritage tourism in India: A stakeholder's perspective. *Tourism and Travelling*, *1*(1), 20–33. https://doi.org/10.21511/tt.1(1).2017.03

Sharma, B., Dyer, P., Carter, J., & Gursoy, D. (2008). Exploring residents' perceptions of the social impacts of tourism on the Sunshine Coast, Australia. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, *9*(3), 288–311. https://doi.org/10.1080/15256480802096092

Sharma, B., & Gursoy, D. (2014). An examination of changes in residents' perceptions of tourism impacts over time: The impact of residents' socio-demographic characteristics. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *20*(12), 1332–1352. https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2014.982665

Sharma, P., & Nayak, J. K. (2018). Testing the role of tourists' emotional experiences in predicting destination image, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions: A case of wellness tourism. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *28*, 41–52. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2018.07.004

Sharpley, R. (2014). Host perceptions of tourism: A review of the research. *Tourism Management*, *42*, 37–49. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.10.007

Sharpley, R. (2018). *Tourism, tourists and society* (Fifth Edition). Routledge, London. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315210407

Sharpley, R. (2020). Tourism, sustainable development and the theoretical divide: 20 years on. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *28*(11), 1932–1946. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2020.1779732

Shen, K., & Shen, H. (2020). Chinese traditional village residents' behavioural intention to support tourism: An extended model of the theory of planned behaviour. *Tourism Review*, *76*(2), 439–459. https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-11-2019-0451

Shen, S., Schüttemeyer, A., & Braun, B. (2009). Visitors' intention to visit world cultural heritage sites: An empirical study of Suzhou, China. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *26*(7), 722–734. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548400903284610

Sheng, J., & Lo, A. (2010). Evaluating the tourism potential of public museums in Hangzhou: A supply-side perspective. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *27*(3), 287–305. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548401003744719

Sheppard, B. H., Hartwick, J., & Warshaw, P. R. (1988). The theory of reasoned action: A meta-analysis of past research with recommendations for modifications and future research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *15*(3), 325. https://doi.org/10.1086/209170

Sher, K. L., Hassanal Bahar, A., Bagul, P., & Affendy Mohd. Di, S. (2015). The influence of community attachment and community involvement towards resident's support on sustainable tourism development by mediating perceived benefits and perceived costs. *American-Eurasian Journal of Sustainable Agriculture*, *15*, 133–138. https://doi.org/10.5829/idosi.aejaes.2015.15.s.217

Shirodkar, P. P. (1997). Socio-cultural life in Goa during 16th Century. In C. J. Borges (Ed.), *Goa and Portugal: Their cultural Links* (pp. 23–40). New Dehli: Concept Publishing Company. https://www.songs-from-goa.at/images/doks/shirodkar_sociocultural_life_in_goa_during_16th_century.pdf

Silberberg, T. (1995). Cultural tourism and business opportunities for museums and heritage sites. *Tourism Management*, *16*(5), 361–365. https://doi.org/10.1016/0261-5177(95)00039-Q

Silva Gracias, F. da. (1996). *Kaleidoscope of women in Goa, 1510-1961*. New Delhi: Concept Publishing Company. https://books.google.co.in/books/about/Kaleidoscope_of_Women_in_Goa_1510_1961.html?id=TbZaZw216gMC&redir_esc=y

Simpson, G. D., Sumanapala, D. P., Galahitiyawe, N. W. K., Newsome, D., & Perera, P. (2020). Exploring motivation, satisfaction and revisit intention of ecolodge visitors. *Tourism and Hospitality Management*, *26*(2), 359–379. https://doi.org/10.20867/THM.26.2.5

Sinclair-Maragh, G., Gursoy, D., & Vieregge, M. (2015). Residents' perceptions toward tourism development: A factor-cluster approach. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, *4*(1), 36–45. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2014.10.001

Sirakaya, E., Teye, V., & Sönmez, S. (2002). Understanding residents' support for tourism development in the central region of Ghana. *Journal of Travel Research*, *41*(1), 57–67. https://doi.org/10.1177/004728750204100109

Sirayi, M., Pearl, P., & Sifolo, S. (2020). Cultural tourism kaleidoscope: Lessons from China and South Africa. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, *9*(1), 1–18. https://www.ajhtl.com/uploads/7/1/6/3/7163688/article_25_vol_9_1__2020_tut.pdf

Sivakumar, V., Saranya, P. R., Iyappan, A., & Leelapriyadharsini, S. (2019). A preliminary review of the cultural heritage and emerging pilgrimage tourism in Tamil Nadu. *Journal of Tourism, Hospitality & Culinary Arts*, *11*(2), 94–105. https://myjms.mohe.gov.my/index.php/jthca/issue/view/708

Smith, M., & Robinson, M. (2005). Cultural tourism in a changing world: Politics, Participation and Re(presentation). In *Tourism and Cultural Change* (Vol. 7, pp. 1–303). Bristol, Blue Ridge Summit: Channel View Publications, Toronto. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781845410452

Soini, K., & Birkeland, I. (2014). Exploring the scientific discourse on cultural sustainability. *Geoforum*, *51*, 213–223. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoforum.2013.12.001

Soliman, Mohammad. (2019). Extending the theory of planned behavior to predict tourism destination revisit intention. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, *22*(5), 524–549. https://doi.org/10.1080/15256480.2019.1692755

Sooksai, T. (2019). Push-pull factors and behaviors of tourists to Tongchom Market, Mae La Noi District, Mae Hong Son Province, Thailand. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism, and Leisure*, *8*(4), 1–12. https://www.ajhtl.com/uploads/7/1/6/3/7163688/article_3_vol_8_4__2019_thailand.pdf

Souza de, T. R. (1997). The Portuguese in Goan folklore. In C. J. Borges (Ed.), *Goa and Portugal: Their cultural Links* (pp. 183–197). New Dehli: Concept Publishing Company. https://books.google.co.in/books/about/Goa_and_Portugal.html?id=fWlMV5lVSpYC&redir_

Sparks, B., & Pan, G. W. (2009). Chinese outbound tourists: Understanding their attitudes, constraints and use of information sources. *Tourism Management*, *30*(4), 483–494. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2008.10.014

Stamenković, I., & Jakšić, S. (2013). Tourism potential valorisation of the old town centre in Sombor based on the Hilary Du Cros model. *European Researcher*, *53*(6–2), 6–8. https://oaji.net/articles/2014/1-1394716706.pdf

Stanojlović, A., Ćurčić, N., & Pavlović, N. (2010). Tourism valorisation of site "Lazar's Town" in Kruševac. *Journal of the Geographical Institute "Jovan Cvijic" Sasa*, *60*. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/274826578_Tourism_valorisation_of_site_'Lazar's_town'_in_Krusevac

Statista Research Department. (2023). *Foreign and domestic tourist arrivals across Goa in India between 2012 and 2021 (in millions)*. https://www.statista.com/statistics/1027205/india-tourist-arrivals-in-goa-by-type/

Stoddard, J. E., Pollard, C. E., & Evans, M. R. (2012). The triple bottom line: A framework for sustainable tourism development. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, *13*(3), 233–258. https://doi.org/10.1080/15256480.2012.698173

Straub, D., & Gefen, D. (2004). Validation guidelines for IS positivist research. *Communications of the Association for Information Systems*, *13*. https://doi.org/10.17705/1cais.01324

Stylianou-Lambert, T., Boukas, N., & Christodoulou-Yerali, M. (2014). Museums and cultural sustainability: Stakeholders, forces, and cultural policies. *International Journal of Cultural Policy*, *20*(5), 566–587. https://doi.org/10.1080/10286632.2013.874420

Stylidis, D. (2017). Place attachment, perception of place, and residents' support for tourism development. *Tourism Planning and Development*, *15*(2), 188–210. https://doi.org/10.1080/21568316.2017.1318775

Su, J. (2018). Conceptualising the subjective authenticity of intangible cultural heritage. *International Journal of Heritage Studies*, *24*(9), 919–937. https://doi.org/10.1080/13527258.2018.1428662

Su, J. (2019). Understanding the changing intangible cultural heritage in tourism commodification: The music players' perspective from Lijiang, China. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, *17*(3), 247–268. https://doi.org/10.1080/14766825.2018.1427102

Su, L., Huang, S. (Sam), & Huang, J. (2018). Effects of destination social responsibility and tourism impacts on residents' support for tourism and perceived quality of life. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *42*(7), 1039–1057. https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348016671395

Sukiman, M. F., Omar, S. I., Muhibudin, M., Yussof, I., & Mohamed, B. (2013). Tourist satisfaction as the key to destination survival in Pahang. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *91*, 78–87. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.08.404

Sukthankar, S. V., & Gaonkar, S. (2022). Travel intention and behavioural changes during COVID-19 pandemic: Empirical implication for the travel and tourism industry. *Turizam*, *26*(4), 243–257. https://doi.org/10.5937/turizam26-33618

Szromek, A. R., Kruczek, Z., & Walas, B. (2020). The attitude of tourist destination residents towards the effects of over-tourism-Kraków case study. *Sustainability*, *12*(1). https://doi.org/10.3390/SU12010228

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2019). *Using multivariate statistics*. https://www.pearsonhighered.com/assets/preface/0/1/3/4/0134790545.pdf

Taber, K. S. (2018). The use of Cronbach's Alpha when developing and reporting research instruments in science education. *Research in Science Education*, *48*(6), 1273–1296. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11165-016-9602-2

Taff, B. D., Benfield, J., Miller, Z. D., D'antonio, A., & Schwartz, F. (2019). The role of tourism impacts on cultural ecosystem services. *Environments*, *6*(4). https://doi.org/10.3390/environments6040043

Tam, F., Tsai, H., & Chen McCain, S. L. (2013). Tourists' and residents' perceptions toward casino gaming development in Hong Kong. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *18*(4), 385–407. https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2012.658410

Tasci, A. D. A., & Gartner, W. C. (2007). Destination image and its functional relationships. *Journal of Travel Research*, *45*(4), 413–425. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287507299569

Tatoglu, E., Erdal, F., Ozgur, H., & Azakli, S. (2002). Resident attitudes toward tourism impacts: The case of Kusadasi in Turkey. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, *3*(3), 79–100. https://doi.org/10.1300/J149v03n03_07

Tavares, D. S., Alves, F. B., & Vásquez, I. B. (2021). The relationship between intangible cultural heritage and urban resilience: A systematic literature review. *Sustainability*, *13*(22), 1–16. https://doi.org/10.3390/su132212921

Tavitiyaman, P., & Qu, H. (2013). Destination image and behavior intention of travelers to Thailand: The moderating effect of perceived risk. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *30*(3), 169–185. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2013.774911

Teo, C. B. C., Khan, N. R. M., & Rahim, F. Hj. A. (2014). Understanding cultural heritage visitor behavior: The case of Melaka as world heritage city. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *130*, 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.04.001

Terkenli, T. (2000). Landscapes of tourism: A cultural geographic perspective. In *Tourism and the Environment* (pp. 179–202). Springer Netherlands. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-015-9584-1_11

Terkenli, T. S., & Georgoula, V. (2022). Tourism and cultural sustainability: Views and prospects from cyclades, Greece. *Sustainability*, *14*(1), 1–20. https://doi.org/10.3390/su14010307

Teshome, E., & Demissie, E. (2018). Assessment of tourist satisfaction in the Simien Mountains National Park, Ethiopia. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, *7*(2), 1–13. https://www.ajhtl.com/uploads/7/1/6/3/7163688/article_23_vol_7_2__2018.pdf

Teye, V., Sönmez, S. F., & Sirakaya, E. (2002). Residents' attitudes towards tourism development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *29*(3), 668–688. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(01)00074-3

Theobald, William. F. (1998). *Global tourism* (Second Edition). Oxford [England]: Butterworth–Heinemann. pp. 6–7. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780080507446

Thi, H. N., Thi, T. N., Trong, T. V., Duc, T. N., & Nghi, T. N. (2024). Sustainable tourism governance: A study of the impact of culture. *Journal of Governance and Regulation*, *13*(2 Special Issue), 474–485. https://doi.org/10.22495/jgrv13i2siart22

Thimm, T. (2019). Cultural sustainability: A framework for Aboriginal tourism in British Columbia. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *14*(3), 205–218. https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2018.1484469

Throsby, D. (2001). *Economics and culture*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107590106

Throsby, D. (2003). Cultural sustainability. In R. Towse (Ed.), *A handbook of cultural economics* (pp. 183–186). Cheltenham: Edward Elgar. https://doi.org/10.4337/9781781008003.00028

Throsby, D. (2008). Linking cultural and ecological sustainability. *The International Journal of Diversity in Organizations, Communities, and Nations: Annual Review*, *8*(1), 15–20. https://doi.org/10.18848/1447-9532/CGP/v08i01/39529

Timothy, D. J. (2014). Contemporary cultural heritage and tourism: Development issues and emerging trends. *Public Archaeology*, *13*(1–3), 30–47. https://doi.org/10.1179/1465518714Z.00000000052

Timothy, D. J., & Nyaupane, G. P. (2009). *Cultural heritage and tourism in the developing world: A regional perspective*. Routledge, 2 Park Square, Milton Park, Abingdon, Oxon OX14 4RN. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203877753

Tomlinson, J. (1991). *Cultural imperialism: A critical introduction*. Johns Hopkins University Press. https://books.google.co.in/books/about/Cultural_Imperialism.html?id=3WCgnIQGxBcC&redir_esc=y

Tosun, C. (2002). Host perceptions of impacts: A comparative tourism study. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *29*(1), 231–253. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(01)00039-1

Tosun, C., Dedeoğlu, B. B., & Fyall, A. (2015). Destination service quality, affective image and revisit intention: The moderating role of past experience. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, *4*(4), 222–234. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2015.08.002

Tournois, L., & Djeric, G. (2018). Evaluating urban residents' attitudes towards tourism development in Belgrade (Serbia). *Current Issues in Tourism*, *22*(14), 1670–1678. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2018.1465030

Trafimow, D. (2009). The theory of reasoned action: A case study of falsification in psychology. *Theory & Psychology*, *19*(4), 501–518. https://doi.org/10.1177/0959354309336319

Turnbul, D. R., & Uysal, M. (1995). An exploratory study of German visitors to the Caribbean: Push and pull motivations. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *4*(2), 85–92. https://doi.org/10.1300/J073v04n02_07

UCLG. (2008). *Agenda 21 for culture- United Cities and Local Governments- Committee on culture*. https://agenda21culture.net/sites/default/files/files/documents/multi/ag21_en.pdf

UNESCO. (2001). *Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity*. http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0012/001246/124687e.pdf#page=67

UNESCO. (2003). *Text of the convention for the safeguarding of the intangible cultural heritage*. https://ich.unesco.org/en/convention

UNESCO. (2005). *Convention of Protection and Promotion Diversity of Cultural Expressions*. http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001429/142919e.pdf

UNESCO. (2009). *The 2009 UNESCO framework for cultural statistics*. UNESCO Institute for Statistics. https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000191061

UNESCO, & The World Bank. (2021). *Cities, culture, creativity: Leveraging culture and creativity for sustainable urban development and inclusive growth.* United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. https://doi.org/10.58337/IIRA3223

Ung, A., & Vong, T. N. (2010). Tourist experience of heritage tourism in Macau Sar, China. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *5*(2), 157–168. https://doi.org/10.1080/17438731003668502

UNWTO. (1985). *The state's role in protecting and promoting culture as a factor of tourism development and the proper use and exploitation of the national cultural heritage of sites and monument for tourism*. United Nation World Tourism Organization, Madrid, New York. https://doi.org/10.18111/9789284409051

UNWTO. (1995). *Concepts, definitions, and classifications for tourism statistics. Technical Manual No. 1*. United Nation World Tourism Organization, Madrid, New York. https://doi.org/10.18111/9789284401031

UNWTO. (2017). *UNWTO Annual Report 2017*. United Nation World Tourism Organization, Madrid, New York. https://doi.org/10.18111/9789284419807

UNWTO. (2018). *Tourism and culture synergies*. United Nation World Tourism Organization, Madrid, New York. https://doi.org/10.18111/9789284418978

Urry, J. (1990). *The tourist gaze: Leisure and travel in contemporary societies*. Sage Publication, London. https://books.google.co.in/books/about/The_Tourist_Gaze.html?id=-t9-AAAAMAAJ&redir_esc=y

Uslu, A., Erul, E., Santos, J. A. C., Obradović, S., & Custódio Santos, M. (2023). Determinants of residents' support for sustainable tourism development: An empirical study in Midyat, Turkey. *Sustainability*, *15*(13). https://doi.org/10.3390/su151310013

Valiati, L., Burrill, A., Grant, S., Lewis, R., Morley, J., Stenning, S., Thomas, I., Walker, S. M., & Sorotou, A. (2023). The role of cultural awareness and participation in sustainable development. *The British Council*, 1–18. https://doi.org/10.57884/7wxh

VanderWeele, T. J. (2016). Mediation Analysis: A Practitioner's Guide. In *Annual Review of Public Health* (Vol. 37, pp. 17–32). Annual Reviews Inc. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-publhealth-032315-021402

Vargas-Hernández, J. G. (2012). Sustainable cultural and heritage tourism in regional development of Southern Jalisco. *World Journal of Entrepreneurship, Management and Sustainable Development*, *8*(2/3), 146–161. https://doi.org/10.1108/20425961211247752

Vargas-Sánchez, A., Oom do Valle, P., da Costa Mendes, J., & Silva, J. A. (2015). Residents' attitude and level of destination development: An international comparison. *Tourism Management*, *48*, 199–210. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.11.005

Vargas-Sánchez, A., Plaza-Mejía, M. de los Á., & Porras-Bueno, N. (2009). Understanding residents' attitudes toward the development of industrial tourism in a former mining community. *Journal of Travel Research*, *47*(3), 373–387. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287508322783

Vargas-Sánchez, A., Porras-Bueno, N., & Plaza-Mejía, M. de los Á. (2011). Explaining residents' attitudes to tourism: Is a universal model possible? *Annals of Tourism Research*, *38*(2), 460–480. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2010.10.004

Vergori, A. S., & Arima, S. (2020). Cultural and non-cultural tourism: Evidence from Italian experience. *Tourism Management*, *78*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2019.104058

Vermeir, I., & Verbeke, W. (2006). Sustainable food consumption: Exploring the consumer "attitude - behavioral intention" gap. *Journal of Agricultural and Environmental Ethics*, *19*(2), 169–194. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10806-005-5485-3

Vodeb, K., Fabjan, D., & Nižić, M. K. (2021). Residents' perceptions of tourism impacts and support for tourism development. *Tourism and Hospitality Management*, *27*(1), 143–166. https://doi.org/10.20867/thm.27.1.10

Vong, F. (2008). Influence of personal factors on Macau residents' gaming impact perceptions. *UNLV Gaming Research & Review Journal*, *12*(1 & 2), 15–28. https://typeset.io/pdf/influence-of-personal-factors-on-macau-residents-gaming-ag92mc6x4g.pdf

Vong, F. (2013). Relationships among perception of heritage management, satisfaction and destination cultural image. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, *11*(4), 287–301. https://doi.org/10.1080/14766825.2013.852564

Vong, L. T. N., & Ung, A. (2012). Exploring critical factors of Macau's heritage tourism: What heritage tourists are looking for when visiting the city's iconic heritage sites. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *17*(3), 231–245. https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2011.625431

Walpole, M. J., & Goodwin, H. J. (2001). Local attitudes towards conservation and tourism around Komodo National Park, Indonesia. *Environmental Conservation*, *28*(2), 160–166. https://www.jstor.org/stable/44519885

Walton, J. K. (2000). *The British seaside: Holidays and resorts in the twentieth century*. Manchester University Press, Manchester. https://books.google.co.in/books/about/The_British_Seaside.html?id=uydACzcGjQEC&redir_esc=y

Wang, C. Y., & Hsu, M. K. (2010). The relationships of destination image, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions: An integrated model. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *27*(8), 829–843. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2010.527249

Wang, D. (2004). Tourist behaviour and repeat visitation to Hong Kong. *Tourism Geographies*, *6*(1), 99–118. https://doi.org/10.1080/1461668032000172355

Wang, S., Bickle, M., & Harrill, R. (2010). Residents' attitudes toward tourism development in Shandong, China. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, *4*(4), 327–339. https://doi.org/10.1108/17506181011081505

Wang, S., & Xu, H. (2015). Influence of place-based senses of distinctiveness, continuity, self-esteem and self-efficacy on residents' attitudes toward tourism. *Tourism Management*, *47*, 241–250. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.10.007

Wang, Y., & Bramwell, B. (2012). Heritage protection and tourism development priorities in Hangzhou, China: A political economy and governance perspective. *Tourism Management*, *33*(4), 988–998. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2011.10.010

Wang, Y., & Pfister, R. E. (2008). Residents' attitudes toward tourism and perceived personal benefits in a rural community. *Journal of Travel Research*, *47*(1), 84–93. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287507312402

Ward, C., & Berno, T. (2011). Beyond social exchange theory: Attitudes toward tourists. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *38*(4), 1556–1569. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2011.02.005

Weaver, D. B., & Lawton, L. J. (2013). Resident perceptions of a contentious tourism event. *Tourism Management*, *37*, 165–175. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.01.017

Williams, R. (1985). *Keywords: A vocabulary of culture and society*. Oxford University Press, USA. https://books.google.co.in/books/about/Keywords.html?id=KnNWD9EYCGgC&redir_esc=y

Wong, M. (2013). A study on traveler expectation, motivation, and attitude. *Contemporary Management Research*, *9*(2), 169–186. https://doi.org/10.7903/cmr.11023

Wood, R. E. (1984). Ethnic tourism, the state, and cultural change in Southeast Asia. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *1*, 353–374. https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(84)90027-6

Woodside, A. G., Caldwell, M., & Spurr, R. (2006). Advancing ecological systems theory in lifestyle, leisure, and travel research. *Journal of Travel Research*, *44*(3), 259–272. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287505282945

Woosnam, K. M. (2011). Testing a model of Durkheim's theory of emotional solidarity among residents of a tourism community. *Journal of Travel Research*, *50*(5), 546–558. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287510379163

Woosnam, K. M. (2012). Using emotional solidarity to explain residents' attitudes about tourism and tourism development. *Journal of Travel Research*, *51*(3), 315–327. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287511410351

Woosnam, K. M., Norman, W. C., & Ying, T. (2009). Exploring the theoretical framework of emotional solidarity between residents and tourists. *Journal of Travel Research*, *48*(2), 245–258. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287509332334

World Commission on Culture and Development. (1995). Our creative diversity: Report of the world commission on culture and development. In *Our Creative Diversity. EGOPRIM, France*. https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000101651

Woyo, E., & Woyo, E. (2019). Towards the development of cultural tourism as an alternative for tourism growth in Northern Zimbabwe. *Journal of Cultural Heritage Management and Sustainable Development*, *9*(1), 74–92. https://doi.org/10.1108/JCHMSD-08-2016-0048

Wu, S. T., & Chen, Y. S. (2015). The social, economic, and environmental impacts of casino gambling on the residents of Macau and Singapore. *Tourism Management*, *48*, 285–298. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.11.013

Xiang, M., Wang, C., Tan, Y., Yang, J., Duan, L., Fang, Y., Li, W., Shu, Y., & Liu, M. (2022). Spatio-temporal evolution and driving factors of carbon storage in the Western Sichuan Plateau. *Scientific Reports*, *12*(1), 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-12175-8

Xu, H. (2003). Managing side effects of cultural tourism development - The case of Zhouzhuang. *Systems Analysis Modelling Simulation*, *43*(2), 175–188. https://doi.org/10.1080/02329290290008202

Xu, J. (Bill), Chan, T. L. (Elaine), & Pratt, S. (2018). Destination image of Taiwan from the perspective of Hong Kong residents: Revisiting structural relationships between destination image attributes and behavioral intention. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, *19*(3), 289–310. https://doi.org/10.1080/15256480.2017.1324339

Yamada, N., & Fu, Y. Y. (2012). Using the theory of planned behavior to identify beliefs underlying visiting the Indiana state museum. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *29*(2), 119–132. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2012.648503

Yan, C. (Grace), & Morrison, A. M. (2008). The influence of visitors' awareness of world heritage listings: A case study of Huangshan, Xidi and Hongcun in Southern Anhui, China. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *2*(3), 184–195. https://doi.org/10.2167/jht059.0

Yan, L., Gao, B. W., & Zhang, M. (2017). A mathematical model for tourism potential assessment. *Tourism Management*, *63*, 355–365. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2017.07.003

Yang, J., Ryan, C., & Zhang, L. (2013). Social conflict in communities impacted by tourism. *Tourism Management*, *35*, 82–93. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.06.002

Yang, J., Yuan, B., & Hu, P. (2009). Tourism destination image and visit intention: Examining the role of familiarity. *Journal of China Tourism Research*, *5*(2), 174–187. https://doi.org/10.1080/19388160902910557

Yang, L. (2011). Ethnic tourism and cultural representation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *38*(2), 561–585. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2010.10.009

Yang, L. (2012). Tourists' perceptions of ethnic tourism in lugu lake, Yunnan, China. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *7*(1), 59–81. https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2011.632481

Yang, L., & Wall, G. (2009). Ethnic tourism: A framework and an application. *Tourism Management*, *30*(4), 559–570. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2008.09.008

Yeniasir, M., & Gökbulut, B. (2018). Perception and attitudes of local people on sustainable cultural tourism on the Islands: The case of Nicosia. *Sustainability*, *10*(6), 1–16. https://doi.org/10.3390/su10061892

Yin, C., & Qian, X. (2020). The spatial production of simulacrascape in urban China: Economic function, local identity and cultural authenticity. *Cities*, *104*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cities.2020.102806

Yoon, Y., Gursoy, D., & Chen, J. S. (2001). Validating a tourism development theory with structural equation modeling. *Tourism Management*, *22*, 363–372. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(00)00062-5

Yoon, Y., & Uysal, M. (2005). An examination of the effects of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty: A structural model. *Tourism Management*, *26*(1), 45–56. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2003.08.016

You, X., O'leary, J., Morrison, A., & Hong, G. S. (2000). A cross-cultural comparison of travel push and pull factors: United Kingdom vs. Japan. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, *1*(2), 1–26. https://doi.org/10.1300/J149v01n02_01

Yousefi, M., & Marzuki, A. (2015). An analysis of push and pull motivational factors of international tourists to Penang, Malaysia. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, *16*(1), 40–56. https://doi.org/10.1080/15256480.2015.991987

Yu, J., & Lee, T. J. (2014). Impact of tourists' intercultural interactions. *Journal of Travel Research*, *53*(2), 225–238. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287513496467

Yu-Ju, W., WU, C., & Yuan, J. (2010). Exploring visitors' experiences and intention to revisit a heritage destination: The case for Lukang, Taiwan. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism*, *11*(3), 162–178. https://doi.org/10.1080/1528008X.2010.483418

Žabkar, V., Brenčič, M. M., & Dmitrović, T. (2010). Modelling perceived quality, visitor satisfaction and behavioural intentions at the destination level. *Tourism Management*, *31*(4), 537–546. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2009.06.005

Zadel, Z., & Bogdan, S. (2013). Economic impact of cultural tourism. *University of Tourism and Management, Skopje (UTMS) Journal of Economics*, *4*(3), 355–366. https://hdl.handle.net/10419/105319

Zamani-Farahani, H., & Henderson, J. C. (2014). Community attitudes toward tourists: A study of Iran. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, *15*(4), 354–375. https://doi.org/10.1080/15256480.2014.961793

Zamani-Farahani, H., & Musa, G. (2008). Residents' attitudes and perception towards tourism development: A case study of Masooleh, Iran. *Tourism Management*, *29*(6), 1233–1236. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2008.02.008

Zhang, H., Wu, Y., & Buhalis, D. (2018). A model of perceived image, memorable tourism experiences and revisit intention. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, *8*, 326–336. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2017.06.004

Zhang, J., Inbakaran, R. J., & Jackson, M. S. (2006). Understanding community attitudes towards tourism and host-guest interaction in the urban - Rural border region. *Tourism Geographies*, *8*(2), 182–204. https://doi.org/10.1080/14616680600585455