PART 5

Future challenges and opportunities for community-based tourism and its initiatives

The future of community-based tourism (CBT) definitely looks bright and, therefore, future challenges and opportunities need to be understood and analysed. CBT will become a symbol of an all-inclusive and complete method to attain sustainable development in coming years, as it is the need of the hour to be responsible towards nature and the local community. Part 5 describes the forthcoming challenges and prospects for CBT and other community initiatives. This part concentrates on finding sustainable approaches for such kinds of tourism and also talks about rethinking engagements with Indigenous roots. This part tries to find various contemporary and futuristic trends accepted and successfully practiced around the globe in the arena of CBT and will try to seek futuristic directions in this regard. This part includes some of the most successful and sustainable case studies from different corners of the world. Probable topics focussed on in this part are rethinking engagements with Indigenous communities through tourism, solution-focussed approaches for improving CBT experiences, current and futuristic trends of CBT, future directions for CBT and its initiatives, ethical issues and CBT in the contemporary era, models or conceptual frameworks focussed on making CBT a “good for all” solution, and, in the end, the concluding chapter gives closing remarks about CBT and also jots down future directions for the field. Hence, researchers across the globe need to pay attention to understand the benefits and challenges of CBT.

Chapter 31, “Rural Tourism in Asia: Evaluating the Challenges to Maximize Benefits to Rural Communities” by Gamini Herath and Wai Ching Poon, examines the emergence of rural tourism in Asia, the successes and failures, and tries to understand the emergence of rural tourism in Asia, the successes and failures, and tries to understand how CBT can be reoriented to create a development paradigm. This chapter also stresses that there is a need to better understand the enablers of rural tourism to maximize its potential, which faces many challenges.

Moving ahead, Chapter 32, “Assessing Sustainable Community-Based Tourism Development in Thailand” by Uraiporn Kattiypornpong and Chatchasorn Chuntamara, describes that, even though there are considerable studies regarding sustainable tourism and CBT, the assessment of how they plan and manage sustainable community-based tourism (SCBT) is limited to some areas only. To date, there is indecisive implementation on the standard of SCBT development. This study, therefore, aims to address this knowledge gap. Two
established CBT sites in Thailand were selected as part of a comparative study on assessing SCBT development.

On a similar front, Chapter 33, “Sustaining Indigenous Tourism in Bocas del Toro, Panama: An assessment of Indigenous tour operators and hotel management’s perspectives” by Anastasia Furnari, Rachel Gates, Olivia Lopez & Leon Mach, focuses on assessing the developmental challenges limiting success for Indigenous tour providers and the creative ways in which some providers overcome these challenges. Researchers conducted participant observation at seven CBT projects along with semi-structured interviews that focussed on each project’s operation and history, perceived tourist satisfaction, perceived demand for tours, developmental challenges, and desires for external support. This chapter provides suggestions for how a mutual commitment by hotel management and Indigenous providers might foster greater success for Bocas’ CBT projects.

CBT has gained prominence in the last twenty years because it is advocated as one pathway to sustainable tourism development. Chapter 34, “Attractions with Religious Importance and Community-based Tourism” by Azizul Hassan aims at comparing the experiences in the Mekong region of Thailand and the Buddhist Vihara at Paharpur in Bangladesh. The findings of the study indicate that the tourists visiting religious destinations are typically more conscious about their responsibilities to environments, locals, stakeholders, and government officials, in general. This research concludes that CBT needs to be combined with the local communities and macromarketing approaches for ensuring comprehensive development.

Moving ahead to other aspects, Chapter 35, “Analysis of the empowerment level in the community of Saraguro in the development of tourism” by Estefanía Sanchez-Cevallos, Natalia Bustamante Sánchez & Christian Viñán-Merecí studies Saraguro, a town located in south Ecuador, whose population is mostly composed of Indigenous people. This chapter studies the current situation of the Saraguro ethnic group and analyses the empowerment level of this community in the development of CBT. This analysis is based on interviews administered to families who are involved in the CBT network.

Chapter 36, “Community-based Events and Social Entrepreneurship: Evidence from Piedmont, Italy” by Antonella Capriello, highlights that social entrepreneurs are typically creative in their bundling processes when through effective combination they generate different values from local resources in event management. The study also proposes a new role of social entrepreneurship in community-based events, considering the inference of managing resource scarcity and striving to achieve capital creation for event organization.

Chapter 37, “Bikes without Borders: Transboundary Tourism, Collaboration, and Rural Development in Montenegro” by Greg Ringer and Andriela Vitić-Četković employs a strategic management approach to identify Critical Success Factors (CSF) for successful, sustainable, and supportive bike tourism in Montenegro’s rural and cross-border communities. The analysis is informed by qualitative and quantitative data from bicycle tourists and regional proponents, and an assessment of existing tourism management practices and political processes.

Obviously, it is the need of the hour to rethink the engagements with Indigenous communities. On these lines, Chapter 38, “Rethinking Engagements with Indigenous Communities Through Tourism” by Puvaneswaran Kunasekaran and Jeetesh Kumar presents explicitly the influence of participation, empowerment, and community capacity-building on sustainable Indigenous tourism. This chapter further explains that CBT can be considered a perfect form of tourism towards achieving the Sustainable Development Goals.
Future challenges and opportunities

(SDGs). However, genuine participation of the local community and the active involvement of relevant stakeholders are essential to attain sustainable CBT.

Chapter 39, “Exploring the New Horizons of Community-Based Tourism in Emerging Economies” by Toney K. Thomas discusses in detail shaping and profiling CBT in emerging economies in destinations with different economic capabilities, within the context of emerging Asian tourism destinations. The chapter also mentions that weighing the costs and benefits, CBT has both success and failure stories.

Finally the concluding Chapter 40, “The Imminent Future of Community-Based Tourism: An Authentic Way of Experiencing The World” by Sandeep Kumar Walia & Pooja Choudhary aims to understand the concept of CBT and the way it can change the tourism industry in the future. This study adopts a futuristic approach towards CBT. The study advocates that a change is obligatory within the consideration of contributors and governing bodies in the direction of reorganization of policies that reinforce the abilities, incomes, and circumstances of small community-based and family-owned businesses, along with a tougher positioning towards the local markets.

Sandeep Kumar Walia
31
RURAL TOURISM IN ASIA
Evaluating the challenges to maximize benefits to rural communities

Gamini Herath and Wai Ching Poon

31.1 Introduction

Rural tourism (RT) is based on the use of rural resources such as culture, rural production systems and lifestyles and the natural environment (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004). RT can increase incomes and employment for rural communities, and can conserve and enhance the value of the local resources (Hall et al., 2005). It is a vehicle for safeguarding the integrity of rural resources and maintaining traditional ways of life (Roberts & Hall, 2001; Lane, 1994). Policymakers have explored alternative ways of improving rural income in Asia due to the declining economic viability of agriculture. RT views rural assets as capital that can be invested to generate a stream of benefits, ensuring the sustainability of assets within limits (Garrod et al., 2006). The fundamental objective of RT is to support disadvantaged groups, moderate rural-urban migration, enhance opportunities for the young and rural women, alleviate poverty, and preserve culture and heritage. Rural resources can provide a diversity in tourism products, which is desirable for social equity, and economic policies must support the growth of this niche market.

RT provides economic incentives for rural people to generate revenues that can be reinvested into capacity-building programmes for local communities to escape poverty (Garrod et al., 2004). The unique nature of Asia’s cultures, heritage, social structures, and ecosystems provides a different experience for urban dwellers that can relieve modern-day stresses of life. RT is desired for nature, serenity, solitude, scenery, outdoor activities, recreation, and adventure revolving around rural experiences.

RT should provide a sustainable tourism experience by balancing the environmental, economic, and sociocultural aspects of tourism. It must ensure the maintenance of cultural, heritage, and natural resources, while preserving the dignity of the locals, whose lifestyles and the living environment can be invaded by tourists, rendering rural people artefacts or museum pieces. Many Indigenous communities have been threatened due to the expansion of tourism in rural areas.

The purpose of this chapter is to (i) review existing literature to identify the major features of RT in Asia, (ii) identify the development potential and opportunities of RT in Asia, (iii) explore emerging innovation in RT types in Asia, and (iv) identify policy strategies to enhance the development potential of RT in Asia.
This chapter contributes to the community in several ways. It is based on published and unpublished literature. The aim is to explore the nexus between rural communities and the global tourism industry and how the union between the two can provide opportunities for rural community development. The major theoretical contribution of the chapter is that it examines some of the theories of tourism and highlights features of these theories that can be further developed to be useful for future tourism development. For example, Butler’s theory has several steps, the last being the declining phase; but we argue that this declining phase can be avoided with new technology such as digital information and mobile data processing. New market models can be adopted to arrest the declining phase. The empirical contribution is that several RT models practiced in different countries have been put together to highlight their salutary features, which are not well known and whose potential has not been realized. This would be particularly useful for policymakers, who can combine the theoretical and empirical features to evolve new innovations that can provide robust models, innovations, policy alternatives, and valuable developmental outcomes.

The chapter is organized as follows. After the introduction, Section 31.2 discusses the various definitions of RT. Section 31.3 identifies some of the emerging paradigms of RT. Section 31.4 reviews the demand-supply characteristics of RT and Section 31.5 highlights some of the new models of RT in Asia. Section 31.6 explores the challenges and opportunities for sustainable tourism and Section 31.7 concludes the chapter.

### 31.2 Definitions of rural tourism

The meanings and interpretations of RT may differ from one country to another or from one region to another, which can create a great deal of confusion. A multiplicity of concepts are used to designate RT, including nature tourism, ecotourism, green tourism, culture-based tourism, and ecological tourism (Herath, 1995, 2002). The myriad of definitions implies a lack of unanimity on the concept, but there are many features that are common to all definitions.

McCool and Martin’s (1994) viewed RT as a way to uplift economically depressed rural areas. According to Fleischer and Felsenstein (2000), RT generates demand for rural products and increases revenue sources for rural areas. These definitions focus on the impact of RT on income generation and employment to elevate the level of prosperity for rural communities. They argue that RT can reverse economic recession and enhance rural residents’ quality of life. Rural communities are in great strife due to their own socio-economic conditions (Su, 2011). Early definitions reflected a rural-development and poverty-alleviation perspective with an emphasis on rural decline.

Lane (1994) defines RT as tourism practiced in rural settings mostly as small businesses inspired by traditional characteristics of the rural areas, where local families predominate and complex environmental and historical features are fundamental.

Wikipedia (2015) defines RT as tourism that showcases rural life, art, culture, and heritage at rural locations, which benefits the local community economically and socially, as well as enables an enriching tourism experience.

Several European definitions give insights into RT with a deeper meaning. According to the Finnish government, RT is customer-oriented, based on natural facilities and resources, including culture, nature, and scenery, where family and entrepreneurship are prevalent (Nylander & Hall, 2005). Fleischer and Pizam (1997) identify RT as a system where the tourist spends most of their time enjoying being involved in activities in a farm, ranch, and surrounding areas.
Hall and Macionis (1998) include wine tourism under RT. Keanfsey (2001) argues RT is the repository of traditional cultures, national identities, and authentic lifestyles. Restoring and rebuilding historic buildings while preserving existing rural tranquillity of unique cultures make the investment in RT more profitable. RT is less expensive and does not require immense and pricey constructions and infrastructure development. Often existing resources are improved to meet the demands of tourists with specific interests.

The OECD (1993) recognizes social heritages, cohesive communities, beautiful landscape, clean air, recreational assets, agriculture, artisan machines, and tools as facets for RT. Religious events and community festivals and celebrations are appealing features in rural areas that may attract tourists. The OECD defines RT as those small-business enterprises that are in close contact with the natural environment with traditional social practices. It is small-scale because of the nature of the buildings and settlements but traditional because they are connected with local families.

The European Community (EC) uses a multiplicity of concepts to define RT as shown in Table 31.1.

All definitions embrace the use of rural resources, natural or manmade; the small-scale nature of the enterprises; and the role of farming and agriculture as important elements. Most definitions include cultural heritage sites, traditions, natural resources, outdoor activities, special events, cultural functions, festivals, scenic beauty, and many other non–natural resources as other ingredients of RT. The local host community plays an important role in transforming rural resources and activities into tourism products (Smith et al., 2010).

Later definitions emphasize the need to satisfy the tourist’s demands and hence show a market orientation. Lane (1994), for example, argues that sustainable tourism relies on visitor satisfaction and efficient development of the rural destination. A viable tourism area must strategically develop and market the destination area, the hospitality services offered, and the destination–defined attractions, either natural or manmade. Recent definitions include the UN’s Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) as an important element because RT must achieve conservation of the rural environment and continued local development.
31.3 Theoretical paradigms and the emergence of rural tourism

Theoretical paradigms are imperative to confront some of the challenges of RT, as well as to explain the role of contemporary RT as a driver of rural development (Garrod et al., 2006; Lane & Kastenholz, 2015). RT grew rapidly after World War II and was practiced more intensively in countries such as Italy, France, and the UK. The expansion of the railway, safe and faster travel, and increased incomes created opportunities for urban people to visit rural areas. In developing countries, since the 1970s, RT has emerged as a basis for eliminating poverty and inequality in rural societies.

There are many theories to explain the emergence of RT, such as the (a) dependency theory, (b) core-periphery model, and (c) Butler’s life cycle model, among others (Britton, 1982; Chaperon & Bramwell, 2013). The core-periphery model argues that tourist flows are located in a few centres or poles. The dependency theory avers that the core-periphery model is one of exploitation. The centres and metropolitan areas (the cores) exploit the weaker peripheries for the benefit of the centre. The revenue generated at the periphery reinforces business in the more developed core.

Frank (1967) identifies a metropolitan centre and a poorly developed periphery from where raw materials are exported to the centre (Britton, 1982). As tourists move from the center to the periphery, money spent in the periphery leaks back into the center, sometimes exceeding 50%, creating a subservient periphery (Brohman, 1996; Erisman, 1983). There is poor integration between the rural periphery and external capital and poor exchange between rural and urban actors. Dependency theorists believe that RT benefits tourism-generating countries and not the host countries.

According to Wallerstein (1974) and Jenkins (1982), tourist flows from developed countries to poverty-stricken developing countries promote economic benefits to developing areas. The tourists’ values begin to dominate the periphery, undermining the host culture, as in the West Indies (Erisman, 1983). Figure 31.1 shows the links involved in a schematic representation of RT with multiple interactions.

Butler’s (1980) Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC) model examined the dynamics of development of tourism in developing countries. Butler (1980) stated that promoting alternative tourism without a clear understanding of the end result can be very destructive for a destination. The TALC model identifies six steps in the life cycle model as given in Table 31.2. Many TALC applications received validity from coastal tourism in the Saly sea resort in Senegal in the 1980s.

The last stage is the decline of the destination, which cannot be properly exploited anymore. This is the critical phase because it remains a crucial challenge as it is difficult to determine the carrying capacity of the area (see Figure 31.2).

In the absence of intervention, this decline of the destination is inevitable. This is the weakness of the model for use as a tool for planning RT. The model can be improved using sustainable development principles, especially the SDGs. Sustainable tourism integrates economic, social, and environmental dimensions of tourism to ensure the viability of the use of these resources for future generations (Hall et al., 2003). Sustainable tourism provides incentives for biodiversity conservation and if this happens it can stop the slide into the declining phase implicit in Butler’s model.

31.4 Supply and demand features of RT

This section examines the demand and supply features of RT. The RT sector was dynamic and supply and demand factors began to change along with changes in the economic
Table 31.2 Stages in Butler’s tourism area life cycle

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td>Early tourists visit to experience nature/culture and interact with local population, with minimal impact on the cultural and physical environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>Increased tourism numbers; some advertising, interaction stay high, but increased demand for new infrastructure, and specialized service for tourists.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development</td>
<td>Tourist numbers rapidly increase and foreign-owned facilities, increase losing local control; intensive advertising.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consolidation</td>
<td>Growth slows down but tourism is an important economic asset; some opposition may emerge due to over-crowding, product deterioration and abandonment of facilities occur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stagnation</td>
<td>Overproduction of facilities and surplus hotel capacity increases and social and environmental problems begin to appear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decline</td>
<td>The collapse of the Tourist market with a decline in visitors; increased local resentment towards visitors.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 31.1 A schematic representation of the interaction between RT and rural capital

Source: Adapted from Garrod et al. (2004).
Rural tourism in Asia

prosperity of countries. Over the last three decades, RT began to traverse a new trajectory, where new rural tourist products and new cultural heritage assets were developed to expand tourists’ choices. Agritourism, ecotourism, farm tourism and wine tourism activities began to emerge (Salvatore et al., 2018).

Rural societies in many developing countries experienced unprecedented changes in their lifestyles due to rural decline. Agriculture became uneconomical, forcing farmers to abandon small farms. There was increased pressure to diversify farming activities and new paradigms for rural development such as RT emerged as an alternative to integrate rural capital with tourism (Sharpley, 1996, 2000, 2003, 2009). Communities packaged some of their rural features into value-creating products. There was rapid rural-urban migration, which left many economically inactive family members such as the elderly and children at home, creating labour shortages.

Significant changes occurred on the demand side of RT. Many countries in Asia grew rapidly and increasing average incomes of a person made tourism and leisure an important component of consumption. The fastest-growing countries in terms of GDP per capita and domestic spending are in the Asia-Pacific. Table 31.3 provides data on tourism to the countryside in Malaysia from many regional countries such as Indonesia, Thailand, and Vietnam. The growth in the middle-class is a major factor for increased demand for new rural destinations. China recorded 9.2% average annual growth in GDP per capita and a remarkable 16.8% growth in domestic spending. The Philippines and Malaysia also witnessed strong annual growth in both GDP per capita and domestic spending. Growing environmental awareness and the desires to experience the beauty and serenity of nature and to participate in local lifestyles created a unique demand for rural-based niche activities (Lane & Kastenholz, 2015).

Urban populations began to enjoy the countryside experience and a major rural transformation began to occur. From a policy perspective, RT became an important driver of rural development in this new reincarnation of rural capital. Government support for rural communities utilizing innovative bottom-up strategies (Salvatore et al., 2018) for tourism increased, creating job opportunities and improving quality of life and educational opportunities. The interactions involved are given in Figure 31.1. Thus, rural areas changed from

Figure 31.2 A graphic representation of Butler’s TALC model
### Table 31.3 Tourist arrivals to Malaysia (sightseeing in countryside), 2001–2014

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Tourist Arrival: Brunei</th>
<th>Tourist Arrival: Philippines</th>
<th>Tourist Arrival: Indonesia</th>
<th>Tourist Arrival: Singapore</th>
<th>Tourist Arrival: Thailand</th>
<th>Tourist Arrival: Vietnam</th>
<th>Tourist Arrival: China</th>
<th>Tourist Arrival: Taiwan</th>
<th>Tourist Arrival: Japan</th>
<th>Tourist Arrival: India</th>
<th>Tourist Arrival: South Korea</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>26,600</td>
<td>40,700</td>
<td>24,200</td>
<td>13,700</td>
<td>17,400</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>37,800</td>
<td>58,000</td>
<td>31,700</td>
<td>30,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>27,200</td>
<td>23,700</td>
<td>56,600</td>
<td>16,800</td>
<td>22,700</td>
<td>8,600</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>49,400</td>
<td>54,900</td>
<td>25,800</td>
<td>23,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>24,300</td>
<td>47,600</td>
<td>36,100</td>
<td>20,700</td>
<td>6,300</td>
<td>11,300</td>
<td>15,400</td>
<td>45,600</td>
<td>60,800</td>
<td>24,400</td>
<td>26,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>45,500</td>
<td>35,100</td>
<td>33,600</td>
<td>37,000</td>
<td>21,200</td>
<td>17,500</td>
<td>41,500</td>
<td>51,600</td>
<td>46,800</td>
<td>42,100</td>
<td>38,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>47,700</td>
<td>39,900</td>
<td>35,300</td>
<td>26,100</td>
<td>23,800</td>
<td>30,500</td>
<td>61,300</td>
<td>59,800</td>
<td>67,800</td>
<td>33,300</td>
<td>45,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>40,900</td>
<td>34,400</td>
<td>22,400</td>
<td>12,500</td>
<td>16,100</td>
<td>17,800</td>
<td>35,500</td>
<td>58,400</td>
<td>74,500</td>
<td>29,700</td>
<td>35,600</td>
</tr>
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<td>2007</td>
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<td>17,800</td>
<td>16,500</td>
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<td>19,800</td>
<td>58,300</td>
<td>74,300</td>
<td>86,300</td>
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</tr>
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<td>2008</td>
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<td>18,700</td>
<td>19,200</td>
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<tr>
<td>2009</td>
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<td>29,600</td>
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<td>31,900</td>
<td>22,400</td>
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<td>55,000</td>
<td>55,600</td>
<td>44,000</td>
<td>54,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>49,000</td>
<td>31,700</td>
<td>44,300</td>
<td>17,400</td>
<td>30,800</td>
<td>30,000</td>
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<td>76,900</td>
<td>74,200</td>
<td>53,900</td>
<td>55,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
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<td>32,200</td>
<td>10,800</td>
<td>22,000</td>
<td>20,600</td>
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<td>53,500</td>
<td>53,100</td>
<td>41,900</td>
<td>32,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>21,900</td>
<td>15,100</td>
<td>24,700</td>
<td>4,800</td>
<td>15,600</td>
<td>6,000</td>
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<td>33,500</td>
<td>14,200</td>
<td>15,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>34,900</td>
<td>28,900</td>
<td>38,200</td>
<td>19,500</td>
<td>18,000</td>
<td>27,000</td>
<td>8,900</td>
<td>62,700</td>
<td>61,100</td>
<td>33,200</td>
<td>11,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>18,900</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>36,500</td>
<td>8,800</td>
<td>20,200</td>
<td>13,300</td>
<td>9,000</td>
<td>38,500</td>
<td>44,700</td>
<td>9,400</td>
<td>15,400</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: CEIC database, and Malaysian Tourism Promotion Board.

Note: n.a. denotes not available.
dependency and/or abandonment to one of symbolic consumption (Sharpley & Jepson, 2011). Rural isolation and remoteness became synonymous with peace and distinctiveness, and the relationship between rural-peripheral areas and tourism became synergistic and positive (Hoggart & Paniagua, 2001; Garrod et al., 2006).

Since the 1970s, environmental consciousness has spread globally and activities to minimize environmental degradation were recognized. Since the 1980s, the interdependence of environment and development has become increasingly clear and attention was directed towards the integration of environmental and development objectives. Many countries initiated strategies to reduce land degradation, deforestation, habitat conversion, loss of biodiversity, and air and water pollution. All unique habitats, ecosystems, and wetlands were subjected to special protection to achieve sustainable productivity. In 1989, the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) was established for the scientific evaluation of climatic change. The value of natural areas and forests increased and people began to visit these areas and assets to experience them. There were incentives to innovate and highly innovative RT enterprises emerged; some selected innovations in RT in Asia are presented in Section 31.5.

### 31.5 Innovation in RT: the global experience

Opportunities to increase the use of RT while keeping negative impacts to acceptable levels have been innovatively developed in many countries. Many human-dominated rural landscapes have evolved in response to a multiplicity of societal needs, RT systems take account of these human needs and expectations. In many societies, such evolutions have benefitted not only rural communities but also the tourism community overall. However, these systems have not received adequate emphasis to exploit their full potential.

#### 31.5.1 RT in China

In China, RT began after the 1950s in Shijiazhuang and Shenzhen. The “litchi festival” in Shenzhen and picking gardens attracted visitors since the 1980s. In 1998, China expanded its “urban and rural tourism”, with many distinctive rural tourist attractions (Tang, 2017). People can not only go sightseeing, but also work on holidays and enjoy agricultural festivals, and “farmhouse” tourism projects in Sichuan and village tourism in Guizhou. In addition, the flat peach-picking garden in the Pinggu district, in Beijing; the watermelon-picking garden in the Daxing district, in Beijing; the flowers and trees park and tea-picking and processing garden in Shimen Farm, Jinhua city, Zhejiang province, and litchi sightseeing and picking garden in Shenzhen are some of China’s famous RT demonstration sites.

#### 31.5.2 RT in Nepal

Nepal is small but endowed with vast natural beauty. The most favourable areas have been untouched and many tourists are unaware of possible tourism areas and facilities such as community exposure visits, homestays, agriculture tourism, hiking, photography tours, etc. Nepal is poor and many people suffer from absolute poverty and RT can give a much-needed boost to the rural sector. Young people can learn to be engaged in hospitality and also can serve as tourist guides, thereby benefitting the visitors, villagers, and the environment (Kharel, 2017).
31.5.3 Banaue rice terraces in the Philippines

The Banaue Rice Terraces were carved into the mountains of Ifugao in the Philippines by Indigenous populations (Eder, 1982). It is a system of irrigated rice terraces in the mountains of north-central Luzon, Philippines, that were created more than 2,000 years ago by the Ifugao people. In 1995, these terraces were designated as a UNESCO World Heritage site, because it was considered as living cultural landscapes of unparalleled beauty. The rice terraces are in remote areas where the Ifugao farmers built them in the 1st century with basic tools and which sustained extensive irrigation systems. The area covers some 4,000 square miles (10,360 square km). The rice terraces also served a cultural function and facilitated cooperation among the people. In the early 21st century, the number of Ifugao in the area declined and the terraces began to deteriorate. It was listed in the UNESCO’s list of World Heritage in Danger in 1995. The terraces were restored and in 2012 they were removed from the danger list. They have become a popular attraction, particularly in the village of Batad.

31.5.4 Homestay programmes in Malaysia

A popular RT initiative in Malaysia is the homestay programme (Ministry of Tourism and Culture, MOTAC, 2012). A major increase in occupancy took place, amounting to around 38.4% compared to 24.9% in 2011 (Amir et al., 2015). There was a 70.7% increase in homestayers in 2012 compared to 2011 that only 78,333 tourists reported homestays. For the first five months of 2012, tourist receipts increased to RM 7,376,446. These earnings can be invested to help the rural economy with a significant positive impact on the rural community. The local communities are encouraged to be involved with RT, which helps maintain their traditions and identities.

31.5.5 Agroforestry

Mixed forests do not harm the welfare of forest-dependent peoples and are an important part of the ecosystem. The agroforestry system in Maninjau in West Sumatra integrates the forest system with agricultural system creating a forest-like system. This area receives 3,000–4,500mm of rain per year with an average temperature of about 25°C. Soils are young and rich in nutrients but are prone to erosion and farmers maintain permanent tree cover on the slopes to avoid landslides.

Agroforestry systems provide for the subsistence needs of the rural population and some commercial products for marketing. The farmers practice natural cultural methods with minimal damage to the environment. It is a profitable system, providing a buffer between villages and protected forest. It also can be used for the cultivation of cash crops within a sustainable system (Michon et al., 1986).

31.5.6 Vineyards in New Zealand

Wine tourism is very popular in New Zealand. Vineyards practice effective cultural methods to prevent soil erosion and improve water quality and affect water yield. Unfarmed refuges improve natural pest control on nearby farmland (Alonso et al., 2007; Alonso, 2009). These vineyards are visited by many recreational enthusiasts. Their planting methods support natural predators of pests, reducing pesticide cost by about NZ $200 per hectare per year. In
addition, it embodies a range of beneficial services including recreation. Many tourists visit these vineyards for aesthetic enjoyment.

### 31.5.7 Satoyama in Japan

Satoyama in Japan is a forest-rice paddy system, which contains mixed forests, dry and wet rice paddies, streams, ponds, and reservoirs for irrigation, representing a mosaic of biodiversity and recreation and providing a multiplicity of sustainable, valuable uses. Satoyama is a response to the decline in villages, rapid economic growth, and population movements away from agriculture. Satoyama is a sacred zone of woodland with paddy-woodlot-home settlements and the traditional rural landscape that sustained people for centuries. During the 1980s and 1990s, Satoyama became a very popular form of landscape in Japan.

Urban Japanese people are involved in Satoyama by supporting hiking, bird-watching, wildlife photography, and even helping farmers with their work in the fields and forests. Tokyo’s Environment Ministry adopted “Satoyama” as a new biodiversity policy geared toward preserving the natural beauty and attractiveness of Satoyama of the remaining landscapes. Japan is an exciting example of RT where long-standing rice ecosystems were converted into multifunctional landscapes called Satoyama, which links forestry with agriculture and managed by the village community. Modern Satoyama contains mixed forests, dry and wet rice paddies, grasslands, streams, ponds, and reservoirs for irrigation, representing an effective RT mechanism. Satoyama is a response to the decline in villages, rapid economic growth and population movements away from agriculture. The depopulation of upland mountain areas and decline of the forest industry can be halted because RT caters for urbanites with the means and interest on social forestry (Knight, 1996). In the 1980s, around 5 million people or 4% of the Japanese population lived in mountain villages. But due to depopulation, the proportion of the population aged 65 years and over increased to 20% compared to a national figure of 12%. The deterioration of the forest industry was the main factor behind this decline.

### 31.5.8 The Kandyan forest garden system in Sri Lanka

The Kandyan home gardens in Sri Lanka can be viewed as an agroforestry system that has survived for more than 2,000 years. Kandyan home gardens are socio-ecological systems with multi-storeyed canopy cover, replete with agricultural and cash crops, often in steep hillsides (Pushpakumara et al., 2012, Marambe & Silva, 2012). The spice gardens in Sri Lanka following the Kandyan system are a major modern tourist attraction in the country. These systems also exist in Thailand, Malaysia, Indonesia, and Papua New Guinea. Policymakers must support research of and technology in these systems to enhance the synergies and avoid unintended trade-offs.

### 31.5.9 Asian terraced rice production systems

Asian rice production systems such as the rice terraces in Bali, Indonesia, often done in steep mountainous terrain, provide critical conservation areas for migratory fish, birds, and flooded rice within a hydrologically based ecosystem. Rice fields sustain major ecological complexity, including natural control of rice pests and diseases, and are major tourist attractions. Many rice-producing countries have reformulated their rice production using innovative strategies to sustain yields and enhance multiple ecosystem benefits. Evaluating the
capacity of rice ecosystems to produce multiple benefits was a primary concern of the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)’s Regional Rice Initiative in Asia in 2013.

31.5.10 Borobudur tourism park and village tourism, Indonesia

RT is a tool for rural economic regeneration. The Borobudur Temple in Indonesia is a popular attraction with about 3 million visitors per annum. The temple is the major attraction but there are many other rural attractions in the villages around Borobudur. The initiatives to encourage tourism in and around the village have paid dividends. Tourists now visit surrounding villages and absorb the serenity of the rural scene. They enjoy traditional art performances, see and try pottery making, see the tofu home industry and the beautiful rural landscape. This initiative was made by the villagers, local tourism operators and tourist guides to use tourism to promote village development.

31.6 Challenges and opportunities for rural tourism

There are challenges, opportunities, and risks in RT that can affect its future viability as a tool for rural development. Changes are needed in tourism policies, institutional arrangements, products and services, and marketing and promotional features to make RT an economically viable rural development approach. First and foremost, RT must be properly conceptualized to empower local people and reduce leakages to avoid dependency on the center. Several definitions of RT can be problematic, and greater clarity of the concept may be necessary to facilitate better communication and implementation.

The sustainability of RT requires the reduction of undesirable impacts on the natural, historical, cultural, and social environment by developing an appropriate balance among the economic, social, and environmental aspects. RT without proper safeguards is not a sustainable development strategy (Lane, 1994; Kim & Jamal, 2015; Hall et al., 2003). The government must promote policies to improve cooperation between RT markets and the community for their well-being. Wilson (2001) argues that the development of sustainable RT cannot be achieved without local participation and a close working relationship with the local community to support nature conservation. Greater local participation is essential for tourism revenue to stay in local hands. RT must ensure a positive experience for local people, tourism companies, and tourists themselves. A top-down approach to the development and management of RT is not appropriate to promote locally inspired initiatives. Cultural heritage is a valuable yet vulnerable and non-renewable resource. Continuous monitoring to minimize the damage associated with RT to maintain a meaningful experience is imperative.

Rural stakeholders lack the management skills to develop quality tourism experiences and the service skills of villages must be improved to create destination human capital (Roberts & Hall, 2001). Destination human capital improves the tourism experience, generates quality tourism-related services, and enhances benefits for all stakeholders, to ensure sustainable revenues. Many rural communities in Asia rely on agriculture and have a limited understanding of how to stimulate tourism demand. RT has links to food tasting, wine tourism, organic agriculture, etc. (Everett & Aitchison, 2008; Sims, 2009). RT amongst small enterprises faces environmental and market forces, and a lack of raw materials and skills can exacerbate these effects.

In rural areas, the government can support the development and marketing of RT and rural products to help RT development. Upgrading accommodation and infrastructures...
(Douglas et al., 2001), product packaging, distribution, and the establishment of partnerships and networks are critical in helping communities to grow demand for their tourism products. The healthy and viable development of RT requires a system of standards to be set and enforced to meet the needs of the market and to lift the quality of service and management. The strong link between the natural resource base and RT, the unpredictability of weather, seasons, and other natural phenomena can affect the smooth operation of RT and contingency plans must be put in place to face these inevitabilities.

Rural communities are characterized by poverty and alternative revenue will play an important role in the revitalization of these areas, creating new employment to alleviate poverty and offering opportunities to family enterprises (Hall et al., 2003). The distribution of new economic benefits of RT must be managed, particularly in the early stages. Transparency, institutional arrangements, and partnerships must be forged between local civil society and private sector operators, as well as municipal, provincial, and national authorities, to ensure equity in the distribution of benefits.

RT may be constrained by poor infrastructure and communication and a lack of basic necessities such as water and electricity. Opportunities for private enterprises are high for RT entrepreneurs. Many youths have migrated to cities and, hence, there is a severe shortage of rural labour and skills for rural activities. The nature of agriculture has changed and demands new managerial skills in marketing and financial management. Rural areas lack these skills and such gaps need to be identified and created within the community. The tourism industry itself can provide support to enhance these skills through cooperative ventures.

Rural areas often experience effective communication, which is important for improving RT. Information exchange with the outside world is still in its infancy, creating obstacles to marketing rural RT. RT can achieve economic benefits by clearly identifying efficient information and communication technologies (ICT) to market their products. However, ICT is still poor in many Asian countries because of rural connectivity.

Proper planning of RT is difficult due to the shortage of robust information on environmental, cultural, and social aspects. Inadequate knowledge and a lack of proper methodologies and education further constrain proper promotion and management of RT. These may slow down evaluation of the value of rural capital, the nature of the demand for RT, and better decision-making, thereby constraining progress of RT (Herath, 2002).

RT requires strong political leadership and contributions from the government to ensure the financial viability of all operations. Governments pursue short-term profitability, instead of focussing on long term needs of sustainability. The tourism industry itself is profit motivated and these groups have political power and influence with governments (Schianetz et al., 2007). This can lead to rent-seeking and can undermine poverty alleviation and social equity efforts. Thus, a robust institutional framework with sound governance principles is imperative for generating productive RT projects.

Concern for the economic and social welfare of Indigenous peoples and respecting the dignity and diversity of other cultures, as well as the social inclusion of the most vulnerable groups in the local communities, is important. Social needs should address the needs of all groups enjoying tourism under the same conditions (disabled or elderly persons, etc.), respect the local village’s culture, and develop local infrastructure within sustainability criteria.

Tourism is affected by tourists’ behaviour, especially in regard to sensitive cultural and natural assets. Government laws, policies, and incentives are inadequate in reducing pollution, environmental protection and social equity. RT development can generate significant waste and wastewater, which must be managed to avoid increased pollution and a loss of natural beauty (Anctil & Blanc, 2016). Countries such as Korea, Japan and China have shown...
that RT can be made an attractive rural development strategy (Hall et al., 2003; Thompson, 2004; Lee & Nam, 2005; Gao et al., 2009).

### 31.7 Concluding remarks

RT is a useful tool but many challenges will occur in promoting and implementing it. It is complex and a lack of planning skills, data, information, etc. can lead to incoherence amongst the economic, social, and environmental dimensions. Thus, enhanced education and knowledge and adequate planning skills must be developed. Political will is important and policymakers must provide incentive and support necessary for investment to occur. It is recommended that (a) small rural business communities should be helped to maintain the sustainability of the sector and (b) they should be supported by government grants, soft loans, etc. Education can ensure responsible behaviours of tourists and the community and a greater appreciation of the need to preserve the rural environment. Managers must enhance awareness of the facilities already available for waste management, recycling, and conservation of nature. Climate change will be a serious issue and adaptation measures must be supported for rural sustenance. All in all, RT is achievable, provided that adequate attention is paid to the adverse impacts of tourism.

### References


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