Issues and Challenges in Nurturing Sustainable Rural Tourism Development

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ABSTRACT

The majority of the world’s population live in underdeveloped rural areas, which are a concern among many people. On one hand disadvantaged rural population inevitably seek regeneration of livelihood and socio-economic empowerment, on the other hand large numbers of natural and manmade resources in rural areas are highly vulnerable to developmental interventions. Hence, ensuring sustainable development in rural areas in conjunction with increasing developmental needs is a predominant challenge. Alongside, tourism has been widely recommended as a development strategy for underdeveloped areas. Emerging alternative tourism approaches are suggested for development in rural areas. This paper aims to elucidate the issues and challenges faced by rural areas in developing alternative tourism with respect to sustainability. The study adopts a content analysis approach, reviewing documented data in either printed or electronic versions. The documents printed with alternative tourism dimension in rural areas, are purposefully selected for the study. The interpretations and findings are elicited from different settings of the rural areas, which are embodied with diverse natural and human elements. The study was able to reveal different issues and challenges, brought forward by previous researchers who deal with different geographical settings of the world. This illuminates the gap between implementation of alternative tourism and reaching the goals of sustainable tourism development in rural areas.

Keywords: rural livelihood, developmental strategy, socio-economic regeneration, rural sustainability

INTRODUCTION

Development is the factor that determines the quality of human life and environment, either in developed or developing countries. Development in rural areas has been given increased attention over the past decade globally (Bryden and Bollman, 2000; OECD, 1993). Kaplan (1999) states that the development is meant to push the underdeveloped communities or counties politically and economically toward developed status. This economic and political integrative perspective in development brought many changes and restructurings in the form of modernization. However, these changes and restructurings were more disruptive and started to degrade socio-culture and environment of rural areas rapidly (Jenkins et al., 1998). Otherwise, development failed to decrease inequality between poor and rich and increased ecological and sociological problems. This led the people to define development as unsustainable (Kaplan, 1999). However, tourism is also integrated into development as a strategic tool with the influence of modernization theory and neo liberalistic approach (Awang, 2006; Bandara, 2001; Scheyvens, 2002). This is further emphasized by many other authors such as Bandara (2001), Cater (1987), de Kadt (1979), Erbes (1973), Hall (1995), Harrison (2001), Jenkins (1991), Mbaiwa (2003) and Moscardo (2008), underline potential contribution of
tourism to economic development. Yet, Scheyvens (2002) claims that tourism is expected to encourage social development through the spread of new skills and technology and development of infrastructure development. Beside, Bandara (2001) observes tourism that helps to protect fauna and flora, archaeological or historical monuments and sites through beautification, value addition and appreciation of natural and manmade environment.

However, over visitation, unlimited resource utilization and negative impacts of tourism have led planners to rethink about tourism development (Spanoudis, 1982). Further, Cater (1987) and Stabler (1997) describe the socio-cultural and environmental adverse effects that were brought together with the growth of tourism in destinations. This caused rapid diminishing and degradation of environment and socio-culture, and transformed the development into unsustainable practice in rural areas. In subsequence, tourism planning and development is inclined to determine the sustainability to maintain the balance between human and environmental variables (Cater, 1987). However, objectives of sustainable tourism could not be attained through the integration of sustainability with existing conventional tourism (Sharpley, 2000; Turner, 1992). Nevertheless, sustainable tourism and ecotourism became buzz words for travel agencies, tour operating companies and governments (McMinn, 1997). In rectification, D’Hautserre(2005) recommends alternative or soft tourism as a path to sustainability since conventional tourism is unable to resolve challenges of sustainability. Alternative tourism which is with different labels and names are suggested to replace the existing conventional tourism and ensure sustainability (Weaver, 2006). This led the rural areas to embrace alternative tourism for nurturing sustainable development.

STUDY METHOD

As this study intends to bring forth the documentary realities through qualitative approach, it adopts the content analysis method (Atkinson and Coffey, 2004; Merriam 2009; Yin, 2009) to research on the phenomenon. The study explores previous research reports with diverse titles ranging from rural development, tourism in rural areas, and alternative tourism, to issues and challenges in tourism development in rural areas. Research documents either in printed or in electronic version were selected through judgemental sampling techniques (Creswell, 1998; Marshall, 1996; Merrium, 2009; Wilmot, 2012). The study embodies descriptive analysis to explicate naturalistic interpretation of different researchers from different rural settings in the world. The rich description on the phenomenon of analysis enabled the study to derive the many issues and challenges in nurturing rural sustainable development through alternative tourism.

Underdeveloped Rural Areas

In rural areas of many developing countries, people live with poor social and economic infrastructure and they generally depend on agricultural based traditional livelihood. Theoretically they can access to the plentiful natural and manmade resources that are right around their dwellings. On the other hand, the terms rural, peripheral and countryside are used interchangeably by many authors. It is within this spatial realm that researchers such as Cánoves et al. (2004), Frochot (2005), Garrod et al. (2006), Nilsson (2002), Sharpely (2002) and Walford (2001), address accorded issues. However, each of these terms possesses inherent differences in sense and interpretation for example: ‘Rural’ is generally meant to underdeveloped or socio-economically underprivileged areas. ‘Peripheral’ is meant to less prioritized areas out of urban and city centres. And ‘countryside’ is meant to spaces comprising natural, built and socio-cultural resources different to urban. Yet, defining and delineating the rural areas have become complicated. There is no clear definition for rural areas (Page et al., 2001). People consider rural area as what is not urban or non-urban rather understanding really what construct it (Frochot, 2005). Nilsson (2002) argues that the attractiveness of countryside lies in what urban life cannot offer. Page et al. (2001) add that the countryside...
symbolizes a lost ‘golden age’, whereby someone can find everything there that urban areas lack. Tribe et al. (2000) identify the rural area as an unchanged and natural place which still remains with certain societal values, national identity and heritage unfounded in urban settings. Rural area is besieged with poorly developed agrarian-based life, below the average living standard, but unspoiled atmosphere, filled with diverse natural and built environment. Such population is content with simple traditional rural lifestyle. However, Roberts and Hall (2001) noted that the constant state of change and restructuring due to the appearance of many industries including tourism abstain the rural societies from embracing traditional attributes continuously. This also led to a decline in the importance of agriculture while increasing the importance for post-industrial services. In addition, Keanfssey (2001) argues that the countryside is increasingly viewed as both a commodity in itself and a symbol that may be attached with particular places, people, products, and lifestyles. Moreover, Cánoves et al. (2004) state that increasing rural incomes, and the aftermath of it rising living standards have modified the image of rural area from a backward and close society to a more modern one.

Although developmental interventions foster restructurings and changes in rural area, the rural population still seek for development to overcome their socio-economic challenges. At this juncture, population is the key factor to determine the developmental needs of rural areas. Meyer (2003) states that poor people in rural areas are more in numbers and proportion in comparison to increasing number of urban poor people. Further, Todaro and Smith (2006) underline, that over two-third of world’s poorest people are located in rural areas and subsistence agriculture is their source of livelihood. Alongside, rural areas have been perceived with increasing unemployment, falling agricultural income and economic marginalization of smaller farms since the end of World War II (Page et al, 2001). Many other authors such as Fleicher and Pizam (1997), Sharpley (2002), (2003), Tribe et al. (2000) and Timothy (2005) also witness these setbacks while adding that outmigration of youth in rural areas is due to such conditions. Brown and Hall (1999) indicate that rural areas are located further distance from core area, lacking political power and having disadvantages of economic development. Supporting this, McDonald and Jolliffe (2003) state, that rural areas and peripheries in the form of small islands continuously face challenges of economic development. Prevailing remoteness and underdevelopment constrain the options for economic development further (Liu, 2006). Any of the development strategies launched in rural areas previously could not adequately anticipate socio-economic and environmental needs.

In interpreting the deficiency of developmental interventions, Reardon et al. (2001) argue that rural non-farming activities such as indirect and unskilled employment opportunities and other local goods and service supply opportunities from industrial sector are equivalent to subsistence farming which comprises with low productivity, low wages, unstable and poor growth potential. Evens (1981) recognizes that the industrial products dominate the agricultural products due to unequal benefit distribution in the market and institutional structure or trading relationship. In addition, during the post-industrial era only a little percentage of rural population were employed for unskilled and semiskilled jobs and majority of the manpower brought from outside. Nevertheless decentralization of manufacturing and large scale rural industrialization increased employments in some parts of the world, namely in the United States of America (Summers and Branch, 1984). In consequence, the stagnation and retrogression of economic life in rural areas conceive core problems of widespread poverty, growing inequality, rapid population growth, and rising unemployment (Todaro and Smith, 2006). This confirms failure of industrialization in providing the solutions for increasing problem of marginalization that was caused by the economic restructuring, a regenerating strategy of rural socio-economy (Müller and Jansson, 2007). As mitigation, rural development process incorporates the integration between agriculture and industrial sectors in order to eradicate wide spread poverty, income inequality and unemployment (Todaro and Smith, 2006). However, such integration has not achieved success, since peripheral areas are distance away from core spheres of activity and have

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poor market accessibility (Brown and Hall, 1999). In exploring suitable strategy for integrated rural development, McClinchery and Carmichael (2010) reveal that the assets which are used for traditional agriculture in rural areas may also be used interchangeably for tourism and agriculture, instead of being kept separately. In contrast to the core, the deficiencies undergone by the other industries would be portrayed as positive image for tourism in rural areas to overcome developmental challenges (Irvine and Anderson, 2007), while increasing novelty and exorcism or opportunity for tourists to escape (Pearce, 2002). Rural areas may be economically underprivileged but their richness in environmental features together with alternative utility of traditional livelihood befits tourism.

**Embarkation of Tourism in Rural Areas**

Natural and manmade geography of rural landscape engender the potential for tourism. Fredrick (1993) explicates historical interests, mountains and other places of natural beauty, pleasant environment and clean air as significant characteristics of rural areas. While, Nilsson (2002:8) ‘delineates the countryside as an incarnation of calm and reflection, with a trait of backwardness and a lifestyle, different from an urban perspective that an outcome from an environment once dominated by peasants in an old idealized picture of the farmer that has not totally disappeared’. Frochot (2005) argues that rural space is an ideal place that can provide alternative to stressful urban rhythms. This allows the visitors to enjoy peacefulness, simplicity and authenticity. Irvine and Anderson (2007) interpret the tourism in rural areas, comprises with natural beauty, quaintness, otherness, non-industrialization, distance and an absence of core activities that create value in the consumer’s eye. Cánoves et al. (2004) note that the tourism development in rural areas is determined by different elements such as ‘naturophilia, rural roots, a positive image of the rural environment, quality and authenticity, increased mobility and access, cultural changes in post modern society, changes in tourist market, and tourist experience’ (p.756). Further, they state that rural tourism is an image or a set of images constructed by the tourists and sellers throughout the history, geography and culture of the territory. Unlike other industries tourism in rural areas reconceptualise the natural and human geographical characteristics such as natural landscapes, history, ethnography, anthropology and demography (Garrod et al., 2006). This induces countryside capitalization rather than external investment on facility development.

Interest in countryside recreation grew in the nineteenth century as a reaction to the stress and squalor of the expanding industrial cities (OECD, 1994). Pearce (2002) points out that tourism has been spread into more remote and peripheral areas over the last few decades progressively. Kearsly (1998) argues that the downfall syndrome in rural farming and agriculture due to global economic recession fostered the tourism to become an attractive preposition for rural communities. Otherwise, this is a result of the downturn of rural economies and the struggle to keep pace with and adapt to the vagaries of globalized economy (Hall and Jenkins, 1998). Alongside increasing attention has been paid to assess the role and impacts of tourism on the development of those areas. Tourism in rural areas is growing as a valuable and significant segment of overall tourism market, representing as an important income source of rural economy (Hummelbrunner and Miglbauer, 1994). Slee et al. (1997) recognize that overall well-being of rural population in Britain more depend on tourism than the agriculture. Furthermore, tourism has been recognized as a development alternative for peripheral areas (Müller and Jansson, 2007). Prospective of tourism in rural areas more integrated common development objective than commercial entrepreneurship orientation.

In distinguishing the arrival of tourism in rural areas, Cánoves et al. (2004) noted that the rural tourism development has been taken place in different stages. Initially as a social function, interlinking families and it was taken as an instrument for regional development. And finally as a

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product, it was commodified due to demands from the tourists. In addition, allocentric perceptions (Plog, 1974, 1990) and attitudinal changes of tourists in the world heighten the demand for rural tourism (Davies and Gilbert, 1992). While, Gill (1998) argues that the tourism development in rural areas is differentiated through, natural and cultural resource endowment, location, competition, entrepreneurial activity, and institutional arrangements. Yet, recognizing tourism as a development option Hall and Jenkins (1998:28) suggest that the expansion of tourism into rural areas must be designed to achieve one or more of the following goals:

- to sustain and create local incomes, employment and growth
- to contribute to the cost of providing economic and social infrastructure
- to encourage the development of other industrial sectors
- to contribute to local residents amenities and services
- to contribute to the conservation of environmental and cultural resources

They observe the outcome of the above goals as tangible benefits for rural areas. McAreavey and McDonagh (2010: 177) also illuminate those benefits, which are derived from tourism and its integration into the rural products. This generally ensures a greater spread in terms of who can benefit economically, socially and culturally. Hall (2007) adds the inaccessibility and low population base that are blessed with natural amenity values, often perceived as basis for nature-based tourism and wilderness conservation. Diversified broader approach of tourism encompasses many facets of rural development while anticipating the different expectation of visitors.

However, fragile and susceptible nature of rural fabric is disinclined to accommodate large volume mass tourism. Müller and Jansson (2007) find less favourable climatic conditions, limited population, restricted accessibility and many other factors as barriers in rural areas to develop mass tourism. Alternative tourism as active holiday has turned the rural areas into an important segment of tourism and recreation (Tribe, et al, 2000). This is multifaceted with nature holidays, eco-tourism, adventure, sport and health tourism, educational travel, arts and heritage tourism and, ethnic tourism (Reichel et al., 2000). Nonetheless, agriculture and farming are the roots of tourism in rural areas. Moreover, Ioannides’s (1995) study on influences of community participation and integrated vision on the success of sustainable tourism development in Akamas, Cyprus confirms that alternative tourism is the suitable form for rural sustainable development. As for illumination of this interpretation Unwin (1996) notes the significance of rural tourism development in Estonia with respect to sustainable development.

**Alternative Tourism in Rural Areas**

In mitigating negative impacts of conventional mass tourism, tourism researchers and developers engender a number of alternative tourism products (Scheyvens, 2002), which emerge as antithesis to conventional mass tourism (Weaver, 1991). While, there is no universally accepted standard uniform meaning for alternative tourism (Awang et al., 2012), yet, intuitively people are tolerant and actively supportive for this form of tourism, even though they cannot understand the real meaning (Butler, 1990). Dernoi (1981) distinguishes alternative tourism with many characteristics such as:

- **i)** Tourists stay within local population and channel the revenue directly to the communities or individual families.
- **ii)** Often supported by local or international funding to upgrade the facilities.
- **iii)** Individual and families are able to acquire managerial skills and entrepreneurial spirit.
- **iv)** Upgrade local housing standard.
- **v)** Help to prevent environmental deterioration.
vi) Minimize the public expenses on infrastructure development such as roads, electricity and telecommunication.

In addition, Butler (1990) recognizes that alternative tourism is alternative to large numbers, tasteless and ubiquitous development, environmental and social alienation and homogenization of mass institutionalized tourism. Weaver (2001) argues that the mass sustainable tourism practices are embraced with more standards and regulations than alternative tourism. However, alternative tourism comprises with three essential characteristics (Ibid). Firstly, it emphasizes on natural environment as primary attraction. Secondly, appreciate or educate relationship with the attractions. Thirdly, a reasonable weight of alternative tourism is on socio-cultural, environmental and economical sustainability.

Alternative tourism proposes a sustainable integration of diverse natural and manmade geographical resources with allocentric perception of tourists into number of forms that substantiate the standard stereo type conventional mass tourism. Alternative tourism is the generic term encompasses a range of tourism forms such as ‘eco’, ‘agro’, ‘farm’, ‘culture’, ‘community’, rural tourism (Scheyvens, 2002; Weaver, 1991). As for example ‘rural tourism’, takes place in the countryside with amalgamation of rustic rural life and basic facilities (Page et al., 2001). ‘Ecotourism’, entails in environmental and ecological consideration that ensure the conservation and preservation. ‘Community tourism’, takes place within the local community, who are socio-economically empowered through tourism. Alternative tourism is often embodied with different theme dissimilar to mass tourism. Dernoi (1981) distinguishes alternative tourism from conventional mass tourism very clearly through nature, scope, structure and operation. In addition, Weaver (1991) illustrates differences between conventional tourism and alternative tourism in conjunction with accommodation, market and economy as prevalent components of tourism industry. However many authors such as Butler (1991), Liu (2003) and Scheyvens, (2002) argue that prevailing alternative tourism products do not contribute much for the desired goals of sustainable development. And they are just new labelling for same old mass tourism or creating new ways to encroach and exploit unsoiled natural and human geography.

**Challenges and Issues in Nurturing Alternative Tourism**

Although alternative tourism is envisaged sustainable development in rural areas, challenges and issues are prevalent in materializing alternative tourism through existing conventional tourism organizations such as tour operators, travel agencies and resort owners. Jenkins and Parrot (1997) state (as cited in Mitchell and Hall, 2005:4) some major issues, such as lack of understanding and knowledge on demand factors, incapability of product presentation, and constraints in marketing, cooperation and networking in rural tourism development. McClincheys & Carmichael (2010) also have documented the issues of tourism development in rural areas. While, Simpson (2008) identifies the problems that are generated within a community to threaten its stability and harmony in addition to other factors that menace socio-cultural, environmental and economic sustainability. The major issues and challenges in developing tourism in rural areas are based on two factors. One is inherent rural characteristics and the other one is inception and operation of tourism. Components of rural settings such as demographic, economic, geographic and political conditions engender the intrinsic challenges. Inceptive and operational activities such as initiation, designing, development, marketing and materialization cause extrinsic issues and challenges. Stoian and Stoicea (2011) refer to some key challenges: First, preserve and conserve resources through setting limits on their usage. Second, develop a balanced tourism activity, both temporally and spatially. Third, equitable sharing of local revenue derived from tourism. And fourth, convince local tourism actors on the economic viability to invest in rural tourism.

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Briedenhann and Wickens (2004) observes some inherent issues such as landownership, underdeveloped economy, lack of entrepreneurial expertise and managerial skill, and capital for infrastructure development in developing and managing tourism in rural areas of South Africa. Keller (1987) reveals that the lack of manpower and expertise for tourism in rural areas as the major obstruction for tourism development. In addition, Liu (2006), Long and Lane (2000) UNNGO and Steering Committee (1999) recognize lack of understanding. Kokkraniakal and Baum (2002) add cultural prejudice as a barrier. As a result they observe that rural communities unable to participate and benefit from tourism. Supporting this, Butler (1990) underlines that perpetrating alternative tourism without clear understanding on the end result potentially be more harmful for a destination and population than no development or even limited mass tourism. Furthermore, Keller (1987) argues that development and controlling of tourism beyond local capacity would cause imbalance between socio-culture, environment and economy. Hence enhancing human and physical capacities is the primary challenge to instigate alternative tourism development in rural areas.

The above intrinsic issue becomes pull factor for outside entrepreneurs to enter into rural areas, where tourism potentials are discovered with poor capacity and capability of rural setting. Tribe et al. (2000) argue that the creation of new business opportunities encourage the invasion of urban population towards rural areas. Britton (1982) describe tourism as one of the new form of industries captured by the privileged commercial and political group in the peripheries along with foreign interest. This leads to dependent social formation and colonial politics in constructing, coordinating, operating and earning profit from development. Hence, rural population lose their sovereignty in planning and decision making over their socio-culture, environment, and economy.

In interpretation of challenges brought by outsiders’ engagement, Hall and Jenkins (1998) indicate the misunderstanding on contributions of tourism for rural development and prosperity. This led many public and private sector interests towards economic development and restructuring of rural areas inappropriately. Page et al. (2001) criticise the prevailing alternative tourism as a new way of sustaining colonial atmosphere that is dominated by external agencies. Until now alternative tourism product are incepted and marketed by traditional resort owners, tourism operators and travel agencies. This prevents tourists from accessing information on preferred products and its location (Liu, 2003). In addition, Cohen (1988) reveals the arbitrage of tourism establishments over the demand and supply. Simpson (2008) criticises attitudes and actions that control local stakeholders. Furthermore, McMinn (1997) refers to neo-colonialism of tourism that embraces only the demand side and ignores the preference and priority of local community. This form of interventions and controlling of external investors, developers and marketers cause conflicts between tourism development and rural setting. Otherwise, excluding rural communities in policy setting and strategy articulation leads to failure of tourism development programme (Lankford, 1994; Pearce, 1980). The stability of this form of tourism development embraces manipulation of settings and replication of actors tremendously.

When travel agency or tour operator intend to anticipate the expectation of diverse clientele, a single place or a product proliferates to different tourists with different name tags regardless socio-culture and environmental integration. Williams and Macleod (2005: 39) claim that “the material nature of the production and consumption of tourism converts peripheral characteristics into components of socio-economic development, to be used as a means to reduce or overcome the peripheral disadvantages”. In contrast, Liu (2003) argues that the inventing and relabeling the side-shoots of mass tourism as alternative tourism lead to demise the authenticity further and ruin sustainability in the rural areas. Cohen (1988) argues that the tourism establishments dominated tourist industry misleads tourists to believe in contrived attractions as ‘authentic’ by providing a ‘false touristic picture’. This undermines consistency and authenticity and turned back to staged authenticity (MacCannell, 1973). In addition, Cánoves et al. (2004) argue that the artificial
presentation of the rural tourism products diminish the essential quality, which is the authenticity. Instead of showing the real scenario, that is modified and reproduced by the entrepreneurs, marketing agents, tour operators, travel guides in order to reflect tourists’ expectation (Hughes, 1995; Tucker, 2001; Liu, 2003). At this juncture tourists and community play only a passive role and the active role is played by tourism establishments as the perpetrators of the tourism show. Confirming this, Simpson’s (1993) study on heritage and ritual in southern coast of Sri Lanka elucidates considerable ingenuity and manipulation of traditional knowledge and skills. McClinchey and Carmichael (2010) observe the commodification of rural heritage and landscape through tourism development in Mennonite Country of Waterloo and Wellington regions. Similarly Ali pour et al. (2011) study in Semnan Province of Iran elucidates the cultural drift and commodification, distortion of traditional craft and performance of product and cultural manifestation due to rural tourism development. Eventually this form of tourism also leads to destruction and degradation of local socio-culture and environments as like as unsustainable mass tourism.

Constantly, distinguishing economic gains and ignoring ecological balancing become constraints for tourism development, even though tourism programmes are initiated in rural areas with the notion of sustainability (McAreavey and McDonagh, 2010). Mitchell and Hall (2005) underline that ad hoc development and ignorance of environmental impacts, demand conditions and competition or supply side consideration lead to encounter the issues of sustainability in rural areas. Overarching only the economic viability of tourism programmes may harm the environmental resources and social fabrics on which rural sustainable development depends (McAreavey and McDonagh, 2010; Swarbrooke, 1999). Integrating or fitting alternative forms of tourism into existing rural setting is another challenge for the developers and policy makers.

Introducing tourism into rural areas can result in conflict with existing activities or fit into them as a complimentary activity to diversify the economy. This creates positive or negative linkage with forms of product, or sometime both situations can be occurred (Tao & Wall, 2009). Regeneration and empowerment of socio-economy may evacuate people from traditional sources of survival while uplifting the living standard. However, over emphasizes on economic potentiality of tourism leads to replace agriculture (the traditional livelihood) with tourism (alternative industry) in rural areas (McAreavey and McDonagh, 2010). Further, de la Torre and Gutierrez (2008) inform about the possibilities of decrease in traditional agriculture due to increasing rural tourists. In addition, Pandey et al. (1995) Case Study on effect of Tourism on Culture and Environment in Chitwan-Sauraha and Pokhara-Ghanderuk Rural Villages in Nepal screen the impact and changes brought by tourism into the socio-culture, environment and economy of rural areas. As tourism fosters sectoral shift or changes in existing setting of rural landscape, Slee et al. (1997) argue that the tourism has been recognized as a legitimate component of rural restructuring. This leads to decline quality of rural landscape, which determines the tourists’ demand.

In addition to socio-cultural and environmental issues, increasing demand for goods and service in the local market causes prize hike and increase the cost of living of rural population (Ali pour et al., 2011; de la Torre and Gutierrez, 2008). Although, researches do not elicit issues encountered through negative economic impacts of prevailing form alternative tourism, this may contribute for regional based inflation due to excessive demand for limited local goods and services. The study of Slee et al. (1997) in Badenoch and Strathpey in highland region Scotland has well documented economic benefits of different types of tourism development in rural areas. Yet, their study has not paid attention into tourism induced inflation in the region. In addition, Hall and Jenkins (1998) also illustrate many possible economic related outcomes that doesn’t include possible negative outcome of tourism in rural areas.
CONCLUSION

Development is the key element in determining quality of human life. Yet, development in rural areas is under-privileged due to various developmental dilemmas, such as downs fall of traditional livelihood, declining in natural resources and impacts of globalization. The critical need of regeneration and socio-economic empowerment leverage the large scale industrialization as the major developmental intervention in rural areas during the last few decades. Tourism industry was also one of the development strategies adopted by the developing countries under the influence of neo-liberalistic approach and modernization theory. However, mass tourism began to affect the socio-cultural, environmental and economic sustainability of rural areas as like as other industries. In subsequence, alternative forms of tourism have emerged to substantiate unsustainable mass tourism and ensure the sustainability. Developmental needs and well-situated natural and human geographical setting of rural areas persuade the embarkation of alternative tourism in rural areas. In addition, mass tourism conquered urban settings infringe the materialization of alternative tourism. However, lack of human and physical capacity in rural settings led to show up the alternative tourism through same old conventional mass tourism channels. Although integrating alternative tourism into rural development as an alternative strategy shows a viable condition, inappropriate inception and execution of alternative tourism may cause adverse effects similar or worse than mass tourism. Hence, overcoming the issues and challenges determine the nurturing of rural sustainable development through alternative tourism.

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