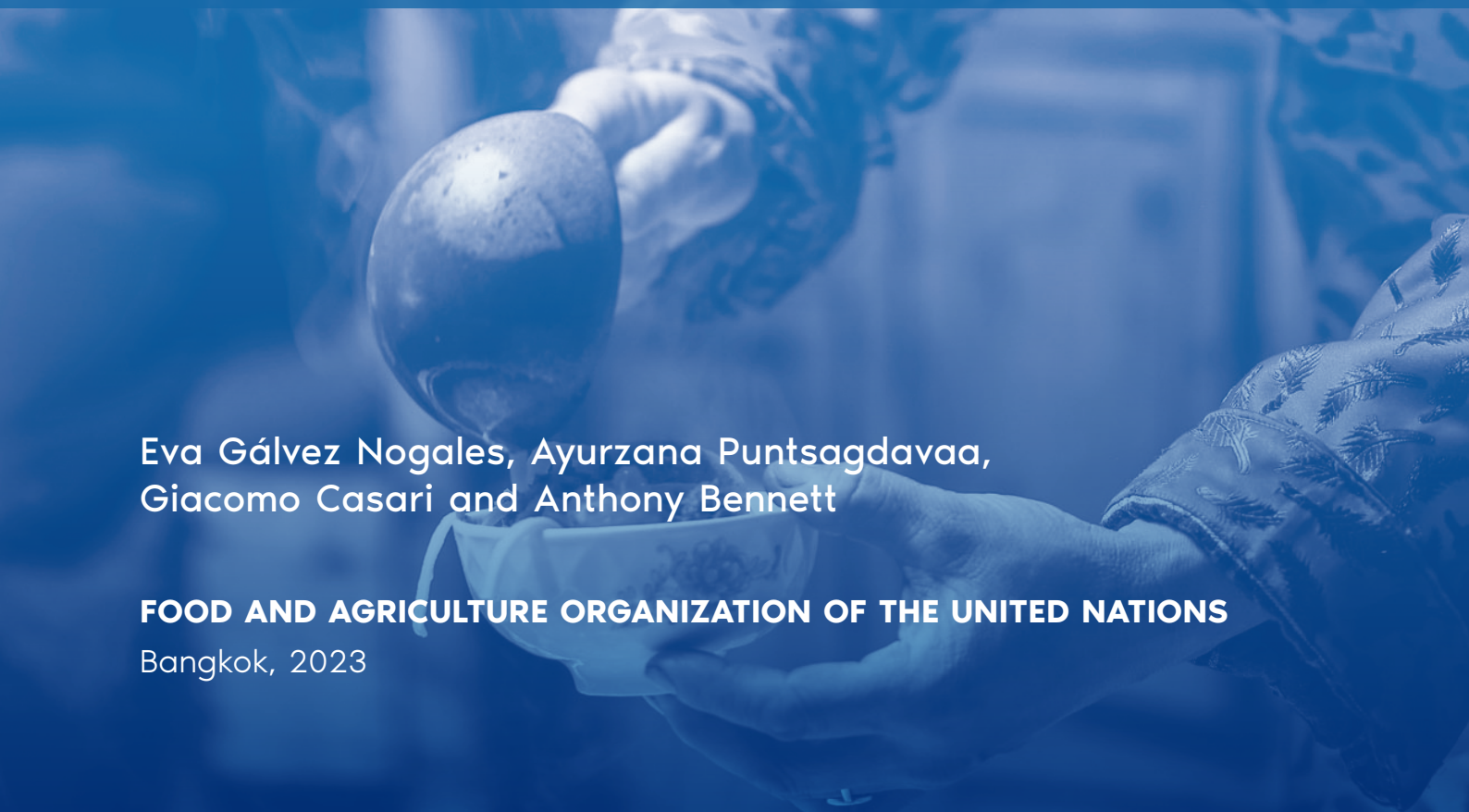
Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations

LINKING AGRICULTURE AND TOURISM TO STRENGTHEN AGRIFOOD SYSTEMS IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

LINKING AGRICULTURE AND TOURISM TO STRENGTHEN AGRIFOOD SYSTEMS IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC



Eva Gálvez Nogales, Ayurzana Puntsagdavaa,
Giacomo Casari and Anthony Bennett

FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS
Bangkok, 2023

Required citation:
Gálvez Nogales, E., Puntsagdavaa, A., Casari, G. & Bennett, A. 2023. Linking agriculture and tourism to strengthen agrifood systems in Asia and the Pacific. Bangkok, FAO. https://doi.org/10.4060/cc7124en

ISBN 978-92-5-138026-0

Required citation: Gálvez, E., Puntsagdavaa, A., Casari, G. and Bennett, A. 2023. Linking agriculture and tourism to strengthen agrifood systems in Asia and the Pacific. Bangkok, FAO. https://doi.org/

Cover photograph: © FAO/K.Purevraqchaa

CONTENTS

BOXES

FIGURES

TABLES

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors of this publication would like to extend their sincere thanks to the management team of the Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) and other colleagues for their guidance throughout the drafting process of this document.

This publication has benefitted immensely from the comments and feedback from FAO colleagues, including Takayuki Hagiwara and Illias Animon (FAO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific), Yoshihide Endo and Clelia Maria Puzzo (FAO Secretariat for Globally Important Agricultural Heritage Systems [GIAHS]), Giorgio Grussu, Fabio Parisi and Sara Manuelli (Mountain Partnership Programme), Lijin Zhou and Tingting Li (FAO Representation in China), Makiko Uemoto and Shoko Takahashi (FAO Representation in Japan) and Ryan Vita (FAO Representation in the Philippines).

A special thanks goes to the Southeast Asian Regional Center for Graduate Study and Research in Agriculture (SEARCA), which led the field data collection and the compilation of the case studies for Chapter 2, under the leadership of Pedcris M. Orencio.

The book also benefited from invaluable contributions from other organizations involved in the development of food and agricultural tourism. The team would like to thank Christine Brew (United Nations World Tourism Association, Regional Department for Asia and the Pacific), Mihee Kang (Asia-Pacific, Global Sustainable Tourism Council), Sun Yehong (Tourism College of Beijing Union University, China), Yoshiyuki Taira (Minabe Town Ume Division, Minabe-Tanabe Regional Association for GIAHS Promotion) and Zhang Zhaofang (Center of International Cooperation Service, Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs, China) for sharing their perspectives, experience and expertise.

The document was edited by Ellen Pay. Nuanpan Chaoprakoon coordinated the production process, from the editing to the design and layout.

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ADB	Asian Development Bank
ADBI	Asian Development Bank Institute
AMCS	Addu Meedhoo Cooperative Society [Maldives]
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
CAGR	compounded annual growth rate
CBT	community-based tourism
COVID-19	Coronavirus disease 2019
CSA	community-supported agriculture
CSR	corporate social responsibility
CTA	Technical Centre for Agricultural and Rural Cooperation
DMO	destination management organization
ECLAC	United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean
ESCAP	United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
GDP	gross domestic product
GI	geographical indication
GIAHS	Globally Important Agricultural Heritage Systems
GSTC	Global Sustainable Tourism Council
ICT	information and communication technologies
IFC	International Finance Corporation
ITU	International Telecommunication Union
MAFRA	Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs [Republic of Korea]
MSMEs	micro, small and medium-sized enterprises
MTCO	Mekong Tourism Coordinating Office
NTA	national tourism administration/authority
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OVOP	One Village, One Product [movement, Japan]
PATA	Pacific Asia Travel Association
PGS	participatory guarantee system
PPP	public–private partnership
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SEARCA	Southeast Asian Regional Center for Graduate Study and Research in Agriculture
SIDS	Small Island Developing States
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Association
WEF	World Economic Forum
WFTA	World Food Travel Association
WIPO	World Intellectual Property Organization
WTA	World Tourism Alliance
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council

Currencies

USD	dollar of the United States of America

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Agrifood systems in Asia and the Pacific can be strengthened by developing and strengthening agrifood–tourism linkages. When tourism and agrifood systems interact, both synergies and competition arise. Agriculture and tourism compete between them and with other sectors for land, water, labour, capital and transport and logistics services. Intersectoral synergies arise when agriculture and tourism influence each other through their respective demand conditions and changes in the enabling environment.

One entry point to develop agrifood–tourism linkages is the creation of backward linkages between tourism operators, smallholder farmers and other actors in the value chain. Another entry point is fostering the development of agricultural and food tourism – or agrifood tourism for short – as a way to improve income opportunities in both the tourism and agrifood sectors. Intersectoral synergies can help strengthen agrifood systems in the region and address interlinked crises in the post-pandemic era.

This study focuses on building local supply chains for the tourism industry. A survey conducted by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) among over a thousand respondents from six countries in the Asia–Pacific region revealed that one in four tourism businesses were importing most or at least a significant part of their food requirements, resulting in economic leakage. The study revealed the existence of a dual system whereby international hotels and restaurants procure most of their food overseas, whereas national operators rely more on domestic sources. In fact, nearly half of the international hotel chains surveyed imported most of the food they consumed, while almost one-third used a mixed procurement system whereby food was both imported and bought domestically.

The most commonly used suppliers were vendors in local wholesale and retail markets, while supermarkets were also used to source some specific high-value products. Only 20 percent of the respondents purchased food from farmers and their associations. High-end hotels – both foreign- and domestically-owned – engaged more frequently with farmers than smaller, cheaper hotels. Belonging to a chain also increased the chances of building linkages with local farmers due to the existence of corporate social responsibility programmes and a clientele that is more supportive of farm-to-table practices.

This publication describes the different forms that agrifood tourism assumes in Asia and the Pacific, and provides a range of examples of tourism products and services related to gastronomy and attractions in rural environments (i.e. agritourism, agroheritage tourism and community-based tourism). There are few greater joys in life than sitting down to a delicious meal or taking a walk in nature, and thus consumers' demand for food- and agriculture-related tourism experiences is growing markedly. Asia, the world's most populous continent, is well placed to respond to this demand. Not only is the region endowed with a large and diverse range of agricultural and food products, but it also boasts rich culinary traditions and breathtaking agricultural heritage sites.

Conservative estimates put the share of agrifood tourism at more than 12 percent of the total travel and tourism sector, at the global level.[1] Agrifood tourism is growing especially fast in Asia, fueled by several factors. Asia is home to an increasing number of affluent urbanites who want to disconnect from time to time in a natural setting, such as the one offered by agritourism farms. The region is also considered a foodie paradise, with its 100 000 traditional rice varieties still under cultivation, its forest-grown spices, a thousand types of tea and tropical fruits, and fermented beverages and foods like Korean kimchi and Japanese miso. In addition, the region is home to bustling markets and street food stalls.

1 Estimate for 2019, considering a global travel and tourism market of USD 9 630 billion, with food tourism worth USD 1 116.7 billion and agritourism USD 42.6 billion (World Travel and Tourism Council [WTTC], 2022).

Younger generations in particular are keen on eating local foods and exploring new cultures, and seek out authentic, tailor-made tourism experiences linked to nature and food. They enjoy wandering off the beaten path, spending a few nights in local communities, learning how rice or tea are produced and discovering local restaurants far from well-known metropolitan culinary hotspots. Millennials and Generation Z are digital natives who are very active on (food-focused) social media, which have played a critical role in the expansion of agrifood tourism in the region.[2]

As a result, the region has seen an explosion in the offering of food festivals, culinary trails and classes, dining experiences and farm stays, among others. Visitors might attend a cooking class in Thailand, stay on a farm in the Philippines, tour a seafood market in Japan, visit a tea plantation in Sri Lanka or even work for a day in a rice field in Viet Nam. Through these experiences, they get a sense of place, learn about local culinary cultures and ingredients, and engage with local farming communities.

The tourism scene in the Pacific Islands follows a different pattern. Many Pacific Island countries have built a reputation as sun-and-beach tourism destinations, but are now seeking to move towards more sustainable forms of tourism that engage and benefit local communities. Their emphasis now is on building farm-to-table linkages that empower local smallholder producers and on supporting the incipient agritourism sector.

Governments across Asia and the Pacific are increasingly turning their attention towards agrifood tourism and building backward linkages, acknowledging their potential to unleash untapped opportunities. This study highlights the important role that sustainable agrifood–tourism linkages can play in advancing sustainable development in both urban areas (food tourism) and rural areas (mostly agricultural tourism, but also food tourism).

Agrifood–tourism linkages can make a valuable contribution to many destinations in the region by creating opportunities to generate income for farmers and small-scale agricultural and tourism businesses, boosting employment and overall economic growth, promoting sustainable agrifood systems and adding value to local products.

The benefits of agrifood–tourism linkages go beyond the economic dimension. From a social viewpoint, these linkages can help address the hollowing out of rural areas by preventing youth emigration at source, preserving the culinary and agricultural heritage of local communities and reinforcing their cultural identity and pride. They can also provide incentives to adopt environment-friendly practices, such as agroecology, food waste management and the development of shorter agrifood supply chains with smaller environmental footprints.

Developing sustainable agrifood–tourism linkages requires addressing a number of challenges. These range from the lack of skills and investment capital to additional pressure on natural resources, the extra workload (particularly for women), the commoditization and de-authentication of tourism experiences, the rural exodus of (young) workers, and conflicts within local communities that engage in agrifood tourism.

A major source of challenges is the absence of an enabling environment. Indeed, in many rural areas, where agrifood–tourism linkages constitute an important lever for economic development and growth (frequently articulated around farming and agricultural heritage, local gastronomy, culture and outdoor activities), poor transportation and digital connectivity remain a chief hindrance. In addition, the policy, regulatory and institutional frameworks for agrifood tourism in the region are often inadequate, fragmented, outdated and lacking of an integrated approach.

Creating sustainable agrifood–tourism linkages in Asia and the Pacific is also subjected to a number of threats, such as climate change and the COVID-19 and energy crises. The pandemic has severely disrupted the tourism sector with a massive decline in international demand, leading to substantial

2 The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary defines digital native as "a person who was born or has grown up since the use of digital technology became common and so is familiar and comfortable with computers and the internet" (Oxford University Press, 2022).

losses for communities and businesses across the region. Meanwhile, rising energy prices make tourist trips more expensive, and thus reduce demand. These crises have pushed many countries to focus on domestic tourism, which is six times larger than international tourism (UNWTO, 2020a). In parallel, consumer appetites for destinations that are outdoors and less crowded have increased, ushering in new opportunities for agricultural and culinary destinations to rethink their products and services and make them greener and more sustainable.

For these opportunities to be realized, policymakers in the region need to consider a series of critical support measures. To ensure coherence, such measures should be detailed in a strategic plan for agrifood tourism and enhancing the tourism food value chain, at the national level or for specific subnational destinations. A strategic plan is a planning tool that defines the main strategic lines of action to advance agrifood–tourism linkages as drivers of sustainable development. Such a plan requires a common vision and coordination to bring together policymakers from various government departments and administrative levels, destination managers, tourism and agrifood businesses, chefs, farmers and other key stakeholders to successfully position a place as a culinary or agricultural tourism destination.

The plan should foresee targeted investments towards the development of tourism products, make provisions regarding the management and promotion of agrifood tourism destinations, and specify support measures to foster innovation and the development of year-round tourism experiences. The plan should also identify which investments in infrastructure are needed to improve transport connectivity to secondary, rural destinations and enhance the digitalization of the agrifood tourism sector. Furthermore, it should inform the revision of regulatory and policy frameworks through the adoption of an integrated approach that involves multilevel governance, partnerships and active community participation. Ideally, the strategic plan should also contain tailor-made solutions to promote appropriate modalities of agrifood tourism, facilitate the inclusion of local smallholder farmers in the tourism supply chain, and support small- and medium-scale agritourism businesses, particularly those led by women and youths.

Finally, policymakers in the region need to ensure that regular assessments are conducted to minimize the negative impact of tourism on agrifood systems and the environment. They should ensure the optimal management of waste and resources, and develop clear practices to assess and manage the carrying capacity of agricultural destinations.

PART I

SETTING THE SCENE: FOOD, AGRICULTURE AND TOURISM IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

CHAPTER 1: Introduction

KEY MESSAGES

- Tourism can provide an important contribution to the development of thriving agrifood systems by developing linkages with agriculture.
- The lack of knowledge on the linkages between the agriculture, food and tourism sectors constituted a key rationale for conducting this study. The profound transformation that the tourism and agrifood sectors have been undergoing over the past decades – which has been accelerated by the COVID-19 crisis – has made this knowledge gap even more acute.
- The realization of synergies between agriculture and tourism is not automatic, and the linkages between agriculture and tourism per se will not promote the development of either sector. The nature of the tourism and agriculture industries and of their interrelations in each country depend on the types of tourism modalities and agrifood production that are promoted, and must be understood before effective strategies to improve competitiveness can be developed.
- Tourism and agrifood systems are linked and influence each other through demand conditions, factor conditions and changes in the enabling environment. Important linkages are the backward linkages between local smallholder farmers and the tourism industry, as well as the increase in tourism demand driven by the creation of agrifood tourism experiences. Backward linkages refer to the supply chain that links farmers to the existing tourism industry (see Chapter 2).
- Agrifood tourism comprises all travel motivated by the desire to engage in food- and agriculture-based experiences. Agrifood tourists plan their trips partially or entirely with a view to tasting the cuisine of the destination or engaging in activities related to gastronomy and agriculture. Food tourism includes food-related experiences such as visiting food festivals, dining in restaurants, following culinary trails and taking cooking classes (see Chapter 3). Agricultural tourism focuses on experiences linked to farm life, such as agritourism or farmstays, visits to agricultural heritage sites or community-based agricultural tourism (see Chapter 4).
- Agrifood tourism represents over 12 percent of the total market for travel and tourism worldwide,[3] with Asia being the fastest-growing market. The growing interest in food- and agriculture-themed travel in Asia and the Pacific is driven by multiple factors. These include a surge in the number of overall travellers, increased incomes in the region, evolving visitor demand, the explosion of food-focused media and social media, the development of enabling technologies, and an increase in government initiatives to promote food tourism and agritourism destinations.
- Agrifood tourism has been heralded as a modality of tourism with great potential for generating synergies and jumpstarting a virtuous cycle of linkages between agrifood systems and the tourism industry, through multiple pathways.
- The COVID-19 outbreak has driven agrifood tourism forward, showing that there is still untapped potential to realize, and much to rebuild, in the region.

3 Estimate for 2019, considering a global travel and tourism market of USD 9 630 billion, with food tourism worth USD 1 116.7 billion and agritourism USD 42.6 billion (World Travel and Tourism Council [WTTC], 2022).

1.1. LAYING OUT THE STRUCTURE AND SCOPE OF THIS PUBLICATION

Key objectives

The premise of this report is that tourism can provide crucial contributions to the development of thriving agrifood systems by building on the linkages between agriculture and tourism – two sectors of great socioeconomic importance. The linkages between tourism and agrifood systems are relevant for anyone studying the major challenges facing Asia and the Pacific today, including food security, climate change, sustainability, rural development and poverty alleviation (Everett, 2016).

This publication aims to answer two fundamental questions. First, what are the linkages between the agrifood and tourism sectors in the Asia–Pacific region? Second, what kind of arrangements are needed to build stronger, healthier and more sustainable links between the food and agriculture sector and the tourism sector in the region? As the region's food and tourism sectors grow at a fast pace, policymakers and industry leaders are becoming increasingly aware of the opportunities and challenges these sectors have in common, including the need to become greener and more sustainable.

An evident link between agriculture and tourism is the value chain that supplies food products to tourism operators such as hotels, restaurants and caterers. Food and beverages account for one-third of tourism expenditure; the importance of this value chain is therefore undeniable (Telfer and Wall, 2000). The key issue remains how to unlock the sectors' vast synergistic potential.

This publication identifies food and agricultural tourism – or agrifood tourism for short – as a key piece of this puzzle. Agrifood tourism combines the traditional concept of food or gastronomy tourism (i.e. food-motivated travel [Everett, 2016]) and agricultural tourism, which provides experiences focusing on enjoying farm life, visiting agricultural heritage sites or getting to know farming communities.

It is far from easy to clearly define agrifood tourism, given the nature of this complex, ever-changing and multidimensional activity (Everett, 2016). It is a subcategory of special interest tourism, which refers to the pursuit of a specific tourism activity to satisfy a particular interest or market – in this case, food and agriculture. Agrifood tourism is related to (and part of) rural tourism, cultural tourism, creative tourism,[4] heritage tourism and event tourism. It can be segmented into a number of niche markets, such as tea or coffee tourism, cookery school tourism or agritourism, to name but a few. The focus of this publication is on food-related experiences and on some types of drink tourism (such as tea and coffee tourism), while wine tourism and similar activities are not discussed.

A wide range of activities fall under the umbrella of agrifood tourism. Contemporary travellers seek unique experiences that reflect their particular interests, including their love of food. They see the Asia–Pacific region as a foodie paradise,[5] with its 100 000 traditional rice varieties still under cultivation, its forest-grown spices, a thousand types of tea and tropical fruits, fermented beverages and foods such as Korean kimchi and Japanese miso, and its bustling markets and street food stalls. Visitors might attend a cooking class in Thailand, stay on a farm in the Philippines, tour a seafood market in Japan, visit a tea plantation in Sri Lanka or even work for a day in a rice field in Viet Nam. Through these experiences, they get a sense of place, learn about local culinary cultures and ingredients, and engage with local farming communities. As these activities develop, the demand for food and other agricultural products increases.

4 See the glossary for a definition of "creative tourism".
5 See the glossary for a definition of "foodie".


© Shutterstock/Punnawit Suwattananun

This publication recognizes the potential that tourism in general, and agrifood tourism in particular, holds for the sustainable development of agrifood systems, the growth of domestic sales and exports of agrifood products, the greening of value chains and rural transformation. It summarizes the current knowledge of this field, highlighting experiences and opportunities for the sustainable engagement of smallholder farmers and micro-, small- and medium-sized enterprises (MSME) in agrifood tourism in Asia and the Pacific. A strong emphasis is placed on fostering the participation of these actors in the tourism supply chain.

This study aims to improve the understanding of the links between sustainable agrifood systems, the farming sector and the tourism sector in Asia and the Pacific, and formulates policy recommendations to enhance these links. It helps policymakers understand and anticipate emerging trends and risks in the nexus between tourism, food and agriculture, adapt their policies and practices, and accelerate new models that improve sustainability.

This publication contributes to the implementation of the memorandum of understanding and its work plan signed between the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) and the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) on 29 September 2020 to promote sustainable tourism for rural development. This partnership identifies sustainable tourism in rural areas, such as agritourism and ecotourism, as an important driver of socioeconomic growth that can reduce inequalities, increase the resilience of rural communities and boost rural incomes.[6] In particular, the partnership aims to increase the visibility of FAO's Globally Important Agricultural Heritage Systems (GIAHS) programme, as well as highlight the importance of mountain tourism and sustainable tourism in islands with fragile ecosystems, in support of the Coalition of Fragile Ecosystems.[7, 8] It also envisages collaborative activities within the framework of the Green Cities Initiative.[9]

6 See the glossary for a definition of "ecotourism".
7 For further information on mountain tourism, see Romeo *et al.* (2021).
8 For more information on the Coalition of Fragile Ecosystems, see www.fao.org/mountain-partnership/our-work/regionalcooperation/climate-change-and-mountain-forests/coalition-of-fragile-ecosystems-cofe/en/
9 For more information on the Green Cities Initiative, see www.fao.org/green-cities-initiative/en/

Structure of the publication

The publication is divided into four parts. The introductory part (Part I, composed of Chapter 1) provides definitions and sets the scene for the discussion on agrifood tourism and the linkages between tourism, agriculture and food systems in Asia and the Pacific.

Chapter 1 provides a theoretical framework that explains how this publication approaches, understands and discusses the phenomenon of agrifood tourism in the region. It recognizes the crosscutting nature of tourism and agrifood systems, and stresses the importance of cooperation at every level to ensure that both sectors work for all stakeholders and that synergies are generated. The chapter also helps readers understand what agrifood tourism is, and how it has evolved over time. The chapter explains the different approaches and types of activities encompassed under this term. In addition, it identifies the drivers of sustainable agrifood tourism that increases incomes and creates markets for smallholder producers. The chapter also explains the rationale for studying agrifood tourism in the region and outlines the scope of this report.

Part II, consisting of Chapter 2, Chapter 3 and Chapter 4, focuses on the various types of agrifood tourism experiences in Asia and the Pacific. Chapter 2 presents an in-depth analysis of the links between local farmers and the tourism and hospitality industry in the region.[10] It explains the concept of food for tourism in detail, describing the potential benefits of developing market linkages between tourism businesses and farmers. The chapter goes on to describe the extent and characteristics of direct farmer–tourism linkages and best practices identified to foster them. Chapter 3 reflects on the different subcategories of agrifood tourism associated with gastronomy, from food festivals to culinary trails and cooking classes or dining at restaurants. Chapter 4 discusses agrifood tourism activities associated with agriculture, including agritourism, agrifood heritage tourism and community-based tourism (CBT).

The chapters in Part II feature numerous examples from countries across Asia and the Pacific that show that both tourism and agriculture are lifelines for communities throughout the region. They also present the differences in agrifood tourism activities before and after the COVID-19 pandemic, highlighting the role agrifood tourism can play in driving social and economic recovery.

Part III encompasses three chapters that discuss the benefits of agrifood tourism, as well as the threats and challenges facing agrifood tourism. Chapter 5 describes the potential of agrifood tourism to contribute to the development of sustainable local food systems and value chains, and promote rural development. Chapter 6 discusses the challenges facing agrifood tourism in Asia and the Pacific. These challenges range from institutional barriers to contextual influences, industry restructuring, changing land use and values, etc. It also reflects upon the potential negative externalities – i.e. the costs of an economic activity experienced by an unrelated third party – that can be caused by the expansion of agrifood tourism in the region. It also highlights various threats affecting the sector such as the COVID-19 pandemic, energy and economic crises, etc. The chapter describes the impacts of the pandemic, which is identified as both a driver and a hindrance, and highlights the need to reimagine the future of agrifood tourism in Asia and the Pacific.

Part IV focuses on policy solutions, analysing how synergies between the agriculture and tourism sectors can be developed to build sustainable and inclusive agrifood systems. Chapter 7 and Chapter 8 offer guidance to policymakers in the region regarding the kind of arrangements needed to successfully develop agrifood tourism in a sustainable manner. These recommendations build on the drivers of agrifood tourism and address the barriers to building stronger, healthier and more sustainable links between the food and agriculture sector and the tourism sector in Asia and the Pacific. While Chapter 7 focuses on the creation of an enabling environment that is conducive to agrifood tourism development, Chapter 8 provides information about targeted measures that policymakers can adopt to promote the development of the type of agrifood tourism that is most suitable to their specific situation, whether it is food tourism, agritourism, food for tourism, or a combination of the above.

10 See the glossary for a definition of the term "hospitality industry".

Methodology

To prepare this publication, the authors conducted a review of the literature regarding the agrifood–tourism binomial, paying particular attention to references to policies, strategies and programmes in the Asia–Pacific region. In addition, the authors used a series of tools to address the thematic gaps regarding farming–tourism linkages and tourism aspects related to GIAHS sites.

To better understand the linkages between farmers and the tourism industry in the region, a survey was conducted in collaboration with the Southeast Asian Regional Center for Graduate Study and Research in Agriculture (SEARCA). The survey covered six countries, including Fiji, India, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, the Philippines, Sri Lanka and Thailand.

The survey was complemented by a series of case studies that document existing links between agrifood systems and tourism, and identify challenges and best practices. Based on the survey results, a representative site in each of the six countries was selected for this in-depth assessment. In these sites, qualitative fieldwork, including observations and interviews with key informants, was carried out to confirm the results of the survey and gather additional information. The case studies contextualize the information on linkages within the countries' enabling environment, including their infrastructure, as well as policies and programmes that promote inclusive and resilient agrifood systems and support small-scale producers.

In addition, interviews were conducted with the stakeholders of two GIAHS sites (in China and in Japan) to document the development of tourism experiences around GIAHS sites.

Furthermore, the study looked into FAO's experiences regarding agritourism in Viet Nam and the Philippines, market access projects linking farmers to hotels and restaurants, and projects regarding geographical indications (GIs)[11] in the region that have created new opportunities to market food tourism destinations by boosting the visibility and recognition of food products and territories.

Based on the findings of the literature review and the case studies, the present publication provides recommendations for the development of policies, projects and programmes in Asia and the Pacific that can stimulate the creation of synergies between tourism and agrifood systems while maximizing benefits for producers and ensuring the sustainable development of local food systems. In addition, the publication documents the impact of COVID-19 on the linkages between food and tourism in the region and describes the role that agrifood tourism can play in the post-pandemic recovery.

11 See the glossary at the end of this document for a definition of the term "geographical indication".

1.2. SETTING THE SCENE: LINKAGES BETWEEN THE TOURISM AND AGRIFOOD SECTORS

1.2.1. Socioeconomic relevance of the tourism and agrifood sectors in the region

Both tourism and agriculture are sectors with substantial socioeconomic weight in many countries in Asia and the Pacific. Agrifood systems, including their middle and downstream segments – from food storage and processing to transportation, retailing and consumption – are the backbone of many economies. The global agrifood system produces approximately 11 billion tonnes of food annually, as well as a multitude of non-food products. In 2018, the gross value of agricultural output worldwide was estimated at USD 3.5 trillion. Primary agricultural production alone provides about one-quarter of all employment globally, and almost 60 percent of total employment in low-income countries (FAO, 2021a). In South Asia, agriculture employed 57 percent of all working women and 37.5 percent of all working men in 2019. In East Asia and the Pacific (excluding high-income countries), the figures were 24 percent and 29.6 percent, respectively. The value added generated by agriculture, forestry and fishing as a percentage of total gross domestic product (GDP) in South Asia stood at 18.24 percent in 2020. In East Asia and the Pacific (excluding high-income countries), it was 8.56 percent (World Bank, 2022a).

In 2019, prior to the COVID-19 pandemic, the travel and tourism sector accounted for one out of four new jobs created across the world, and generated 10.3 percent of global GDP (or USD 9 630 billion). Tourism is particularly important for Asia and the Pacific. In 2019, tourism created one out of every ten jobs in the region, contributing 9.8 percent to its GDP (World Travel and Tourism Council [WTTC], 2022). Tourism direct GDP, or the share of total GDP generated by all industries directly in contact with visitors, ranged from 3.8 percent in India to 4.1 percent in Indonesia, 6.8 percent in Malaysia, 6.9 percent in Thailand, 8.6 percent in the Philippines, 9.2 percent in Viet Nam and 13 percent in Fiji (United Nations World Tourism Organization [UNWTO], n.d.a). The Asian Development Bank (ADB) differentiates four types of economies in the region, according to the contribution of tourism to GDP:

- **Highly tourism-dependent economies,** where the direct contribution of tourism to GDP exceeds 10 percent, such as Cambodia, Fiji, Maldives, Palau, Samoa and Vanuatu, and Tonga.
- **Tourism-dependent economies,** where tourism accounts for 5 to 10 percent of GDP, including Malaysia, Singapore and Sri Lanka.
- **Economies with major tourism,** where the contribution ranges from 2.5 to 5 percent of GDP, such as Bhutan, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Mongolia or Nepal.
- **Economies with minor tourism,** where tourism accounts for less than 2.5 percent of GDP, including Bangladesh, China, India, Indonesia, Japan, Myanmar, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea and the Republic of Korea (ADB, 2020a).

Until 2019, tourism was growing faster than the overall economy worldwide (5.5 percent versus 4.2 percent in 2019), which can largely be attributed to factors such as rising disposable incomes, the emergence of low-cost carriers, ease of travel through internet-based services and the relaxation of visa regulations (World Economic Forum [WEF], 2019).

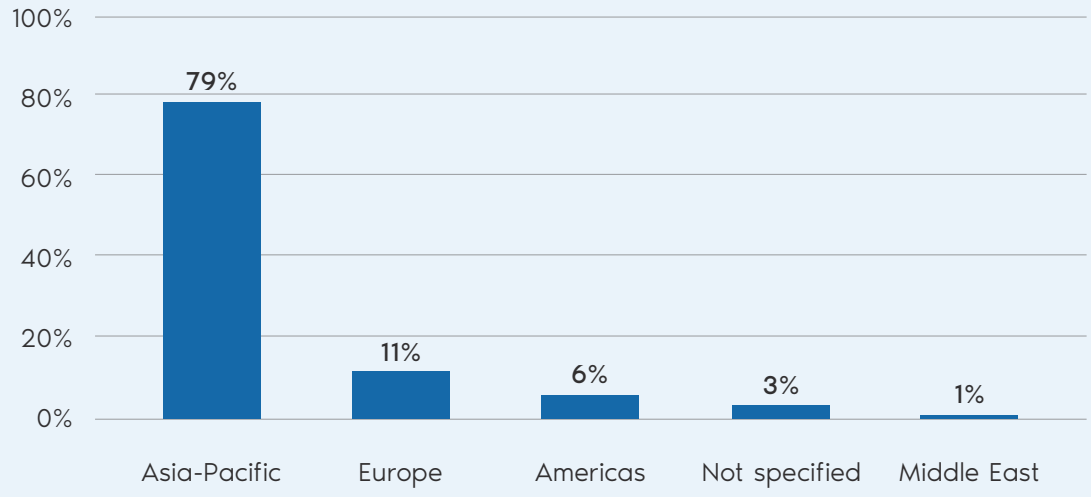
Despite domestic tourism being six times larger than international tourism, sector statistics largely focus on the latter (UNWTO, 2020a). In 2019, Asia and the Pacific received 360 million international visitors and earned USD 442 billion in visitor spending (or 6 percent of the region's total exports). Pre-COVID-19, the region's share in global tourism grew from 20 percent in 2009 to 25 percent in 2019, second only to Europe (51 percent in 2019) (UNWTO, 2019a).

Intraregional tourism is predominant in Asia and the Pacific. In 2019, 79 percent of international tourist arrivals in Asia and the Pacific originated from within the region itself, followed by Europe (11 percent), the Americas (6 percent), and the Middle East (1 percent) (see Figure 1) (UNWTO, 2019a). Over the period from 2007 to 2017, the growth of short-haul travel from source markets within the region outpaced that of long-haul travel, growing by a cumulative 83 percent (Oxford Economics and Pacific Asia Travel Association [PATA], 2018).

The large majority of international visitors to Asia and the Pacific travelled to the region for leisure, recreation and holidays, followed by visiting friends or relatives, and business and professional purposes (see Figure 2). Two subregions account for 85 percent of the total number of international arrivals to Asia and the Pacific, with Northeast Asia on the lead with 47 percent, followed by Southeast Asia with a 38 percent share (Figure 3).

FIGURE 1

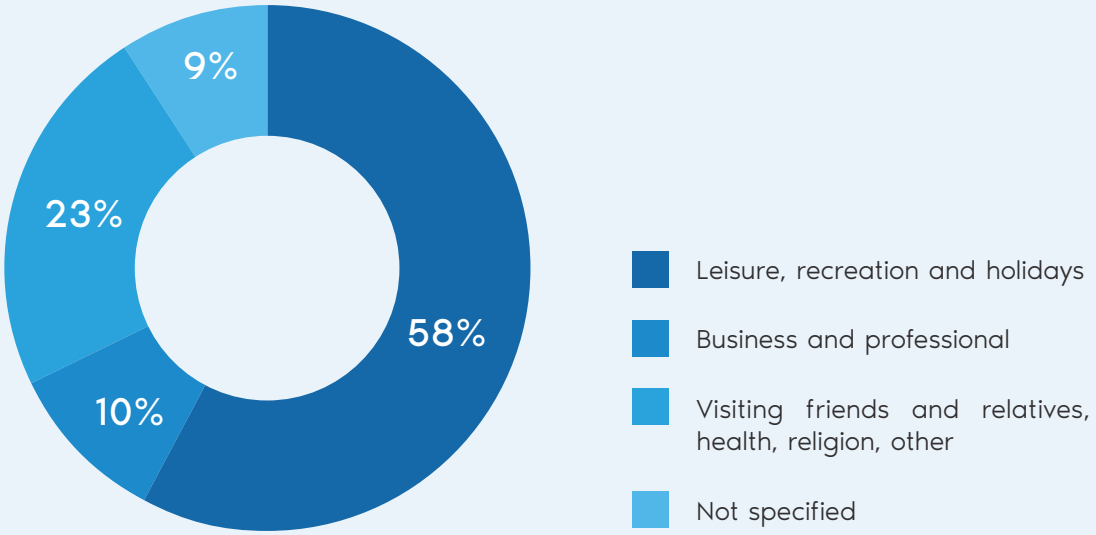
Share of international tourist arrivals in Asia and the Pacific, by region of origin



Source: **UNWTO**. 2019a. Tourism statistics database. In: Tourism statistics. Madrid. Cited 7 February 2023. www.unwto.org/tourism-statistics/tourism-statistics-database

FIGURE 2

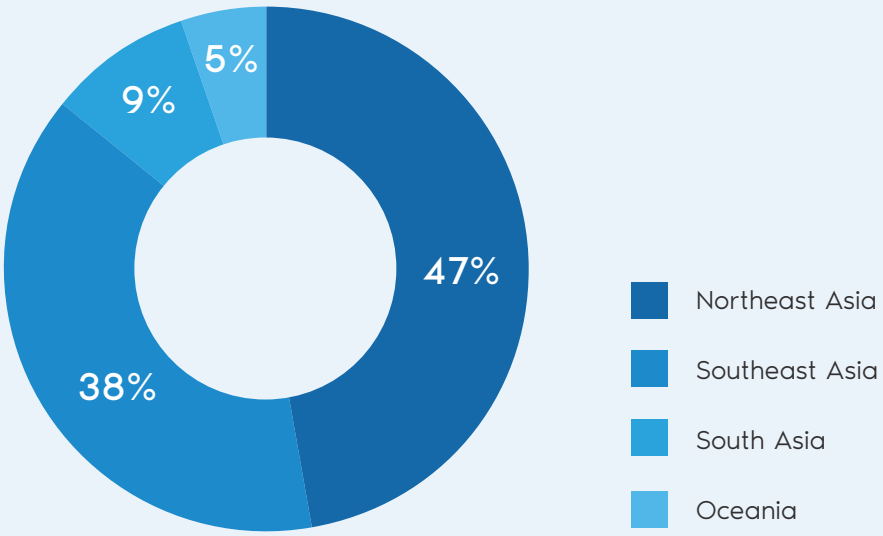
Purpose of trips to Asia and the Pacific



Source: **UNWTO.** 2019a. Tourism statistics database. In: Tourism statistics. Madrid. Cited 7 February 2023. www.unwto.org/tourism-statistics/tourism-statistics-database

FIGURE 3

Origins of international tourist arrivals in Asia and the Pacific, by subregion



Source: **UNWTO.** 2019a. Tourism statistics database. In: Tourism statistics. Madrid. Cited 7 February 2023. www.unwto.org/tourism-statistics/tourism-statistics-database

In pre-COVID-19 times, Asia and the Pacific was the second most competitive region in terms of travel and tourism, according to the Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index of the World Economic Forum. In the top quartile (or top 35) of economies in the ranking were China and China, Hong Kong SAR, India, Japan, Malaysia, the Republic of Korea, Singapore and Thailand.[12] Within this group, the high-income economies (China, Hong Kong SAR, Japan, the Republic of Korea and Singapore) obtained relatively higher overall scores than their less-advanced peers on account of aspects such as business conditions, strong labour markets, infrastructure and technology. Meanwhile, China, Malaysia and Thailand (upper-middle income countries) and India (a lower-middle income country) also scored high, largely because of their combination of rich natural and cultural resources, and strong price competitiveness (WEF, 2019).

The Asia–Pacific region boasts the best combination of natural and cultural resources and the world's most performing air transport infrastructure. In recent years, enhanced digital connectivity, with a rising number of individuals and firms using the internet, has improved tourism competitiveness in the region, as countries' ability to exploit the potential of digital tourism services increases (WEF, 2019). As a result, the region is becoming an increasingly important hub for flows of people, including tourists, as well as for global transportation.

1.2.2. Linkages between the tourism and agriculture sectors in the region

Tourism and agriculture are closely intertwined. There are three distinct types of agrifood–tourism linkages in Asia and the Pacific: food for tourism, food tourism and agricultural tourism.

Food for tourism

This represents the conventional concept of food as a tourism resource. More than a third of overall tourist spending is dedicated to food and beverages (UNWTO, 2019c), and food is the third most important motivation for choosing a tourist destination (UNWTO, 2017a). The approach of food for tourism emphasizes buying locally produced foods, both for consumption while travelling and as souvenirs.

Food tourism

Food tourism is a tourism modality whereby food experiences are the main travel motivation for tourists (Hall and Sharples, 2003), rather than a peripheral concern for destinations (Richards, 2015). In a strict sense, food tourism refers to trips for educational or recreational purposes that are related or influenced by gastronomy. The market for food tourism comprises the following segments:

- **Food festivals:** in 2019, the food festival segment accounted for the largest share (nearly one-third) of the overall food tourism market, with a value of USD 338.6 billion. It is expected to maintain its lead status in terms of revenue as a result of the growing shift by tourists towards novel and rich food experiences (Allied Market Research, 2020).
- **Culinary trails** were the second most important category in 2019 (Allied Market Research, 2020). Culinary trails allow tourists to experience various tastes, dishes and ingredients in a region or country while exploring different cities within a short amount of time.
- **Cooking classes:** this segment came third in 2019, and is forecast to witness the fastest growth in the food tourism market, with a compounded annual growth rate (CAGR) of 17.8 percent from 2020 to 2027, according to pre-COVID-19 projections (Allied Market Research, 2020). The learning-through-travel trend and the increased participation of chefs in food tourism activities are driving the demand for cooking classes.
- **Dining in restaurants or other out-of-home dining establishments,** which was the smallest market segment.
- **Other:** this segment covers various activities, including visits to food producers and farmers markets, or any other food-related tourism activity.

12 The top quartile of countries accounted for about 84 percent of global travel and tourism GDP, and nearly 70 percent of all international tourist arrivals (WEF, 2019).

Agricultural tourism

This modality of tourism focuses on agricultural experiences linked to farm life, agricultural heritage sites or farming communities offered by destinations. The concept of tourism for agriculture encompasses three main types of activities:

- **Agritourism,** which is the business of making a working farm a travel destination for educational and/or recreational purposes (Hall and Wood, 2020). Part of this growing trend is the farmstay, whereby family farmers use their land, livestock and food products to attract guests to the farm (Hall and Wood, 2020). Agritourism offers learning and recreational experiences that contribute to the mental and psychological relaxation of the guests (Torabi Farsani, Ghotbabadi and Altafi, 2019).

- **Agroheritage tourism:** this type of tourism involves visiting natural and agricultural sites of outstanding universal value to humanity that need to be protected for future generations to appreciate and enjoy (UNESCO, n.d.). Thus, tourism becomes a tool to preserve agricultural heritage. In 2002, FAO launched a programme called Globally Important Agricultural Heritage Systems (GIAHS) in order to record landscapes of outstanding aesthetic beauty that combine agricultural biodiversity, resilient ecosystems and a valuable cultural and natural heritage (FAO, 2021). Examples include tea systems in Japan (the traditional tea grass integrated system in Shizuoka and the Nishi-Awa steep slope land agriculture system), and rice terraces (Hani rice terraces) and rice–fish systems (e.g. the Qingtian rice–fish culture and Dong's rice–fish–duck system) in China.[13]

  FAO's GIAHS programme underscores the contribution of these agricultural systems to biodiversity, sustainable development and food security. It aims at preserving local and traditional knowledge systems and management practices, and safeguarding the sense of place generated by cultural identity. The programme is based on the registration of heritage agricultural systems, which in various instances overlaps with the World Heritage designations of UNESCO.[14] The registration of unique natural and agricultural sites under FAO's GIAHS programme or UNESCO's World Heritage Convention can be used as a marketing tool to attract tourists.

- **CBT that focuses on agriculture-related activities:** this category combines all forms of tourism in which the main motivation for travelling is to appreciate agriculture and nature, with a community-centred approach. This means that tourism activities are:

  managed and owned by the community, for the community, with the purpose of enabling visitors to increase their awareness and learn about community and local ways of life (George, Nedelea and Antony, 2007, p. 1).

  This approach is often applied to ecotourism, which is defined as:

  > responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment, sustains the well-being of local people, and involves interpretation and education (International Ecotourism Society, n.d.).

  UNWTO (2002) sees ecotourism as all nature-based forms of tourism characterized by: i) being primarily motivated by the observation and appreciation of nature, as well as the traditional cultures prevailing in natural areas; ii) containing educational and interpretation features; iii) being organized generally, but not exclusively, by specialized tour operators for small groups; iv) minimizing negative impacts upon the natural and socio-cultural environment; and v) supporting the maintenance of natural areas that are used as ecotourism attractions. This publication does not focus on ecotourism per se, but only on those modalities where ecotourism overlaps with agricultural tourism and CBT, which are all very closely related concepts. Although ecotourism places particular focus on environmental sustainability (Hall and Sharples, 2003), it should be stressed that sustainability principles should apply to all types of tourism activities, operations, establishments and projects, in conventional and alternative forms.

13 For more information on FAO's GIAHS programme, see www.fao.org/giahs/event-giahs-ecosystem-restoration
14 For more information on UNESCO's World Heritage, see https://whc.unesco.org/pg.cfm?cid=160

Creating synergistic relationships between tourism and agrifood systems has become a focus of economic development planning, especially in developing countries (Rueegg, 2009; Torres and Momsen, 2011). With the expansion of tourism and tourism-led development (Rogerson, 2011), as well as the rise of agrifood tourism in many parts of Asia and the Pacific (Everett, 2016; Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019), researchers have been paying increased attention to the nexus of tourism and agriculture over the past decades. They indicate several pathways that can be explored to realize the benefits of the synergistic relationship between tourism and agrifood systems.

The tourism and agrifood sectors can develop largely apart from each other, in which case intersectoral linkages can fail to develop (Taylor, Morison and Fleming, 1991; United Nations Conference on Trade and Development [UNCTAD], 2014). In other cases, they develop harmoniously and generate intersectoral linkages that boost their competitiveness and promote the broader sustainable socioeconomic development of a territory. In the Pacific region, the two sectors have traditionally ignored each other, with the tourism industry importing the large majority of the goods and services (including food) it requires, and the agriculture sector focusing mainly on export markets (resulting, to a considerable extent, in the displacement of domestic agriculture by food imports) (FAO, 2012a, 2016).

When intersectoral links are created between these two major sectors, synergies can be generated and significant opportunities for inclusive economic growth may arise. Indeed, Torres and Momsen (2011) argue that linkages between agriculture and tourism may provide the basis for innovative solutions to the key challenges of our time i.e. climate change and the need to ensure food security. These issues are now compounded by the pandemic and the subsequent disruptions in global agrifood supply chains.

The key question is how to make these intersectoral links work for both tourism and agrifood systems, improving the sustainability and inclusiveness of both sectors. Tourism, and especially the agrifood tourism segment, can provide critical contributions to the development of thriving agrifood systems by building on the linkages between agriculture and tourism. Indeed, the ability of agrifood systems to improve food security and nutrition for all depends not only on the functioning of these systems themselves, but also on that of other sectors with which they are closely interconnected, such as tourism (FAO, 2021a). At the same time, thanks to its very large and diversified supply chain, tourism has a wide range of upstream and downstream effects on other economic activities (UNWTO, 2013). In particular, the tourism industry relies on agrifood systems to feed visitors and can build on the local food and agricultural heritage to increase demand, both by attracting more tourists and by increasing their expenditure.

Despite their far-reaching economic implications, the linkages between tourism and agrifood systems are poorly understood. This lack of understanding stems from several factors, the main one being the innate complexity of both sectors. The intricacy of both tourism and agriculture arises from the fact that they encompass a wide range of actors and stakeholders, and integrate biophysical, socioeconomic, cultural, political, technical, environmental and infrastructural elements that interact at various levels to deliver outcomes for people and the planet.

As separate realities, agrifood systems and tourism are already complex; however, the picture gets far more complicated when factoring in the multidimensional and interrelated nature of the linkages between them (Rogerson, 2011). According to Torres and Momsen (2011), the nexus between tourism, agriculture and the food industry is multi-faceted, complex and variable. On the one hand, tourism and agriculture compete with each other and with other sectors for land, water, labour, and capital (Han *et al.*, 2020). On the other hand, agriculture–tourism relationships can be symbiotic: the tourism industry can purchase local agricultural products and use the agricultural landscape for agritourism and agroheritage tourism (Telfer and Wall, 2000). Everett (2016) notes that the coupling of tourism and agriculture can stimulate tourist consumption and prolong the time spent travelling, thus generating new opportunities for farmers and agrifood entrepreneurs to increase their income by catering to tourists, even on a small scale. Yuan (2013) argues that tourism–agriculture relationships in China, for example, are symbiotic, with a direct positive impact on both sectors: the coupling stimulates the growth of both agrifood supply chains and the tourism industry and helps shape new, high-value agrifood products and agrifood tourism experiences.

Another factor that hinders the understanding of the tourism–agriculture nexus is the unprecedented pace of transformation of both sectors. Tourism has experienced continued growth and increased diversification over the last decades, becoming a key driver for socioeconomic progress in nations worldwide (UNWTO, 2019b). Agrifood systems, globally and in the region, have undergone rapid structural transformations that have yielded many positive results, such as the expansion of off-farm employment opportunities in food industries and the widening of food choices beyond local staples to satisfy consumers' preferences for quality, diversity and convenience (FAO, 2018).

However, the transformation of both the tourism and the agriculture sectors has also resulted in significant challenges, with potentially wide-reaching consequences for the state of food security and nutrition, the overall economy and the environment. Torres and Momsen (2011) indicate that a prerequisite for realizing intersectoral synergies is to understand the processes of agricultural transformation and rural restructuring and their interplay with tourism development. These ongoing processes can have a beneficial, detrimental or disruptive impact on the generation of synergies between the two sectors.

1.3. HOW DO THE TOURISM AND AGRIFOOD SECTORS INFLUENCE EACH OTHER?

FIGURE 4

Interconnection between the tourism industry and agrifood systems

© Shutterstock/Le Manh Thang (Left), © Shutterstock/THANATPHAN (Right)

Tourism and agrifood systems are linked and influence each other through factor conditions, demand conditions and changes in the enabling environment (United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean [ECLAC], 2007).

Influence through demand conditions

Agriculture and tourism influence each other through their respective demand conditions. The tourism industry can increase the demand for locally produced food by building short, local supply chains. At the same time, the development of gastronomy- and agriculture-related tourism experiences, which imply collaboration between the two sectors, can raise the number of tourists and increase their expenditures. This in turn can create more demand for the farming and food industry at the destination.

Arguably, the agriculture sector can be revitalized by building backward linkages between the tourism and hospitality industry and local smallholder farmers (Meyer, 2007; Richards, 2012). Several studies have underlined the economic multiplier effect of increased tourism demand for local food products (Telfer and Wall, 1996; Torres, 2003). For Richards (2012), these backward linkages stimulate agricultural production and ancillary services, thus reducing economic leakage (i.e. earnings from tourism that do not accrue to the domestic economy). Leakage of tourism earnings occurs when the tourism industry imports goods and services, including food supplies, makes payments to foreign companies (including airlines and tour operators) and repatriates profits (in the case of foreign-owned hotel chains) (ECLAC, 2007).

Sourcing agricultural products from local farmers is one of the key benefits that the tourism sector can offer in the Asia–Pacific context. Rueegg (2009) stresses that strengthening the backward linkages that allow local farmers to supply tourism establishments is central to promoting symbiosis, rather than conflict, between the agrifood and tourism sectors. Because of the importance of market linkages between farmers and the tourism industry, Chapter 3 discusses these linkages in greater detail.

The development of gastronomy-related tourism experiences (see Chapter 4), such as culinary trails and food festivals, can create new income opportunities for tourist establishments, farmers, local food processing firms, transporters and others. Long (2013) points out that hosts of cooking-with-locals experiences, for example, can earn money by sharing their skills with tourists in their own home, perhaps even elevating their own social and economic status.

Gastronomy-related tourism experiences use the local culinary heritage as a tool for the promotion of tourism and economic development (Berno, 2011). The unique cuisine and food traditions and ingredients of a tourism destination have their roots in agriculture (Berno *et al.*, 2014) and are expressions of local culture and identity (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 2003; Horng and Tsai, 2012; Kim and Ellis, 2015). Destinations can use their local cuisine heritage to provide new agrifood tourism experiences, and thereby position and differentiate themselves. This enables the preservation of their traditions, food heritage and diversity, and rewards authenticity, while the demand for local food increases.

Gastronomy-related tourism can also create new jobs at various nodes of the value chain (e.g. farms, agro-industries and distributors) and in the tourism industry (e.g. for foodie tour guides, chefs, restaurateurs and caterers). Long (2003) adds that because of the current emphasis on locally sourced ingredients, agrifood tourism can be seen as an instrument to ensure that the food system in general is intertwined with and supporting local economies – this is the multiplier effect, whereby businesses supplying the tourism industry benefit from tourism activities.

Linkages can also be developed and supported by developing agriculture-related tourism experiences (see Chapter 5), such as agritourism and GIAHS-based tourism, which help farmers diversify and open up income generating opportunities in local communities. Well-formulated agritourism experiences increase the number of tourists and their expenditure levels, thereby boosting the demand for local agrifood products.

Competition in the factor market

Agriculture and tourism compete in the factor markets for land, water, labour, capital, freight capacity and even development assistance (Torres and Momsen, 2011; FAO, 2012a; Han *et al.*, 2020). For instance, when wages are higher in the tourism sector than in the agrifood system, labour migration (particularly by youths) from agriculture in rural areas to tourist establishments in coastal and urban areas may be accelerated, especially if the latter areas are surrounded by marginalized and impoverished rural areas. This is particularly problematic when the peak demand for labour in the tourism and agriculture sectors overlap. Such intersectoral competition may leave farmland underutilized and contribute to the growth of slums in tourist areas if there is a shortage of housing for workers (Torres and Momsen, 2011).

Meanwhile, certain forms of tourism (e.g. agrifood tourism) can offer employment opportunities in rural areas for farmers and (seasonal) agricultural labourers, thus relieving migratory pressure towards cities. Agritourism and ecotourism, in particular, show great potential for both job creation and diversification, which increases the profitability and viability of farms and may slow rural-to-urban migration (Momsen, 2003).

Pressure from the tourism sector on land availability and prices may lead to major structural challenges in terms of land use, which may eventually result in a reduction of agricultural production. The consumption of water by the tourism industry reduces the availability of water for irrigated agriculture, whereas the use of agrochemicals can pollute the water supply, thus creating a major problem for the tourism sector. Policymakers must understand these intersectoral rivalries and competitive dynamics in order to ensure that interactions between tourism and agriculture result in synergies, rather than in competition for key productive resources.

Changes in the enabling environment

The third pathway of intersectoral interaction is through changes in the enabling environment. For example, the development of the tourism industry may call for investments in transport infrastructure, which also benefits the flow of agricultural in- and outputs. Efforts to digitalize the agrifood sector help ensure that

the tourism sector is positioned to thrive in the digital economy and that investments in tourism, particularly in rural areas, are future-oriented and well aligned with the digital trends shaping the sector (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2018a).

Strengthening agriculture–tourism linkages per se does not facilitate the development of either tourism or agriculture. Indeed, the nature of the tourism experiences offered in each destination will dictate the generation of linkages and determine which strategies are needed to improve competitiveness. Not all types of tourism generate meaningful intersectoral linkages, particularly when it comes to backward linkages to the agriculture sector (ECLAC, 2007). Agrifood tourism, ecotourism and CBT may generate the highest levels of linkages, and hence benefit the local economy more than mass tourism, for example. Likewise, export-oriented agricultural activities will yield different results than domestically oriented activities, as will a focus on high-value agricultural products versus the production of staples or undifferentiated agrifood products.

At this point, two remarks should be made. First, although all three pathways are important, the remainder of this publication will chiefly focus on how agrifood systems and tourism influence each other through demand conditions. Second, agrifood and tourism linkages change over time. The evolution of these intersectoral linkages can be monitored over a certain period of time to assess their strength. For example, an input–output analysis of the economy of the Lao People's Democratic Republic by Khanal (2014) revealed a positive evolution of agriculture–tourism linkages between 2003 and 2008, whereby the tourism sector increasingly relied on domestic inputs (particularly from the agrifood sector). If the examination of the trends in tourism and agriculture indicates that the evolution of intersectoral linkages is suboptimal, a strategy needs to be devised to improve them. This can be done, for example, by developing domestic agricultural production to supply tourism establishments, while at the same time encouraging the tourism industry to increase their local value added (ECLAC, 2007; FAO, 2016). Monitoring the strength of these linkages is particularly important to help the tourism industry, the agrifood sector and the rest of the economy recover from external shocks such as the COVID-19 pandemic or the terrorist events in the United States of America in September 2001.

1.4. THE EVOLUTION OF AGRIFOOD TOURISM OVER TIME

Agrifood tourism is on the rise

A clear distinction can be made between tourism trends and statistics before and after the COVID-19 pandemic. Pre-COVID-19 dynamics are studied in this section, whereas the impacts of the COVID-19 outbreak on the sector are analysed in Chapter 6.

Over time, gastronomy has become one of the main reasons to travel, rather than a mere holiday necessity. The concept of travelling to a destination specifically for its food and beverage products is a relatively recent trend. While the importance given to food while travelling rose between 2001 and 2012 (Okumus, Okumus and McKercher, 2007), food or gastronomy tourism was not yet considered a tourism subsector, nor were food experiences monetized as tourism experiences (World Food Travel Association [WFTA], 2014). In the tourism literature, a wave of publications between 2001 and 2012 established the gastronomy–tourism binomial as an interesting field of study in its own right. The focus was on the importance of food as a motivation for travel (Richards, 2015), as travellers' interest in food started to translate into a desire to learn how food is grown through stays in farms and farming communities.

Between 2012 and 2018, gastronomy tourism began to attract mainstream interest as its exposure in social media, peer review sites, food documentaries, and television and online culinary and travel shows grew (Mulcahy, 2015, 2021). During this period, gastronomy tourism recorded a continuous growth. A multitude of niche tourist offers and new travel experiences such as cooking classes, visits to producers, street food, food festivals, wine estate and brewery tours emerged. In the tourism literature, the body of work emerging at that time was largely related to the rise of the foodie and the growing creation of gastronomic destinations labelled as foodie hotspots (Richards, 2015). This creation process reflects foodies' success at spreading their particular interest and pushing destinations everywhere to adapt themselves to cater to the foodie traveller. In parallel, agritourism and activities related to farming in tourism started to gain momentum.

WFTA marks 2018 as the year when gastronomy tourism became mainstream based on a series of observations, including the fact that more than half of leisure travellers that year were food travellers and that cities, regions and countries had begun to promote their cuisines as an essential element to differentiate themselves and attract food travellers (WFTA, 2014).[15] In recent years, there has been a global surge in the number of food-focused tour companies and events, as well in marketing and promotion efforts associated with food experiences (UNWTO, 2019c; WFTA, 2021a), in response to the huge popularity garnered by gastronomy tourism.

The mainstreaming of gastronomy tourism is confirmed by the increasing economic weight of this segment. In 2019, the global food tourism market was worth USD 1 116.7 billion (Allied Market Research, 2020). Asia and the Pacific accounted for more than two-fifths of this market, owing to its wide variety of traditional food and unique beverages that entice food tourists to travel to the region. The growth of this segment has been mainly fuelled by Generation Y, also known as millennials: avid travellers who prefer short trips to culturally rich and different tourism destinations, and for whom local shopping and food are among major attractions (Allied Market Research, 2020). Meanwhile, the global agritourism market was valued at USD 42.46 billion in 2019 (Allied Market Research, 2021a). Thus, it can be conservatively estimated that agrifood tourism (i.e. food tourism and agritourism) accounted for 12 percent of the total global tourism market that year.

15 According to WFTA, locations that marketed themselves as gastronomy tourism destinations could see a 25 percent increase in revenues (WFTA, 2014).

The Asia-Pacific region is increasingly engaging in agrifood tourism

Agrifood tourism has gained popularity in the Asia-Pacific region because of the political, economic, cultural, social and environmental promises it holds (Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019). The majority of international travellers visiting Southeast Asia – 139 million in 2019 – incorporated a tourism experience related to food in their travels across the region (UNWTO, 2020b). The Japan Tourism Agency notes that 70 percent of the 35 million international tourists that visited the country in 2019 – mostly arriving from within Asia and the Pacific – had food as their main travel motivation, while some 6 percent of them were motivated by a desire to go on nature tours, experience farm life or visit mountain or fishing villages (Japan Tourism Agency, 2022; JTB Tourism Research and Consulting Co., 2022).

As gastronomy becomes a key reason for tourists to visit the region, many destinations in Asia have used their national cuisine as a tool to differentiate and promote themselves. They have proactively planned and promoted agrifood tourism nationally and internationally, inviting tourists to literally consume and taste local culture (Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019). Several countries in the region have acknowledged agrifood tourism and the links between agriculture and tourism in their national and regional policies and strategies. A case in point is the Greater Mekong Subregion, which has aligned its agrifood value chain and tourism strategies – two of the largest sectors in the subregion – to build on its agrifood heritage for promoting regional development, increasing inward tourism flows and attracting travellers from the region (Mekong Tourism Coordinating Office [MTCO], 2017; ADB, 2018).

Several countries in the region with rich food resources and a strong food-related culture have effectively promoted food as intangible heritage as the basis for marketing food tourism experiences (Horng and Tsai, 2012). For example, Park, Kim and Yeoman (2019) note that such efforts have been generally successful in Viet Nam and Thailand. Other destinations that have connected their brand image, with varying levels of intensity, to gastronomic experiences include China, Indonesia (Bali), Japan, Malaysia and Singapore, among others (UNWTO, 2019d).

The above destinations also build their image on the concept of "Asianness", which refers to how tourists from other continents perceive the uniqueness of Asia, based on the distinctive architecture, cultural heritage, history and food of Asian countries (Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019). Eating Asian food is perceived as the best way to consume and experience Asian culture (Jo, 2004). Non-Asian food travellers seek unfamiliar, unusual and exotic food experiences in the region (Ji *et al.*, 2016; Lévi-Strauss, 2008) as a token of exotic otherness.

Asian and Pacific countries are far from having a homogeneous identity, let alone one single cuisine. The region is diverse in terms of the types of landscapes, ingredients, the origins of products and services and the breadth and depth of cultural and historical variety contained within it (Blair, Armstrong and Murphy, 2003; Cayla and Eckhardt, 2007; Jo, 2004). The region's culinary culture embraces colonial influences in most countries; hence, social and cultural features are not only dynamic but are also characterized by fusions of various facets of multicultures (Blair, Armstrong and Murphy, 2003). The peculiarities of food-tourism linkages in Pacific countries add further complexity to this situation.

Despite this heterogeneity, the notion of Asianness can be instrumental in developing agrifood tourism in the region (Jo, 2004). However, the tendency to see Asianness as a unifying concept should not prevent Asian countries from preserving the locality, heterogeneity and authenticity of food linked to particular geographic areas and their specific gastronomic and culinary heritage (Avieli, 2012; Bessière, 1998; Cheung, 2013; Everett and Aitchison, 2008; Kim and Iwashita, 2016).

The study of Asianness and the region's food heritage has suffered from a deeply ingrained Western bias that has dominated the tourism literature and industry practices over the past decades (Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019). Today, these issues need to be studied primarily from the viewpoint of Asian-Pacific tourists, who constitute the main origin market.

Food preferences are especially important to Asian people. These preferences are not uniform: some tourists are very attached to their own culinary traditions and expect to find their own traditional dishes when travelling abroad, while others are open to new gastronomic experiences (Chang, Kivela and Mak, 2010). Understanding how Asian-Pacific tourists perceive different agrifood destinations in the region

requires understanding the social, cultural, historical and environmental aspects of each destination, with food being one of the key elements reflecting these complexities.

The food preferences of tourists from the region are in a constant state of flux. Food tourism in Asia and the Pacific is a reflection of how society is changing, a balance between the past (represented, for example, by street food) and progress (Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019). This evolution may be perceived differently by travellers from within the region and by visitors from other regions.

1.5. DRIVERS OF AGRIFOOD TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN THE REGION

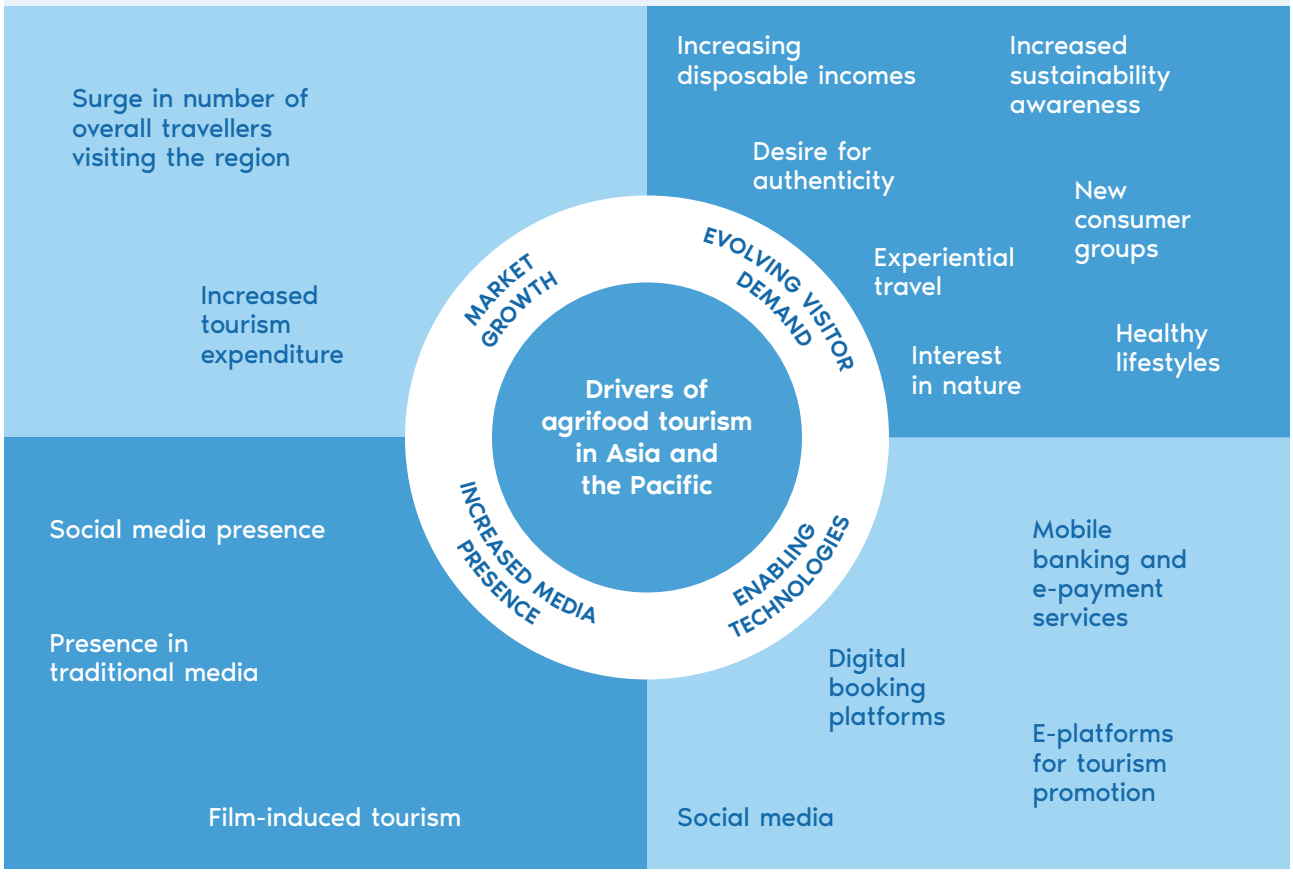
Overview

What, where and how we eat while travelling has been influenced by quickly changing trends and technologies over the past decade. As a result, the food and tourism industries in Asia and the Pacific have undergone rapid and radical change and expansion. Food has become the main driver of the travel decisions of many tourists, fostering the growth of agrifood tourism in the region. This section analyses the multiple factors that drive the growing interest in food- and agriculture-themed travel.

Prior to the COVID-19 crisis, the main trends influencing agrifood tourism globally and in Asia and the Pacific included the surge in the number of overall travellers, evolving visitor demand, the explosion of food-focused media and social media and enabling technologies (OECD, 2018b). For ease of reference, these drivers are summarized in Figure 5.

FIGURE 5

Drivers of agrifood tourism in Asia and the Pacific



Surge in the number of overall travellers and expenditure

Before the COVID-19 crisis, the travel and tourism sector was among the biggest and fastest-growing economic sectors in the world (UNWTO, 2019c), generating USD 9 630 billion or 10.3 percent of global GDP in 2019 (WTTC, 2022). Within the tourism market, agrifood tourism was one of the most dynamic segments, besides being one of the main sources of income for developing countries. In 2019, international tourist arrivals grew by 4 percent year-on-year to 1.46 billion (UNWTO, 2020c). International tourist spending has also increased. Between 2009 and 2019, real growth in international tourism receipts (54 percent) exceeded growth in world GDP by 10 percentage points (UNWTO, 2020c). The growing pool of travellers gave rise to a larger number of agrifood tourists; this growth was further reinforced by the trends listed below.

Evolving visitor demand

Visitor demand, at both the international and the regional level, has changed over the past decades as a result of rising income and education levels in emerging economies, the emergence of new consumer groups, and evolving visitor preferences (OECD, 2018b). The main changes in tourist preferences are highlighted below; they include a growing emphasis on experiential and creative travel, a desire for authenticity, an increasing demand for sustainable tourism and a shift towards healthy and nutrition-sensitive lifestyles.

Increasing disposable incomes

Until 2019, Asia was one of the world's key growth engines. Most emerging economies showed growth rates of at least 5 percent, which coupled with improving macroeconomic conditions led to a rise in disposable income (World Bank, 2022b).

The presence of more developed economic powers in the region, such as Japan, the Republic of Korea and Singapore, together with the unprecedented rise of the middle classes in China, India and several Southeast Asian countries, is leading to the creation of a new pool of potential agrifood tourists (Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019).

As a result of the rise in disposable incomes and the aging population trend, Asian–Pacific consumers have increased their travel and tourism spending, including spending on agrifood tourism. Consumers also spend a higher proportion of their increasing income on prepared food, gourmet products, eating out and food items with some form of health or ethical benefits.

Emergence of new consumer groups

One demographic change that has had a major impact on travel behaviour is the rise of new generations, such as the millennials or Generation Y (born in the early 1980s to mid-1990s) and Generation Z (born in the mid-1990s to early-2010s) (OECD, 2018b). By 2040, these generations will represent the largest share of the global population with 2.3 and 2.6 billion persons, respectively (Weinswig, 2016).

Because their travel expectations and behaviour are different from those of previous generations, from the planning phase to the actual travel and holiday experience, these consumer groups have moved away from traditional experiences towards more personalized activities. Both millennials and Generation Z are active and curious, demand personalized services, prefer adventures that are off the beaten track and seek different and unique experiences, rather than just holidays. They are also culinary enthusiasts who pursue their interest in food, agriculture and a natural lifestyle when they travel, resulting in a growing demand for agrifood tourism experiences (Global Blue and Roland Berger, 2018).

These generations are also digital natives and tend to manage everything digitally, including travel planning and booking (OECD, 2018b).[16] They are also heavy social media users and influence others when they

16 For a definition of "digital native", see the glossary.

openly share their food and travel experiences with the world (Global Blue and Roland Berger, 2018). This further fuels the demand for agrifood tourism. In response, the tourism industry has already undergone a massive digital transformation, with booking and sharing economy applications being the new normal.

Emphasis on experiential travel

The search for unique agrifood experiences has become a key factor driving the growth of the global tourism industry, and of agrifood tourism in particular (Richards, 2021). The average consumer is savvier now in terms of their expectations from their travels and the ways in which they can immerse themselves in a destination (Schultz, 2016). Simply eating out is no longer enough: tourists, more often than not, wish to learn about local food culture and history, and to engage in hands-on experiences related to food and agriculture.

Thus, the global tourism market has witnessed an increase in recent years in the number of foodies or culinary enthusiasts who travel to places just to have a taste of local cuisines and buy foods to bring back home. During the 2000s, dubbed as the "decade of the foodie" (Richards, 2015), the growing influence of foodies became a global phenomenon (Johnston and Baumann, 2010). Most foodie travellers are millennials (Global Blue and Roland Berger, 2018), although researchers are also starting to look into Generation Z (Kılıç, Bekar and Yozukmaz, 2021) and senior foodies (Balderas, Patterson and Leeson, 2020).

When foodies travel, they eschew uniformity and seek to engage with local heritage, culture and people by consuming different types of food and drinks (UNWTO, 2012). They frequently engage with local growers, purchase locally produced food and beverages, and dine at restaurants that celebrate local flavours and source local ingredients (Schultz, 2016). Their expenditures are higher than those of the average tourist, and they are willing to spend more money on alternative food experiences such as food festivals, cooking classes or agritourism (Richards, 2015).

The trend towards experiential travel, coupled with globalization and a gradual shift away from Western-centrism, is fuelling the demand for agrifood tourism, notably in Asia and the Pacific. Synergies have begun to develop among stakeholders, from the farmers who invite guests to help harvest crops to the chefs who tout farm-to-table cuisine and offer cooking classes, or governments that launch gastronomy-focused tourism campaigns.

Demand for creative tourism

Today's travellers pursue more creative tourism experiences, of which cuisine and agriculture are integral parts. Through creative tourism, the landscape becomes not just a visual backdrop to be photographed, but a space where landscape, culture and creativity are linked. Cuisine as a creative tourism experience can be an important tool to develop sustainable, community-based tourism. Creative tourism experiences combining agriculture and cuisine provides tourists with an ideal introduction into a culture. By providing insights into how agricultural practices shape local culture and cuisine, and how cultural systems interact with the environment, these experiences help visitors gain a better understanding of the culture of their travel destination.

In Asia and the Pacific, various types of agrifood tourism have emerged that offer creative experiences involving the cultural and natural heritage of destinations (e.g. agricultural practices, landscapes and seascapes), highlighting the assets of the territory in terms of ethical values and sustainability.

Desire for authenticity

Today's travellers seek authentic food and other experiences. Agrifood tourism destinations try to satisfy this desire by offering products and experiences that are the result of a genuine, close relationship between food, land and community (Fusté-Forné, 2015). By consuming local products resulting from the interplay between a land and rural expertise, food tourists can experience place attachment, both physiologically and symbolically (Bessière, 2001).

Sasu and Epuran (2016) argue that while agritourism is driven by a desire of tourists for authentic rural experiences that grant them access to daily local life, this search for authenticity may involve the rejection of modernity to safeguard an idealized, pristine image of village and farm life.

Increased awareness of sustainability issues

The tourism sector is a significant consumer of energy, fresh water and land, and an emitter of greenhouse gasses. At the same time, tourism can valorize cultural, environmental and culinary assets, as well as help finance and manage protected areas and boost their economic value (OECD, 2018b).

Both tourism operators and consumers – and especially younger travellers – are increasingly concerned about sustainability issues (OECD, 2018b). A recent study (Nielsen, 2018) found that 81 percent of consumers strongly feel that companies should help protect the environment, with millennials and Generation Z being the most outspoken. Although the number of consumers willing to pay a higher price for sustainability is not as high, it is growing quickly, from 55 percent of global consumers in 2014 to 66 percent (73 percent for millennials) in 2015 (Nielsen, 2015). Nevertheless, in certain markets, a large proportion of consumers remains reluctant to pay a premium for more environmentally sustainable tourism experiences (Pulido-Fernández and López-Sánchez, 2016). The Tourism Marketing Strategy 2021–2025 of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) asserts that 67 percent of travellers are willing to spend at least 5 percent more on travel to reduce its impact on the environment (ASEAN, 2022).

The shift towards more responsible tourism practices is largely driven by the millennial generation. Millennials are more educated, adventurous, culturally sensitive and aware of ethics and sustainability aspects. Their travel decisions are increasingly influenced by ethics, moral values, concerns about the environment, animal welfare, production and labour practices, and the desire to positively impact communities and people (Global Blue and Roland Berger, 2018). Many do not only want to reduce their holiday footprint but are also keen to support local farmers and businesses that use locally produced food and beverages instead of using foods that have been transported over long distances. Some millennials are also concerned with social sustainability, such as the equitable inclusion of women and youth, and fair employment.

Millennials are also becoming increasingly aware of the dangers of overtourism.[17] Widespread media coverage of tourism destinations and experiences, along with an unquestioning growth model in tourism have led to overtourism, whereby the negative impacts for destinations' environment and communities outweigh any positive impacts (UNWTO, 2018). Millennials are increasingly incorporating this factor into their travel decisions, generating a shift away from traditional sun, sea and sand and attraction-based tourism (OECD, 2018b). The growing awareness about overtourism is also forcing destinations to reconsider their tourism management policies to focus more on the long term and develop more sustainable segments, such as agrifood tourism.

According to UNWTO (2012), agrifood tourism has the potential to address sustainability concerns in a way that is compatible with purely economic arguments, as it contributes to the development of local food systems and the conservation of culinary and agricultural heritage. Nevertheless, deliberate efforts are required to leverage this culinary and agricultural heritage rationally, rather than creating pressure on food systems and destinations and "touristifying" gastronomy (UNWTO, 2012).

The increasing interest in sustainable foods and agrifood tourism experiences is reflected in a range of trends, including the growth of "green" restaurants and farmers' markets, the rise of movements such as the farm-to-table, slow food, fair trade and locavore (eat locally) movements, and waste minimization initiatives. In addition, third-party sustainable tourism certification programmes, along with sustainability labelling (e.g. food miles and carbon emissions) have become fairly common (OECD, 2018b). This is partially a result of the greater focus on the measurement and evaluation of sustainability, as well as of the rising number of social enterprises engaged in the tourism sector (OECD, 2018b).

17 For a definition of "overtourism", see the glossary.

Shift towards healthy and nature-based lifestyles

Consumers are increasingly considering health and wellness issues when making food and travel decisions; they are also more aware of the psychological benefits of tourism in terms of stress reduction (Lee, Han and Ko, 2020). Healthy nutrition is one of the most important determinants of travel and food decisions (Hrelia, 2015). Related to the increasing attention being paid to health and nutrition is the need for the tourism and hospitality industry to comply with ever more stringent legal requirements regarding food allergies and sensitivities (Bordelon, 2016), as well respond to the growing demand for specific diets (e.g. vegan, vegetarian or halal).[18]

Traditionally, the mental and physical health of travellers was catered for by resorts and spas. However, health and wellness are increasingly being integrated into all aspects of travel and tourism, from spending time in nature (e.g. on agricultural heritage sites and agritourism farms) to doing a digital detox and eating healthy (and preferably local) food (Euromonitor International, 2017). The growing interest of consumers in local food is often associated with the perception that it is more nutritious, healthier and of a higher quality than the food sold in the mainstream supply chain (Testa *et al.*, 2019). Agrifood tourism is especially well-placed to satisfy these preferences for healthy and close-to-nature living (Torres and Momsen, 2011; Chen *et al.*, 2020).

Increased media coverage of foreign food cultures

A growing media content about unique foods and cuisines in foreign lands has piqued the interest of travellers in agrifood tourism and opened new avenues for growth (Williams, Williams and Omar, 2016). Asian countries in particular are very present in the media, kindling food enthusiasts' desire to travel in search of food experiences. This drives the development of agrifood tourism in the region (Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019).

Social media

Social media are driving the growing interest in agrifood tourism. Most tourists now use social media platforms and peer review sites to research and plan their trip online, but the influence of social media is even stronger when it comes to food tourists (Williams, Williams and Omar, 2016). Initially, television programmes, for example cooking programmes and documentaries, made travellers curious. Then, social media influencers, such as food and travel bloggers, took over this role by sharing the stories of their own food experiences with other travellers. This increased travel consumers' awareness of different cuisines and cultures, and fuelled their desire to experience them. Today, every traveller can digitally share their culinary experiences with friends and strangers around the world, fuelling a race in the social media to determine who has the most unique food experiences. Ninety-seven percent of millennial travellers post on social media while travelling, with 73 percent of them posting at least once a day (Shankman, 2004).

Food tourists share millions of food- and beverage-themed photos daily across social platforms such as Twitter, Facebook, Instagram and TikTok. About 45 percent of Instagram users are interested in travelling, and 43 percent in food and drinks (Iqbal, 2022). Food is one of the most popular themes of Instagram photographs, along with fashion. By mid-2020, there were over 327 million posts on Instagram with the tag #food (Gabrielli, 2020). The #travel hashtag also features many culinary posts. YouTube has a wealth of food channels that primarily target millennials, offering cooking tutorials by professional chefs. TikTok has recently entered the battle of the food platforms (the food community on the app is called FoodTok), targeting a younger, amateur audience with short videos offering simple instructions (Mitchell, 2021).

18 See for instance Liberato *et al.* (2020) on halal tourism and Molina-Gómez, Ruiz-Ruiz and Mercadé Melé (2018) on the presence of vegetarian restaurants as a determining factor for the choice of travel destinations of vegetarian tourists.

Film-induced tourism

Another pathway through which the media has a visible impact on tourism is the phenomenon known as film-induced tourism (Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019) (see Box 1).

BOX 1

The role of films in stimulating agrifood tourism in the Asia–Pacific region

A plethora of recent shows on food, culture and travel in a variety of media formats, including documentaries, reality shows and movies on television and streaming platforms, is driving the phenomenon of film-induced tourism. This trend drives intraregional and domestic agrifood tourism in Asia, and even creates new food destinations.

An example is the food-themed Korean television drama series Jewel in the Palace, which was released in 2003 in the Republic of Korea and aired in other countries between 2004 and 2005, marking the beginning of media-informed agrifood tourism.[i] Another example is the Chinese food and culture documentary programme *A Bite of China,* which has attracted a large number of domestic food tourists.[ii] The Japanese movie *Udon* contributed greatly to developing *udon* (noodles) tourism in Japan.[iii, iv] The focus on food in television shows, as well as in the (equally influential) social media in the Republic of Korea has contributed to the designation of Jeonju, a city in the western part of the country, as a "slow city" and a UNESCO City of Gastronomy for its high-quality traditional food.[ii, v]

More recently, the success of the documentary series Street Food: Asia (streamed on Netflix) has encouraged street food tourism across Asia, from India to Indonesia, Japan, the Philippines, the Republic of Korea, Singapore, Thailand and Viet Nam.[vi]

Notes:

i **Kim, S., Kim, M., Agrusa, J. and Lee, A.** 2012. Does a food-themed TV drama affect perceptions of national image and intention to visit a country? An empirical study of Korea TV drama. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing,* 29(4): 313–326.

ii **Park, E., Kim, S. and Yeoman, I.** 2019. *Food tourism in Asia*. Singapore, Springer.

iii **Kim, S. and Ellis, A.** 2015. Noodle production and consumption: From agriculture to food tourism in Japan. *Tourism Geographies,* 17(1): 151–167.

iv **Kim, S. and Iwashita, C.** 2016. Cooking identity and food tourism: the case of Japanese udon noodles. *Tourism Recreation Research,* 41(1): 89–100. https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2016.1111976

v For more information on Jeonju as a UNESCO City of Gastronomy, see www.unesco.org/new/fileadmin/MULTIMEDIA/HQ/CLT/pdf/Jeonju_10things.pdf

vi For an insight into how Netflix series are boosting street food tourism across the world, see https://interfacetourism.fr/en/2019/06/11/green_team-2/

Enabling technologies

Digitalization is rapidly transforming all sectors of the economy in countries across Asia and the Pacific. Emerging information and communication technologies (ICT) have become prominent enablers of tourism in all its forms, including agrifood tourism. Two decades ago, the internet revolutionized the global tourism industry by enabling the online booking of flights and hotels. Today, the sector is in the midst of a second wave of digital transformation with the adoption of ICT tools such as the internet of things, cloud computing, location-based services, artificial intelligence and blockchain technology (UNWTO, n.d.b). With the COVID-19 outbreak, the overall trend towards digital and innovative services, especially mobile services, has accelerated further (UNWTO, 2020d).

These technologies are transforming the way travel is researched, purchased, provided and experienced, and are responsible for the creation of new tourism marketplaces and business models (OECD, 2018b). Online travel agencies and rating systems are levelling the playing field by providing new opportunities for small- and medium-scale tourism entrepreneurs to reach broad bases of customers.

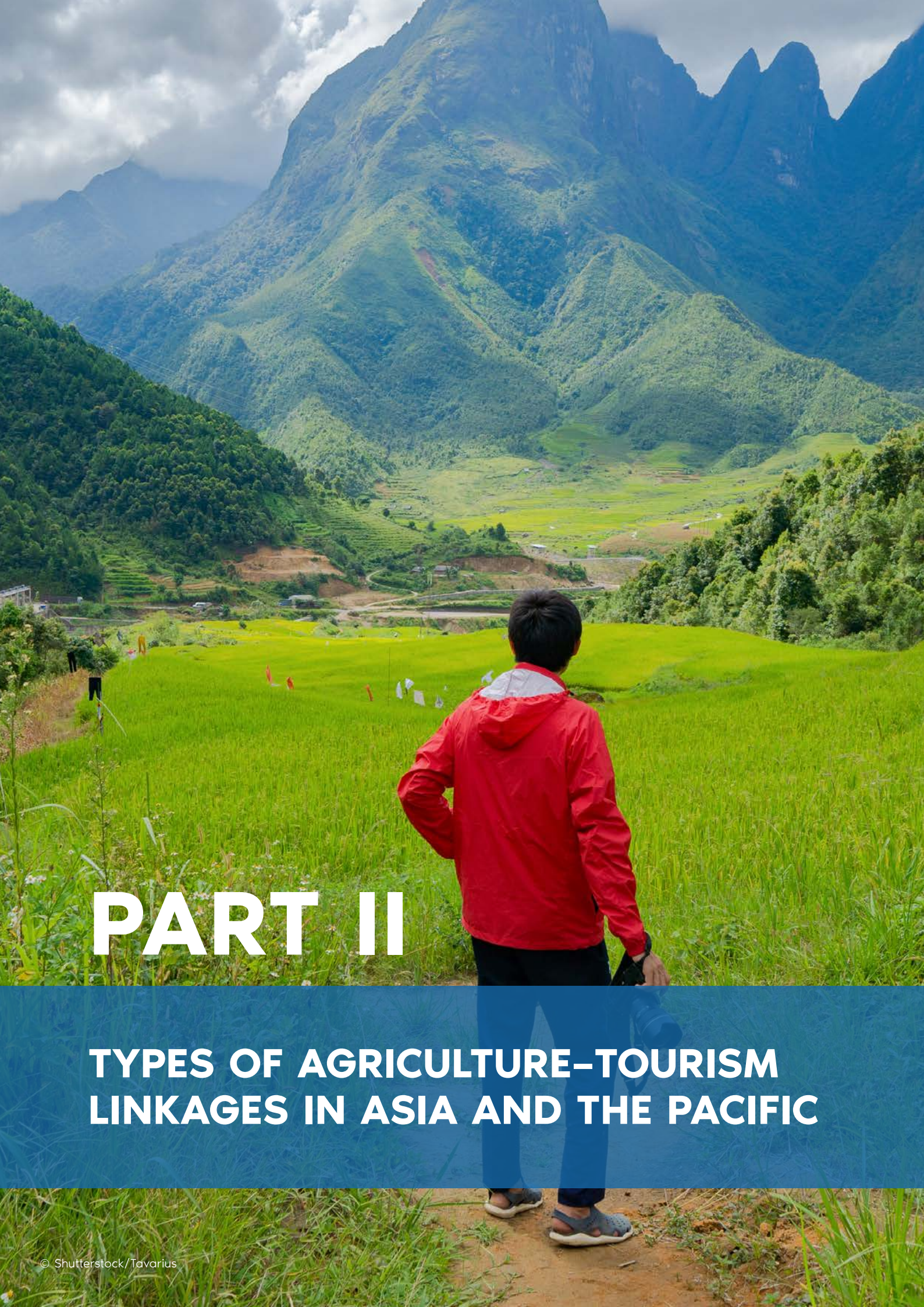
Digital platforms are often consulted to inform travel decisions. Perhaps the most influential trends are the propensity of travellers (particularly millennials and Generation Z) to embrace social media to explore destinations and share experiences in real time, and the rise of the sharing economy, including accommodation sharing and ride sharing (OECD, 2020). Social media have become a vital part of the agrifood tourism experience, and tourists expect to have access to the internet to post on social media platforms. Nearly 70 percent of travellers share their experiences online, and about 61 percent of them download travel applications before trips. Eighty-seven percent of millennials consider their smartphone their most essential travel item (Oxford Economics and PATA, 2018). Social media are therefore frequently used to influence the decisions of emerging generations.

Digital technologies have also brought about new opportunities for the promotion of tourism and the marketing of food through e-platforms targeting domestic and international markets. In 2018, about 80 percent of travel was organized online, both worldwide and in Asia and the Pacific (Oxford Economics and PATA, 2018). The share of online bookings in overall bookings of flights and hotels climbed from 9 percent in 2017 to almost 33 percent in 2019 (WEF, 2019). This trend is accompanied by a decrease in the use of offline sources such as tourism information centres, printed media and hotel concierge services (OECD, 2020).

Mobile banking and digital payments – often blockchain-based – make transactions easier for both tourists and service providers (OECD, 2018b). Artificial intelligence makes it possible, for example, for tourism companies to offer customised experiences and improve business performance, and for governments to measure tourism in real time for a better management of visitor flows (UNWTO, 2019c).

Together, these innovations have made travel more affordable, efficient and accessible to many people, while making tourism more reliant than ever on digital services. They have also changed the behaviour of travellers. Millennials have set a new digital standard for the tourism industry, and their habits and requirements have spread to other generations (Global Blue and Roland Berger, 2018). They frequently connect directly with hotels and restaurants online or participate in the sharing economy via peer-to-peer or sharing platforms. As a consequence, they have radically reshaped the role of intermediaries, such as travel agencies (OECD, 2018b).

The digital transformation of the tourism sector is expected to generate up to USD 305 billion of additional value for the tourism sector in the decade to 2025, out of which USD 100 billion is value generated by new digital competitors with innovative business models (WEF, 2017). The digital transformation of the tourism industry is also forecast to create benefits valued at USD 700 billion for customers and the wider society through cost and time savings, reduced environmental footprints and improved safety and security (WEF, 2017). UNWTO adds that these technologies can help tackle challenges such as seasonality and overcrowding, while making the tourism offer more attractive (UNWTO, n.d.b). Much of this value addition and other positive impacts are expected to take place in Asia and the Pacific (WEF, 2017).



PART II

TYPES OF AGRICULTURE–TOURISM LINKAGES IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

CHAPTER 2: Food for tourism: integrating smallholder farmers in the tourism supply chain

KEY MESSAGES

- Creating strong farming-tourism linkages offers great potential to support small, local food producers and strengthen their position in the market. It also helps ensure that tourists eat well, which enriches their tourism experience. In addition, these linkages are crucial to promote the development of local production and preserve culinary traditions and know-how.
- Market linkages between local food producers and the tourism industry must be sustainable: the benefits for local communities should be maximized, and economic leakage – associated with a loss of foreign exchange earnings and missed opportunities to expand and modernize local food production and processing – should be avoided.
- To fully understanding farming-tourism linkages, FAO conducted a survey among 1 052 respondents in Fiji, India, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, the Philippines, Sri Lanka and Thailand in 2021-2022.
- The survey showed that 75 percent of all tourism operators only procured food domestically. Internationally owned hotels and restaurants tend to source the bulk of their food overseas, while domestically owned establishment mainly rely on domestic sources (mostly vendors in wholesale and local markets).
- Only one-fifth of all tourism operators bought most of their food from local farmers and farmer groups. High-end hotels were more than twice as likely to engage with farmers than smaller, cheaper hotels. Hotels belonging to a chain were also more likely to do so as a result of the implementation of corporate social responsibility (CSR) programmes and the support of farm-to-table practices by their clientele.
- Of these direct linkages with farmers, 55 percent were with farmer groups and 45 percent with individual farmers. Half of these direct linkages implied written or verbal agreements with farmers, while one-quarter did not involve any explicit obligations or commitments.
- The main types of food sourced directly from farmers were animal products, followed by herbs and spices, grains and cereals, and fruits and vegetables.
- The most common ways for tourism operators and farmers to get in contact were through farmers' markets, referrals, fairs and community-supported agriculture schemes. Contrarily to what might have been expected, few tourism operators found farmers through the internet or through government programmes.

2.1. MARKET LINKAGES BETWEEN FOOD PRODUCERS AND THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

Why link farmers to the tourism industry? The main reason is that fostering the local production of food for tourism markets can greatly contribute to agricultural and regional development, thereby strengthening the livelihoods of farmers, as well as enhance the access of visitors to local foods and improve their gastronomic experiences (Torres and Momsen, 2011). While the proponents of farming–tourism linkages often focus exclusively on the socioeconomic benefits, there may also be positive environmental impacts, such as a reduction in food miles along the supply chain (see Section 5.2).

The absence of market linkages between local farmers and the tourism industry may result in a high dependence on imported food to meet the food needs of tourists (Meyer, 2007; Clayton and Karagiannis, 2008). In this scenario, tourism receipts do not stimulate local economic activity, thus forfeiting the multiplier effect of tourism expenditure at the destination and contributing to revenue leakages from the tourism economy (Meyer, 2007).

The tourism sector is an important market for agricultural products, not least because food and beverages account for approximately one-third of tourist expenditure (Telfer and Wall, 2000). In addition, growing tourism opens up new opportunities for producers in the form of specialized agrifood markets for tourism consumption (Torres and Momsen, 2011). Food travellers can spur the production and sale of local food in tourist destinations, not only when they are there, but also when they return home with food souvenirs (Technical Centre for Agricultural and Rural Cooperation [CTA], 2020).[19] This demand helps build linkages, partnerships and trust between local food producers and the hospitality industry.

The involvement of small producers in tourism supply chains is an example of inclusive business models that engage local communities and the poor (Vorley, Lundy and MacGregor, 2009; Vorley and Proctor, 2008; Oxfam International, 2010). These models focus on enabling smallholder farmers to supply authentic, locally produced food, for which there is a growing demand (Meyer, 2007). They recognize that farmers are stewards of the land and constitute the link to the terroir and the local agrifood heritage.

Operators in the tourism industry are increasingly trying to reduce long-distance food sourcing in favour of procuring more locally produced foods (Rogerson, 2012). To this end, many hotels, lodges and all-inclusive resorts in Asia and the Pacific are making deliberate efforts to build networks with chefs, farmers and suppliers (CTA, 2017). Likewise, many restaurant operators, globally and in the region, are adjusting their menus to include more local ingredients. This is reflected in the growing number of restaurants that market themselves as farm-to-table, farm-to-fork or locally sourced (Shin *et al.*, 2017).

The trend towards local foods reflects the many benefits such foods offer: greater freshness and shorter transport distances (Aaltojärvi, Kontukoski and Hopia, 2018), a better taste and the possibility to gain a better understanding of the food supply chain (Campell, DiPietro and Remar, 2014), and potential contributions to a healthy diet, the preservation of the environment and greater social justice (Schmitt *et al.*, 2017; Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016).

The movement towards local food sourcing implies the development of long-term business relationships between individual or organized farmers and tourism businesses, rather than ad hoc sales. At the simplest level, hotels and restaurants can seek out local food suppliers and work with them to ensure consistent deliveries, and even develop new or improved products. At a more complex level, tourism establishments can engage in contract farming or outgrower schemes, which may require considerable long-term investments by both the tourism companies and the producers (FAO, 2007).

19 For further information on agrifood souvenirs, see Rolle and Enriquez (2017).

Despite the rise of local sourcing movements and the attention paid to them in academia and international development communities,[20] there is little evidence about the extent and nature of backward linkages in tourism supply chains in Asia and the Pacific.[21] To fill this gap, FAO conducted a survey, in collaboration with SEARCA, in six Asian–Pacific countries, including Fiji, India, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, the Philippines, Sri Lanka and Thailand. The survey was conducted specifically for this publication, in 2021 and 2022. Its aim was to document linkages between local smallholder farmers and the tourism industry, and distil lessons on how to promote a closer marriage between tourism and agriculture. The findings of the survey are summarized in Section 2.2.

20 See e.g. Ashley *et al.* (2007) and Thomas-Francois, Von Massow and Joppe (2017).

21 Some notable exceptions include studies by Telfer and Wall (1996) in Indonesia, Berno (2011) and ADB and Private Sector Development Initiative (2018) in Pacific countries, Choo and Jamal (2009) in the Republic of Korea, MTCO (2017) and ADB (2018) in the Greater Mekong Subregion, and Hampton, Jeyacheya and Long (2018) in Viet Nam.

2.2. FAO SURVEY ON THE TOURISM SUPPLY CHAIN IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

Scope and respondents of the survey

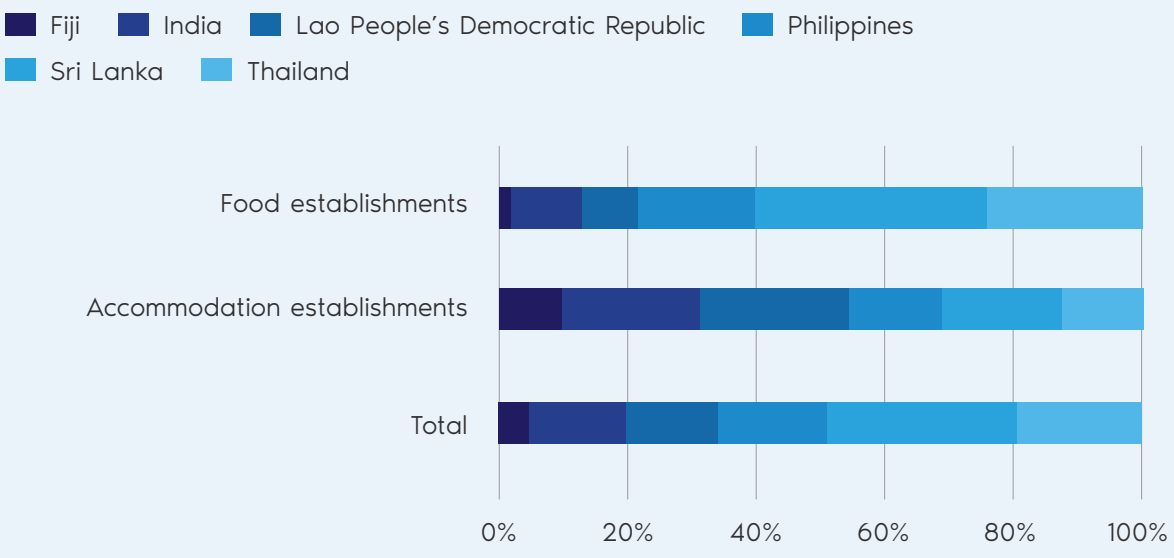
The survey conducted by FAO among tourism establishments in six Asian-Pacific countries had the objective of gaining a better understanding of the tourism food supply chain, the procurement profile of tourism businesses and their partnerships (or lack thereof) with local farmers. The food products considered in the survey include fruits and vegetables, livestock products (e.g. dairy products and poultry, game and other meats), seafood, herbs and spices, grains and cereals, and processed foods, as well as some non-food agricultural products (e.g. banana leaves and charcoal) used for cooking. For the purposes of the survey, the term "farmers" is used generically and includes crop and livestock producers and fisherfolk.

The selection of the countries was guided by various considerations, such as tourism capacity, geographical location and agricultural, economic, political and cultural factors. The six countries have different agrifood and tourism settings, and were selected to obtain a representative sample of the Asia-Pacific region. The survey considered several aspects, including the profile of the respondents, food procurement modalities, types of food production-tourism linkages, the potential benefits of local sourcing by the tourism industry, and barriers to linkages.

There were 1 052 respondents, from Sri Lanka (29.4 percent), Thailand (19.6 percent), the Philippines (16.9 percent), India (14.9 percent), the Lao People's Democratic Republic (14.2 percent) and Fiji (5 percent). About 37.8 percent of respondents (398) belonged to the accommodation sector (e.g. hotels, resorts), while 62.2 percent (654) were food establishments, all in tourism destinations (e.g. restaurants, cafes and bars) (see Figure 6).

FIGURE 6

Distribution of respondents of the FAO survey across countries and categories



Source: authors' elaboration, based on the results of the survey.

Most respondents were located in urban areas (42.6 percent) or suburban areas (32.6 percent), while 24.8 percent were situated in rural areas. In terms of the position occupied by the respondents in tourism establishments, 25.9 percent of them were decision-makers, 33 percent worked in food operations (e.g. in charge of overall kitchen operations), 22.4 percent worked in purchasing and procurement, and 18.7 percent were cooks or chefs.

Only 8.3 percent of the establishments were foreign-owned or belonged to international chains (47 accommodation structures and 40 food establishments). The relevance of this distribution will become evident when analysing whether tourism establishments procure their food overseas or domestically.

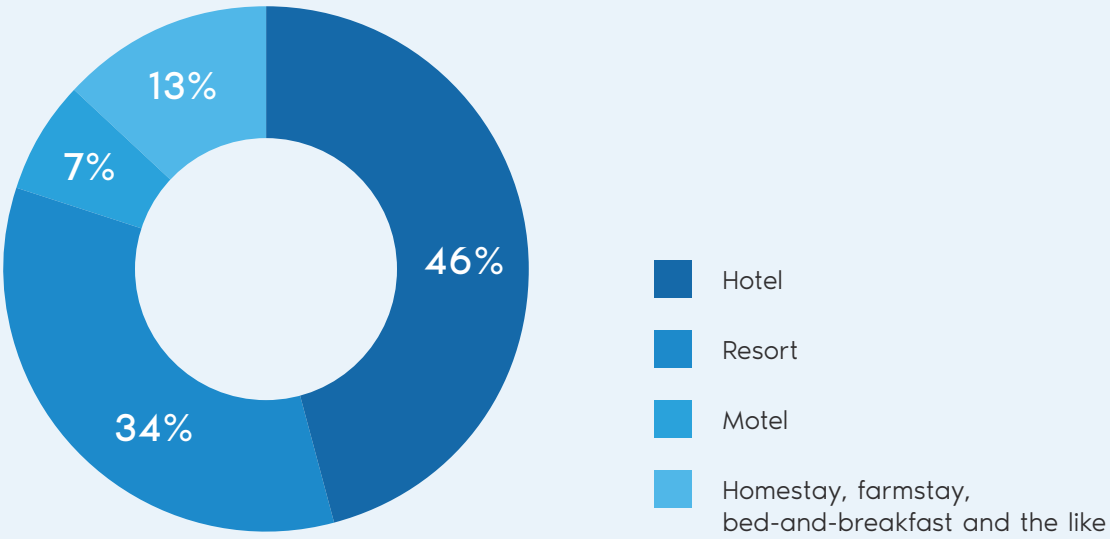
The composition of the sample reflects the reality of the sector: around 80 percent of tourism enterprises, both globally and regionally, are MSMEs, owned predominantly by domestic investors and entrepreneurs (UNWTO, 2020a). At the same time, the economic importance of foreign-owned tourism businesses in undeniable. In fact, the contribution of foreign direct investment in the tourism industry leads to an increase in tourists' arrivals in the long run (Fauzel, 2020) and to major job creation (UNWTO, 2020e). This is why the following sections disaggregate the information on procurement practices and market linkages for the two types of establishments.

Profile of respondents in the accommodation sector

Forty-six percent of respondents in the accommodation sector were hotels, 34 percent were resorts and 7 percent were motels, while 13 percent were classified as other structures, including *inter alia* homestay, farmstay and bed-and-breakfast accommodations (see Figure 7).

FIGURE 7

Types of accommodation establishments surveyed



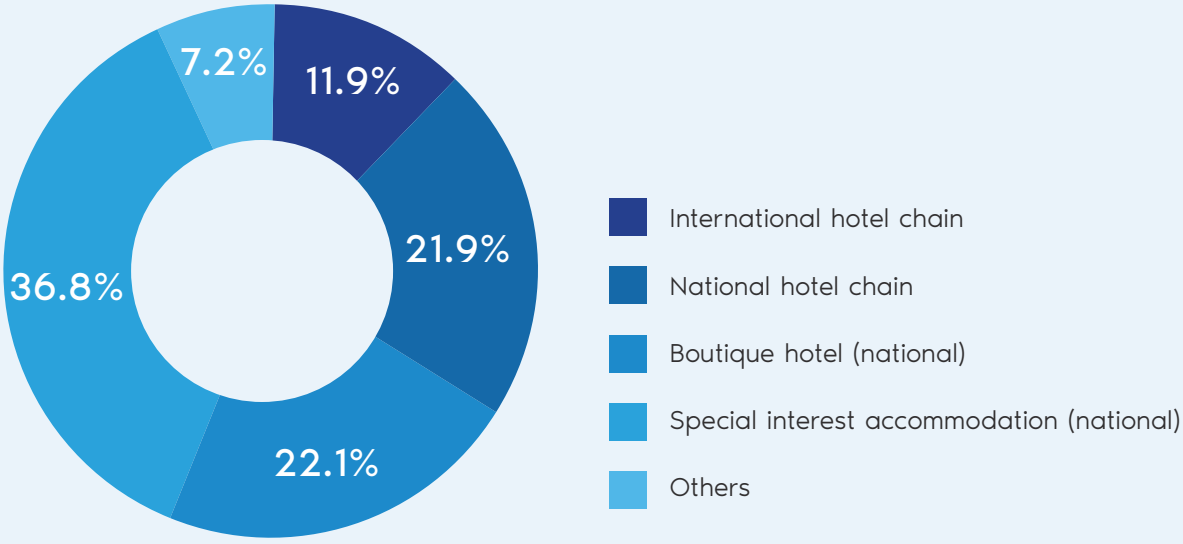
Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

The majority of respondents in the accommodation sector were special interest accommodations, followed by boutique hotels, local hotels, hotels belonging to an international chain and others (camping sites and function rooms) (see Figure 8).[22]

22 The survey defined "special interest accommodation" as any hotel providing highly specialized services and experiences, such as spa hotels, heritage hotels, art hotels and sports hotel. Boutique hotels are small-sized accommodations under independent management; they also emphasize respect for the local environment (Fuentes-Moraleda *et al.*, 2019).

FIGURE 8

Classification of accommodation establishments surveyed according to ownership



Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

Of all the accommodation establishments surveyed, 88.1 percent were nationally owned, and only 11.9 percent of were foreign-owned. The presence of international hotel chains was particularly significant in the Philippines (31 percent of all accommodation respondents in the country), followed by Thailand (20 percent), Fiji (12.8 percent) and Lao People's Democratic Republic (12 percent). The participation of foreign-owned hotels in India and Sri Lanka in the survey was minimal.

Respondents in the accommodation category were also classified according to the hotel rating system they used (e.g. stars or diamonds) to rank their facilities and standards from basic comfort to luxury (UNWTO, 2015). The purpose of such rating systems is to inform prospective guests on what they can expect in terms of facilities and service delivery. Of all accommodations, 22.4 percent were using a star rating, 15.3 percent other international ratings and 27.9 percent a local rating (e.g. the national star rating system of the Department of Tourism of the Philippines), while 34.4 percent were not using any rating system (yet).

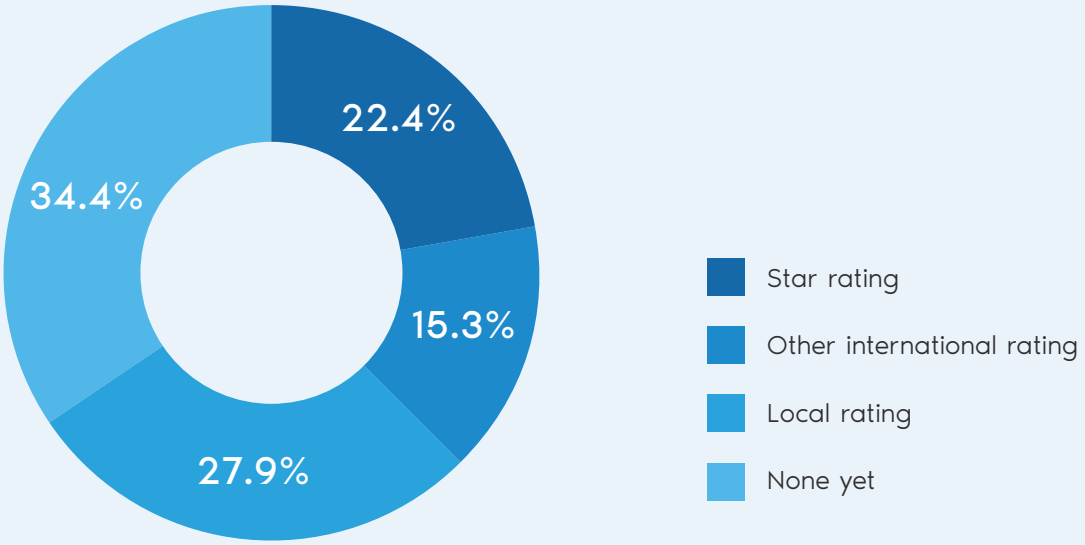
Profile of respondents in the food sector

Of all food establishments surveyed, 37.8 percent were restaurants, 14.5 percent were cafes, 16.9 percent were bars, 13.3 percent offered catering and banquet services, 11.2 percent fell in the category of souvenir shops selling food souvenirs, and 6.3 percent were classified as other (see Figure 9). Seventy-one percent of all food establishments were classified as small foodservice businesses (less than 50 seats), while 19 percent were medium-sized businesses (between 51 and 120 seats) and only 10 percent were considered large (more than 120 seats) (see Figure 11).

The large majority of all food establishments surveyed were domestic: 45 percent were local specialized or independent food establishments, 47.2 percent were local food chains, and 1.7 percent were classified as other. Only 6.1 percent of all food establishments belonged to international chains (see Figure 12).

FIGURE 9

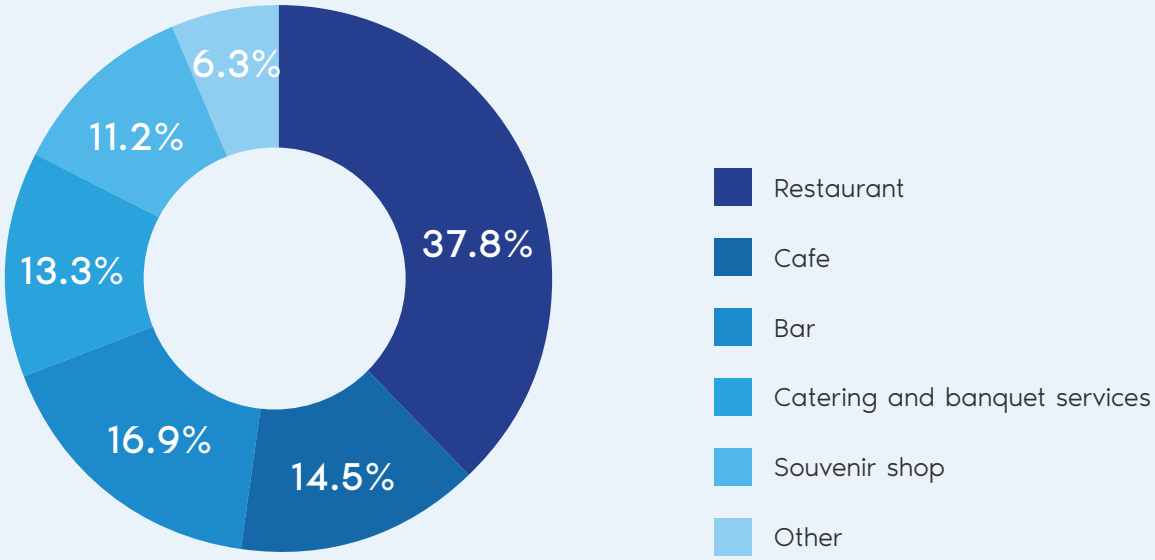
Classification of respondents in the accommodation segment according to rating systems



Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

FIGURE 10

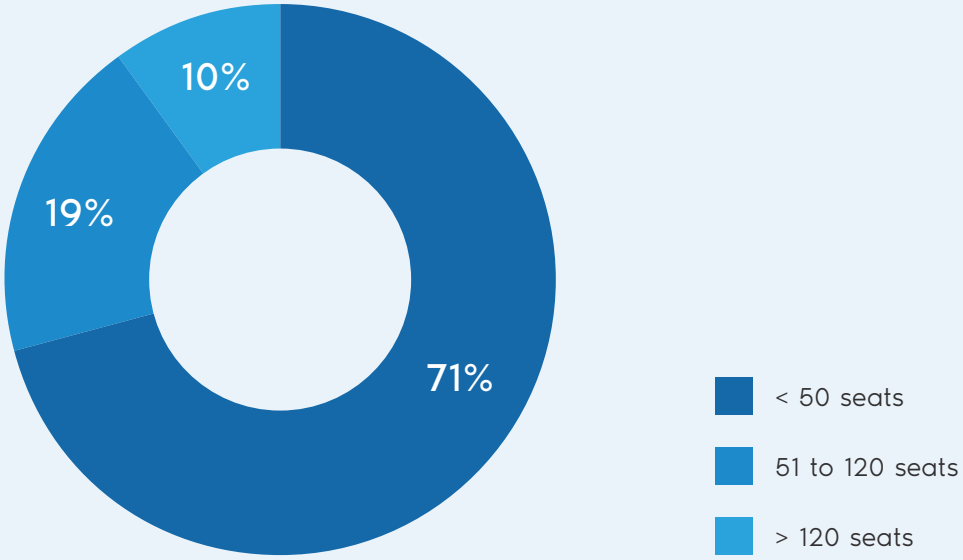
Types of food establishments surveyed



Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

FIGURE 11

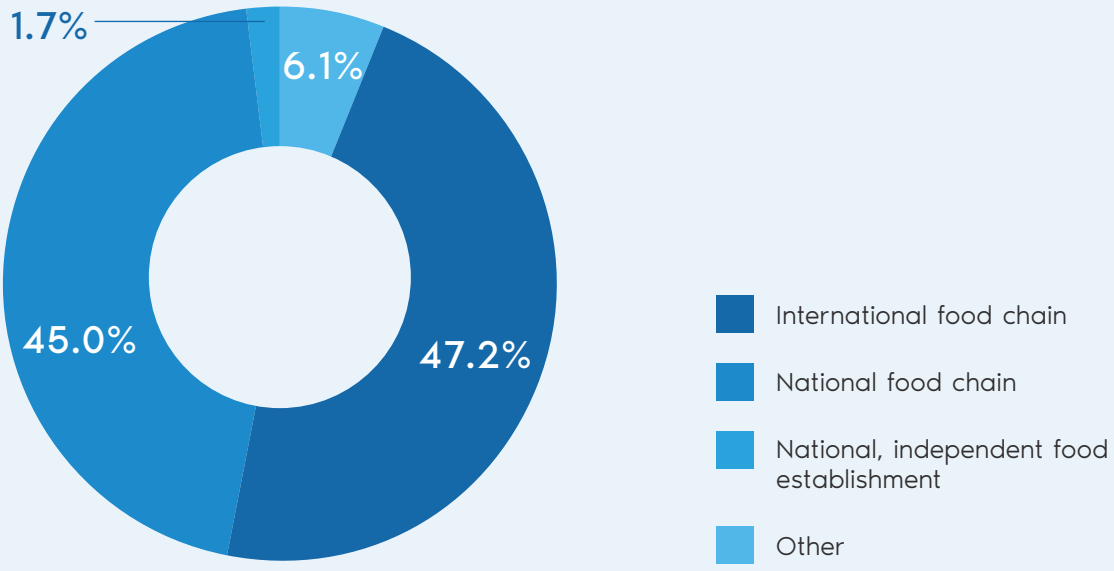
Seating capacity of food establishments surveyed



Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

FIGURE 12

Ownership of food establishments surveyed



Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

Food supply channels

International, domestic and local procurement

The respondents used various modalities of food procurement at international, national and local levels, or a combination thereof (mixed procurement). For the purposes of the survey, national procurement was defined as procurement carried out anywhere within the territory of the country. Local procurement was understood as procurement carried out within the boundaries of the local community, which for some businesses meant the municipality where they were located, and for some the province or even the region. Although the definition of "local" therefore varied greatly, for the majority of respondents implied a radius of 100 km from their location.

Three-quarters of all respondents only procured food domestically (at different geographical scales, ranging from local to national), while one-quarter also bought food supplies overseas (8.4 percent relied primarily upon directly imported foods, while 16.7 percent also purchased food domestically).

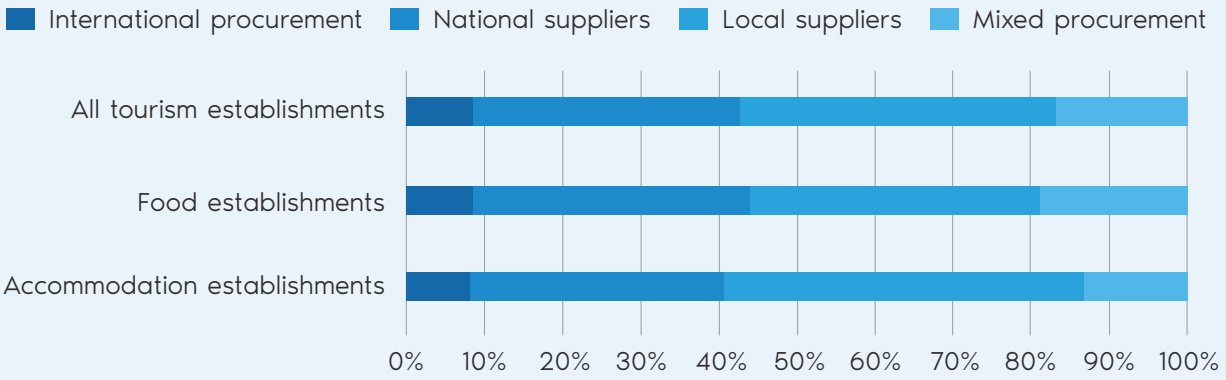
The businesses surveyed gave different reasons for choosing their procurement modalities. The main rationale for directly importing food supplies was the need to comply with the international requirements imposed by the parent company (33.3 percent of those importing food directly), which could not be met domestically. Other reasons for importing food directly were availability (21.6 percent), compliance with quality and quantity standards (19.8 percent each) and competitive pricing (5.4 percent). The top reasons for mixed procurement were flexibility (while complying with quality and quantity requirements) and affordability. Meanwhile, purchasing food from local suppliers was mainly motivated by accessibility (34.6 percent), availability (30 percent) and affordability (17.6 percent), among other factors.

However, the above patterns did not apply uniformly to both types of establishments (accommodation vs food establishments), or across countries. Figure 12 shows the differences between accommodation and restaurant establishments in terms of food procurement, while Figure 14 shows the differences between countries. On one side of the spectrum were India and the Philippines, where 90.5 and 84.3 percent of all tourism operators, respectively, procured food domestically. Meanwhile, operators in Fiji, Thailand and Sri Lanka relied more heavily on international and mixed procurement strategies (43.5 percent, 30.6 percent and 27.9 percent, respectively).

Figure 15 seems to indicate that economic leakages in the food supply chain for the tourism industry are rather limited. However, this statement needs to be clarified and nuanced to offer a more truthful portrayal of the situation. Indeed, the weight of domestic procurement compared to that of food imports in overall national samples is influenced by the predominance of domestically owned businesses: for every foreign-owned business in the overall survey, there were 11 nationally owned businesses. Thus, the data in Figure 14 hide a significant disparity between the procurement practices of these two groups. There exists, in fact, a dual system whereby most internationally owned businesses procure food and ingredients overseas, and most nationally owned operations procure food from domestic sources (see Figure 15, Figure 16, Figure 17 and Figure 18).

FIGURE 13

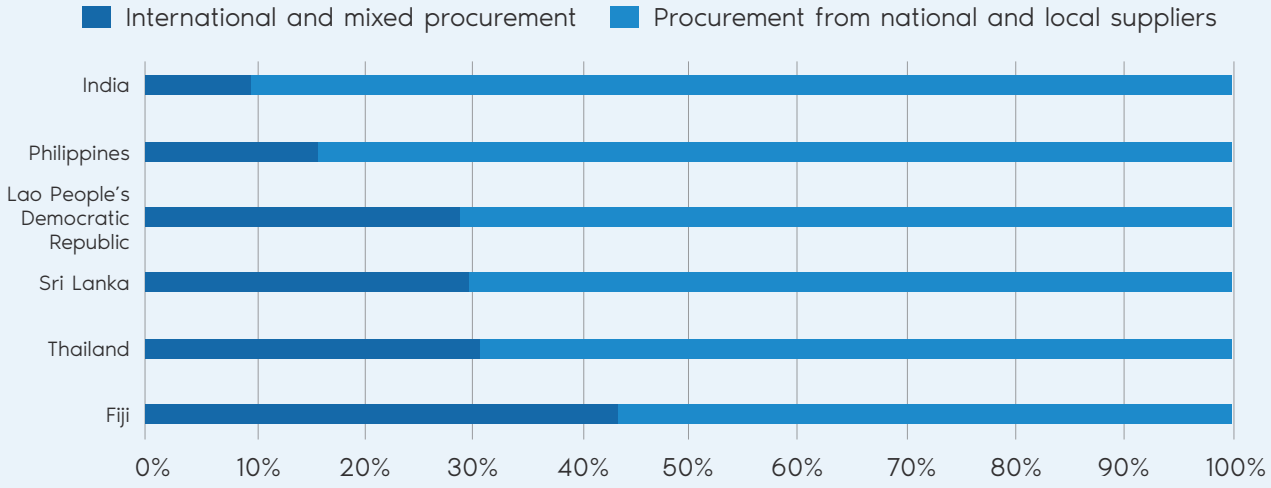
Food supply channels used by tourism establishments



Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

FIGURE 14

Food procurement modalities by country



Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

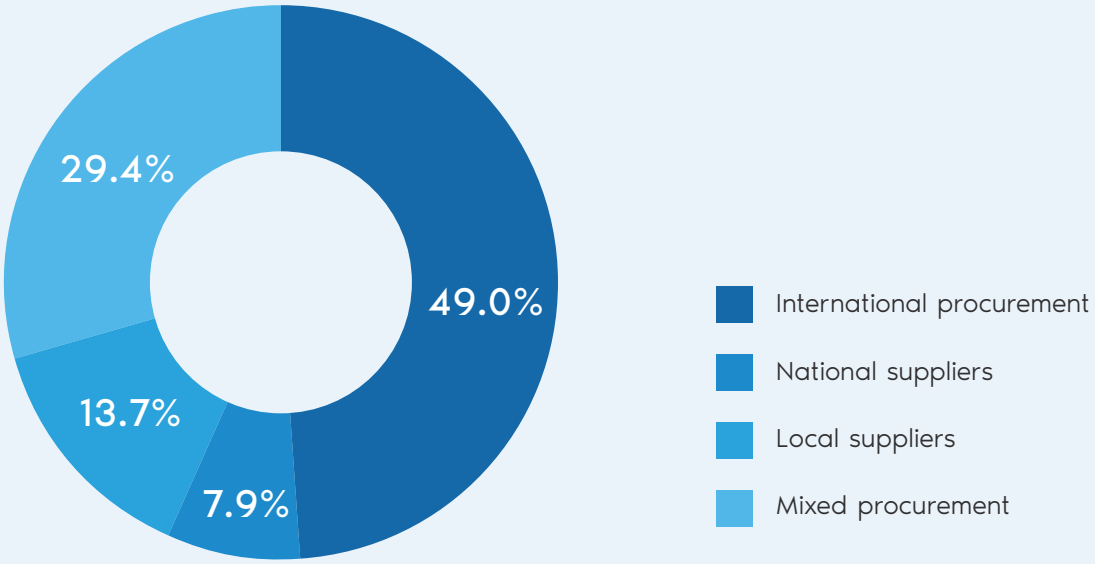
Procurement by foreign- and domestically owned tourism businesses

Nearly half of the international hotels in the survey directly imported all the food they consume, while 29.4 percent had a mixed procurement system with food being both imported and bought domestically. These businesses imported mostly high-value products such as seafood, dairy products, meat and processed foods.

Less than 22 percent of international hotel chains relied exclusively upon domestic suppliers. However, even in these cases, most of the products purchased from local and national suppliers were imported products of foreign brands.

FIGURE 15

Food procurement modalities among foreign-owned hotels

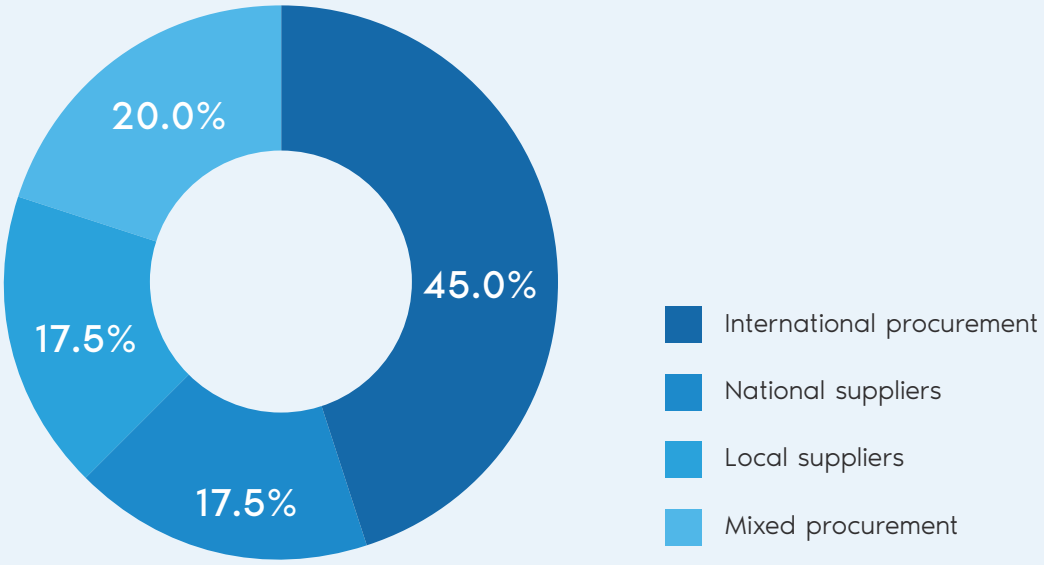


Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

The procurement profile of foreign-owned food establishments showed a similar pattern, as shown in Figure 16.

FIGURE 16

Food procurement modalities among foreign-owned food establishments



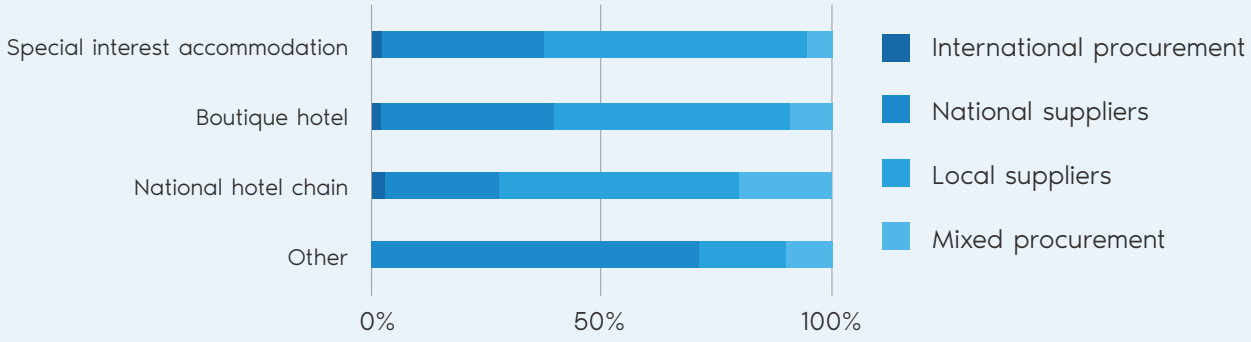
Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

These findings are consistent with those of earlier studies in the region. For example, Berno (2011) showed that food imports by international tourism operators in Fiji were one of the most important sources of economic leakage in tourism on the island. Similarly, Scheyvens and Laeis (2021) found that high-end resorts in Fiji imported 65 percent of their food requirements (in volume terms), while procuring only a small share from local farmers and fisherfolk. For example, they spent only 6 percent of their food purchasing budgets on sourcing local fruits and vegetables (which nevertheless made up 60 percent of all fruits and vegetables sourced in volume terms). Another study (CTA, 2017) found that in Pacific Island nations, roughly 70 percent of the food used in the tourist industry was imported. A study in Viet Nam by Hampton, Jeyacheya and Long (2018) distinguished between nationally and foreign-owned high-end hotels, and warned that the risk of economic leakage is higher in the latter, as the supply chains of large and international businesses are usually extended and centrally managed.

Meanwhile, domestically owned accommodation and food establishments reported procuring the bulk of their food supplies from local and national suppliers (see Figure 17 and Figure 18). Most independent food establishments sourced from local suppliers, whereas the majority of food chains sourced their food from national suppliers.

FIGURE 17

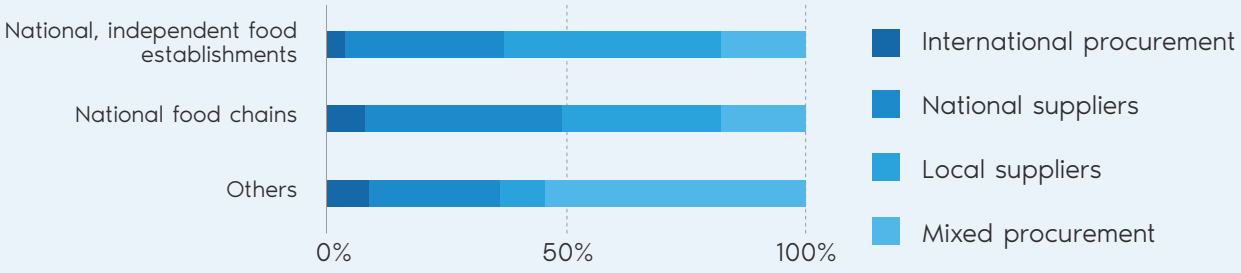
Food procurement modalities among domestically owned accommodation establishments



Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

FIGURE 18

Food procurement modalities among domestically owned food establishments



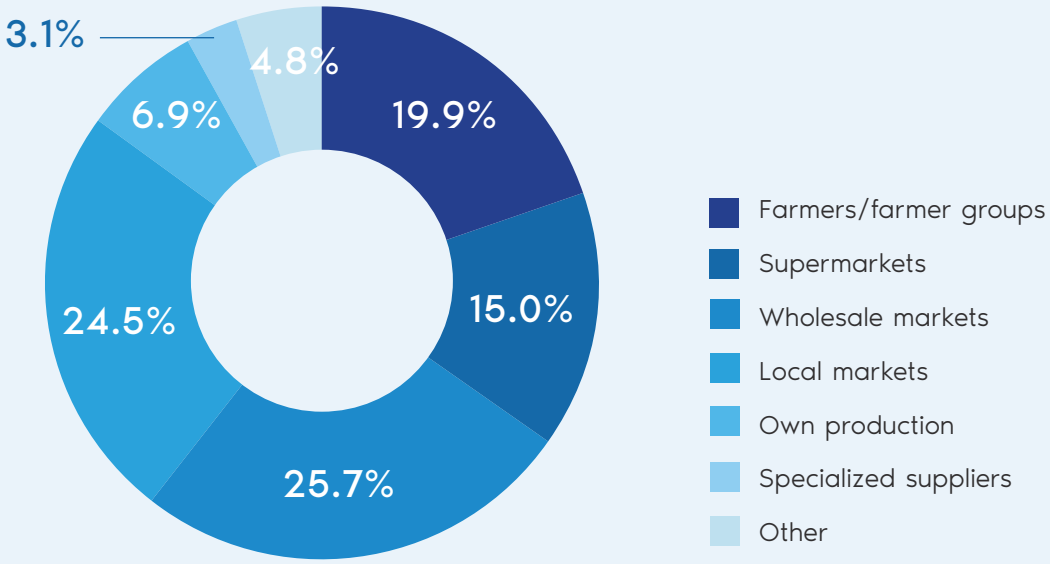
Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

Domestic supply chains for the tourism sector

The tourism businesses surveyed were asked about their most common food suppliers at the national level (note that the figures in this section exclude imports, both through importers and direct imports by the tourism operators themselves). Overall, most tourism establishments purchased food from vendors in wholesale markets (25.7 percent of tourism establishments) and local markets (24.5 percent), but also bought certain high-value products such as fruits and vegetables, meat, dairy products, seafood and processed products from supermarkets (15 percent). A key finding was that about 20 percent of all tourism establishments purchased food products from individual farmers or, to a lesser extent, from formal and informal farmer groups (this finding will be further analysed in Section 2.3). The respondents also mentioned other channels, such as growing their own food in on-site gardens, specialized suppliers or procurement agents, online shopping, etc.

FIGURE 19

Supply channels used by tourism establishments

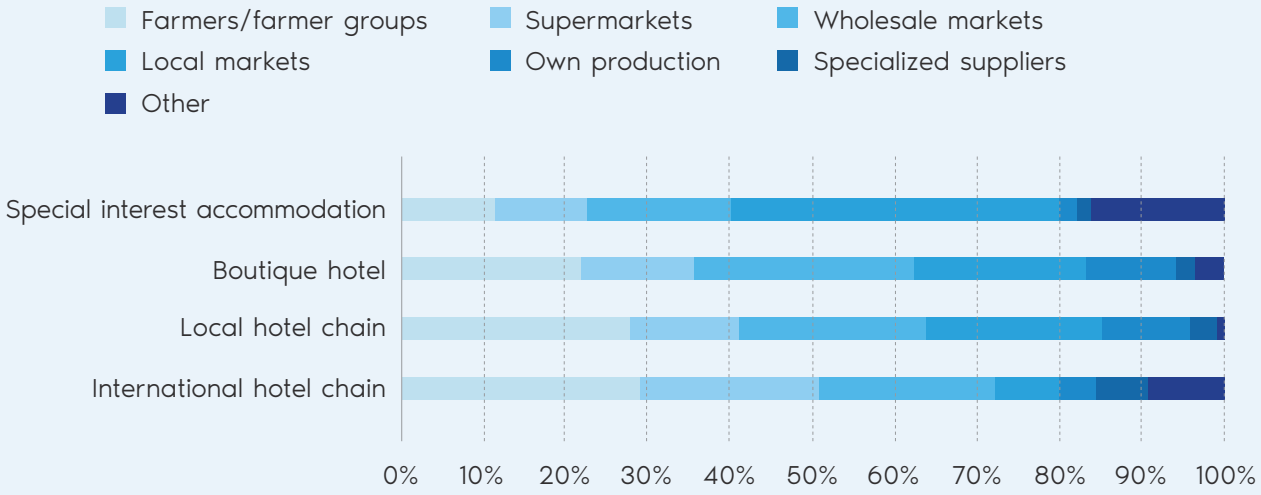


Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

There were minor differences between accommodation and food establishments in terms of the predominant domestic sources of food supplies. Figure 20 and Figure 21 show the preferred supply channels for the various types of establishments.

FIGURE 20

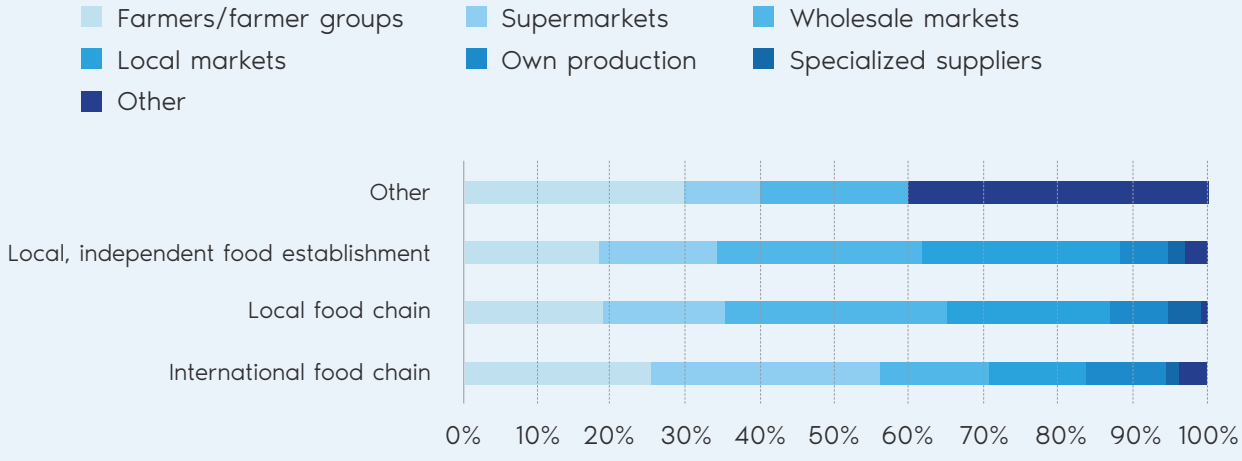
Suppliers by type of accommodation establishment



Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

FIGURE 21

Suppliers by type of food establishment



Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

Reliance on one or the other supply channel depended in part on the size of the tourism operator: smaller businesses were more reliant on local, smaller traders, while larger businesses preferred buying from nationwide wholesalers or, when freshness was important, directly from producers. This pattern is confirmed by Hampton, Jeyacheya and Long (2018), who analysed sourcing patterns in tourism businesses in Ha Long Bay, Viet Nam (a UNESCO World Heritage Site). Small businesses in Ha Long Bay typically sourced rice from local markets and fish directly from fisherfolk, while buying all non-perishable foods from local wholesalers. Larger tourism businesses, on the other hand, primarily supplied food from Metro Cash and Carry (Viet Nam's principal grocery wholesaler), but purchased fish and seasonal fruits and vegetables from fisherfolk and farmers because of their freshness and cultural preferences for fresh (rather than chilled or frozen) fish.

Interestingly, one of the respondents of the FAO survey, the manager of a small restaurant belonging to a national chain in Sri Lanka, noted that large suppliers such as wholesalers and large local traders provided him with a reasonable credit period, unlike farmers and MSME food suppliers.

Again, there were noticeable differences between foreign and national establishments, with the former relying primarily on farmers and supermarkets. National food establishments, on the other hand, tended to source chiefly from wholesalers and local traders. Box 2 further illustrates this point using information gathered among restaurateurs in Thailand.

BOX 2

Food procurement by restaurateurs in Thailand

The survey conducted by FAO and SEARCA in 2021 and 2022 and individual discussions with several small- and medium-scale restaurants and cafes catering to tourists in Thailand revealed that these food operators buy produce from various local sources, including local markets, Thai retail chains and local farmers. Their main suppliers were vendors in local markets (or wet markets), who were considered the most economical source of fresh, high-quality foods by all respondents. Dry goods and spices were predominately bought in domestic retail stores, which were deemed accessible and relatively affordable. Many small restaurants sourced from a pool of trusted farmers who supplied products (mostly vegetables) daily, after a thorough quality check. Other small, local suppliers also tended to have long-standing agreements based on trust, open communication and the pursuit of quality with restaurateurs. Although intense competition pushes restaurateurs to compete on the basis of price, there was an emphasis on quality and origin for fresh, locally grown vegetables, jasmine rice or coffee from Chiang Mai and Chiang Rai, in northern Thailand.

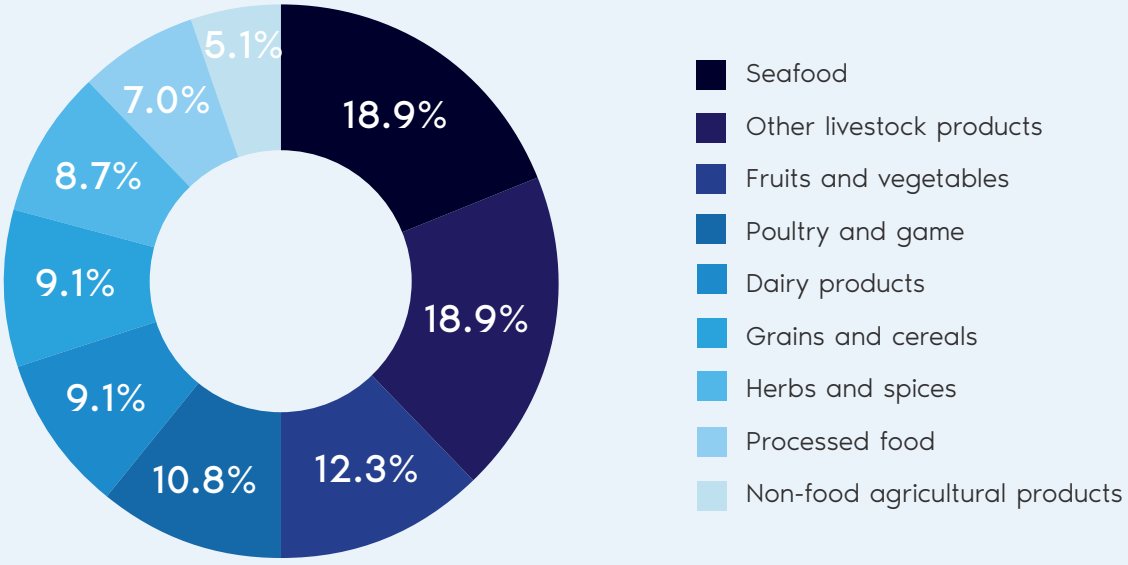
Source:
FAO and SEARCA. 2021 and 2022. Documents related to the survey and case studies. FAO internal documents.

Food categories sourced through the various supply channels

Overall, tourism companies spent nearly 60 percent of their food procurement budget on animal proteins (which have a relatively high unit price), followed by 12.3 percent of fruits and vegetables. The categories that weighted most in the food procurement budget of tourism companies were seafood and other livestock products, followed by fruits and vegetables, and poultry and game (see Figure 22). The categories with the smallest expenditures were grains and cereals and dairy products, followed by herbs and spices, processed foods and non-food agricultural products.

FIGURE 22

Distribution of the food procurement budget of tourism operations, by food category



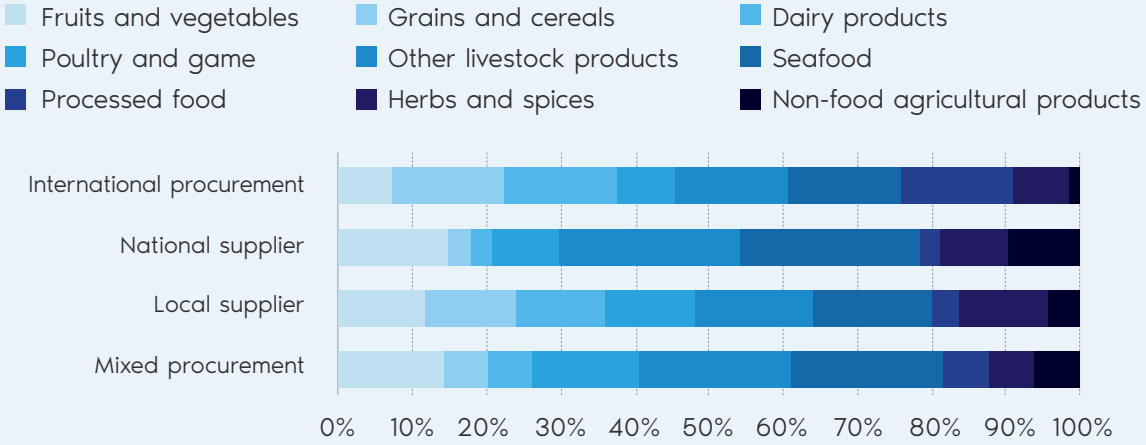
Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

Figure 23 shows, for each supply channel, the distribution of expenditures across the different food categories. The main internationally procured food categories were processed foods, seafood, dairy and other livestock products, and grains and cereals.

Seafood and other livestock products accounted for the lion's share of food procured from national suppliers, followed by fruits and vegetables. The budget spent on local food purchases was distributed primarily among seafood and other livestock products (15.9 percent of the total budget each), followed by fruits and vegetables, grains and cereals, poultry and game, and herbs and spices (12.1 percent each). The main categories of food procured through mixed channels were seafood and other livestock products, followed by poultry and game, and horticultural products.

FIGURE 23

Budget distribution among food categories, by type of procurement modality



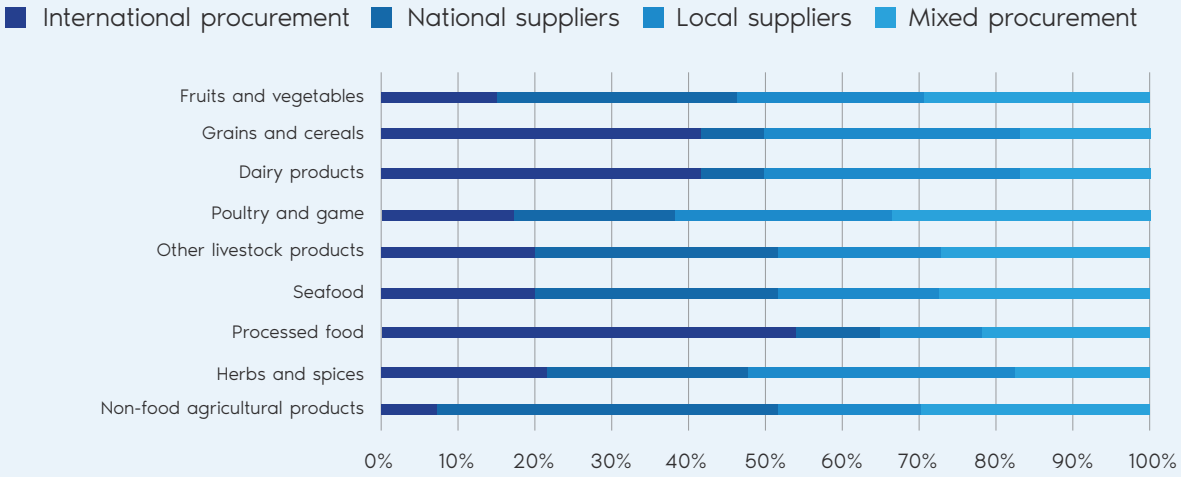
Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

There were differences between countries in terms of the different types of food and ingredients purchased through the various sourcing channels. For example, in the Lao People's Democratic Republic, the bulk of all products procured (through all supply channels) were meat and seafood, in the Philippines dairy products, grains and herbs, and in Sri Lanka and Thailand fruits and vegetables. In Fiji, 83.3 percent of imports were animal products, with the remaining 16.7 percent consisting of fruits and vegetables.

Another way of looking at food procurement by tourism operators is to see how much of each category is sourced from each supply channel, as shown in Figure 24. While processed foods tend to be imported, other categories are sourced more evenly from the various supply channels. A good example are fruits and vegetables: tourism businesses tended to buy tropical fruits from local and national suppliers, while importing temperate fruits.

FIGURE 24

Food supply channels used by tourism businesses, per product category



Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

Linkages between food producers and tourism operators

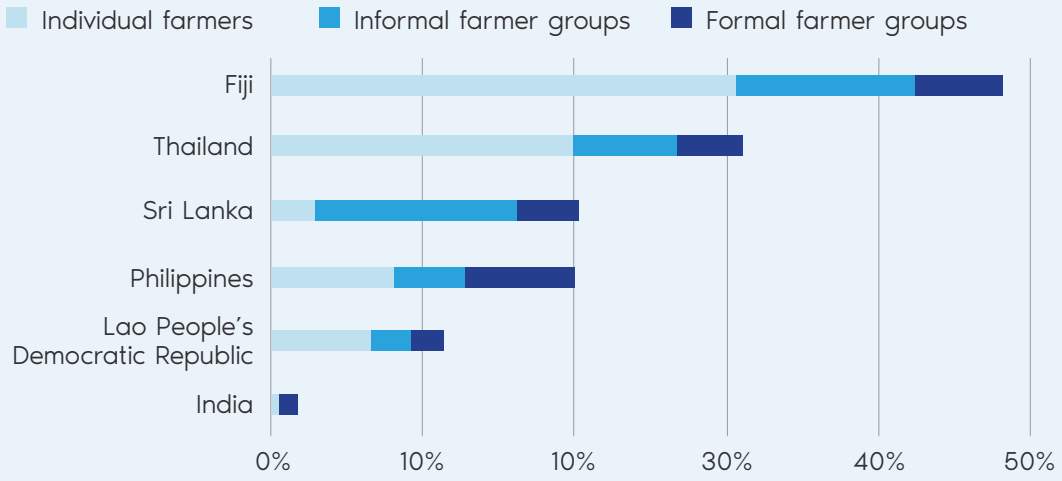
Level of engagement of the tourism industry with local farmers

A large majority of tourism operators would be willing to source their food locally, if farmers were able to guarantee regular supplies of high-quality produce (CTA, 2017).[23] Nevertheless, the survey by FAO found that less than 20 percent of all respondents purchased food and ingredients from farmers or farmer groups. This indicates that linkages between the tourist industry and local producers are largely absent, despite the surge in the demand for local food from travellers.

The survey results revealed substantial differences in the level of engagement between the various countries: from 48.1 percent of respondents engaging with farmers or their organizations in Fiji to 11.4 percent in Lao People's Democratic Republic and 1.9 percent in India (see Figure 25). Tourism operators were found to engage most commonly with individual farmers, followed by informal farmer groups and cooperatives (formal groups).

FIGURE 25

Percentage of tourism operators engaging with farmers, by country



Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

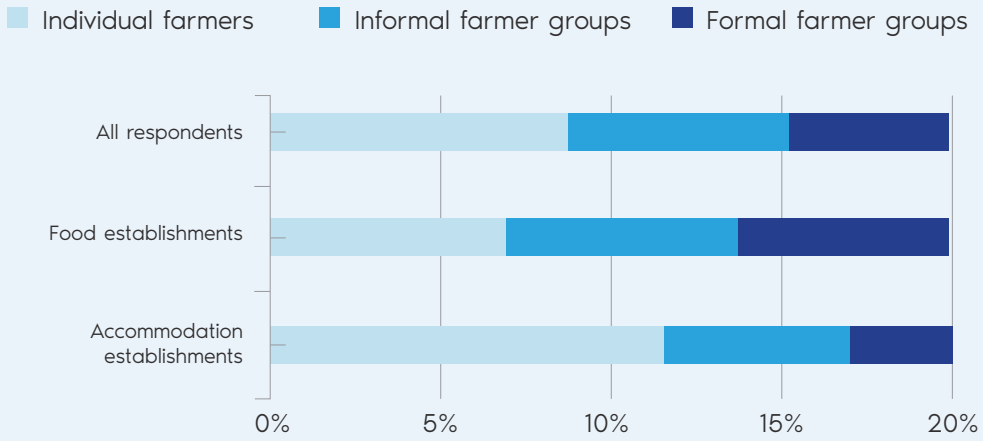
The main motivations of tourism establishments to purchase food from farmers are freshness (India, Sri Lanka and Thailand), affordability (Fiji and Lao People's Democratic Republic) and international consumption trends such as farm-to-table (the Philippines).

Overall, accommodation establishments engaged slightly more with farmers and their groups than food establishments (see Figure 26). Both accommodation and food establishments were more likely to engage with information farmer groups than with formal cooperatives.

23 Up to 85 percent of tourism operators in Samoa would source their food locally, if this condition were met (CTA, 2017).

FIGURE 26

Direct procurement from farmers and farmer groups, by type of establishment



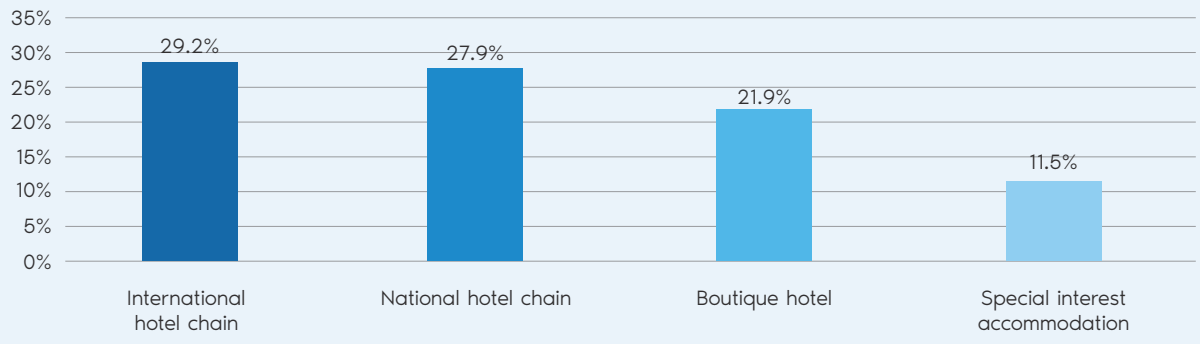
Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

Figure 27 illustrates that hotels belonging to an international chain are more likely to engage with farmers than their national counterparts. Meanwhile, hotels belonging to a chain, be they foreign or nationally owned, are more likely to source food from local farmers than non-chain accommodation structures. This is the result of the implementation of CSR programmes by chain hotels, as well as of the support for farm-to-table practices by their clientele. Of the non-chain businesses, special interest accommodation structures are least likely to source directly from farmers.

High-end hotels, regardless of their foreign or national affiliation, engaged more frequently with farmers than smaller, more economical hotels.

FIGURE 27

Direct procurement from farmers and farmer groups, by type of accommodation establishment

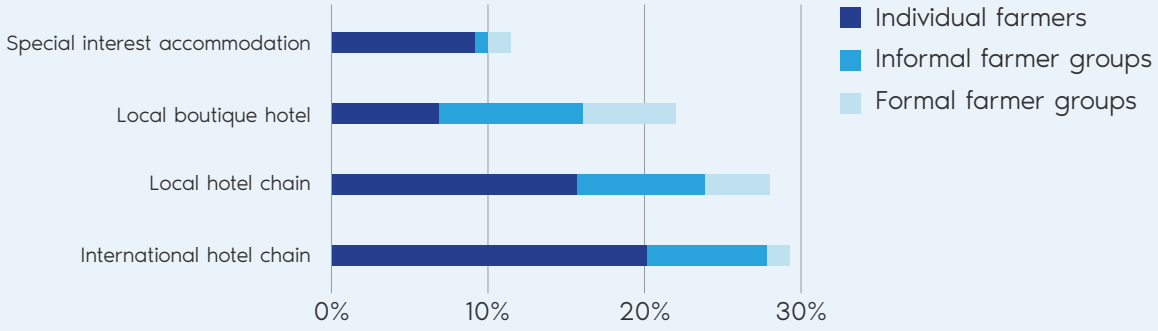


Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

Figure 28 shows that international and national chain hotels and special interest accommodations are more likely to source food from individual farmers, while local boutique hotels mostly rely on informal farmer groups.

FIGURE 28

Direct procurement from farmers and farmer groups, by type of accommodation establishment

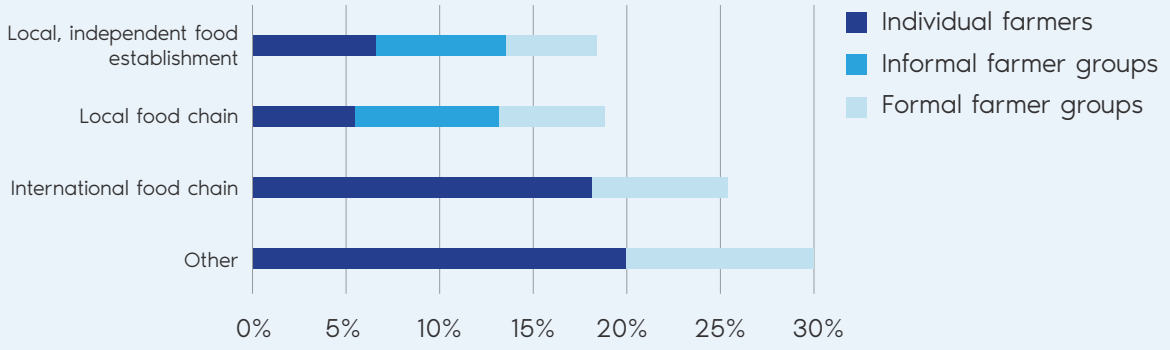


Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

Figure 29 summarizes the results for food establishments. When buying from farmers, restaurants belonging to international food chains dealt exclusively with individual farmers and formalized farmer groups, whereas local businesses (chain and non-chain) also engaged with informal producer groups.

FIGURE 29

Direct procurement from farmers and farmer groups, by type of food establishment



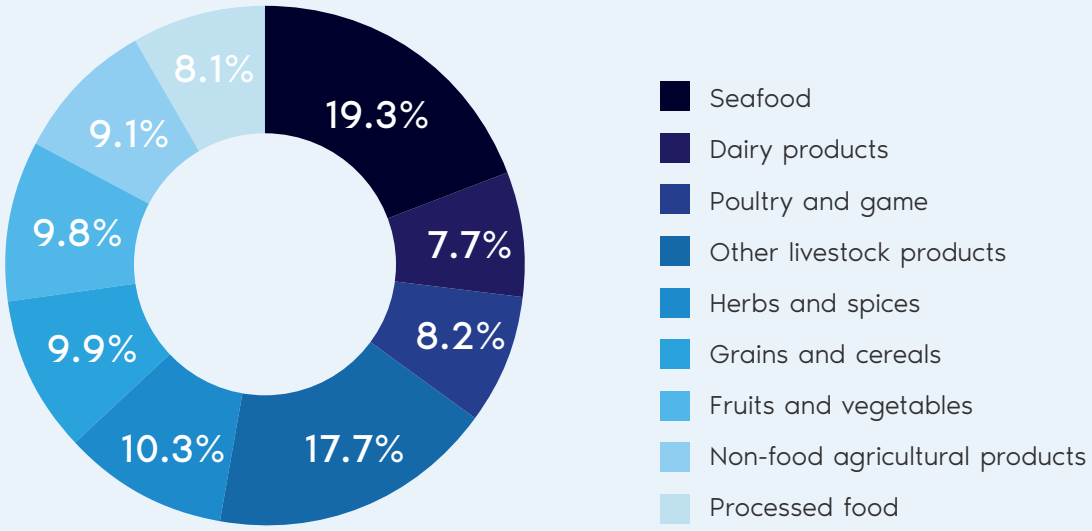
Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

Types of food purchased from farmers

Of all food purchased directly by tourism establishments from farmers, more than half concern animal products (seafood, poultry and game, and other livestock products), followed by herbs and spices, grains and cereals, and fruits and vegetables (see Figure 30). While poultry and game meat and other livestock products were mainly supplied by individual farmers, the bulk of dairy products and of fruits and vegetables were sourced from cooperatives. Seafood and non-food agricultural products were mainly supplied by informal farmer groups.

FIGURE 30

Food purchases from farmers/farmer groups, by food category (in value)



Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

The composition of the overall food basket sourced from local farmers and farmer groups varies among and within countries. A number of studies in the Greater Mekong Subregion document farming–tourism linkages in supply chains for fish, rice, noodles, spices and fruits and vegetables, which are the most common ingredients of the Mekong cuisine (MTCO, 2017; ADB, 2018). In Viet Nam, strong backward linkages were found from tourism operators in Ha Long Bay to fisherfolk (and weaker backward linkages to agricultural producers) (Hampton, Jeyacheya and Long, 2018). Linkages between tourism operators and farmers for the supply of fresh fruits (for breakfasts) and vegetables (e.g. for salads) are commonly found (Meyer, 2007; Berno, 2011). Many of the tourism operators interviewed for the FAO survey agreed that the fruits and vegetables (and rice) they purchased from farmers accounted for much of the volume of their supplies. However, despite the large quantities, these food categories did not account for a significant share of the overall budget, given their relatively low unit price.

The composition of the food basket purchased from local farmers and farmer groups depends on the efforts and strategies of tourism operators to incorporate locally grown food in their menus. Scheyvens and Laeis (2021) identified three different ways in which resorts in Fiji were using locally procured food: as a substitute for Western staples (using moca leaves, a plant from the amaranth family, instead of spinach),

in local dishes (e.g. in kokoda, a Fijian dish with fish, coconut milk and lime juice) or as an ingredient in fusion cuisine (whereby local ingredients and foreign techniques, either Asian or Western, are combined, e.g. mangrove crab wonton bisque).

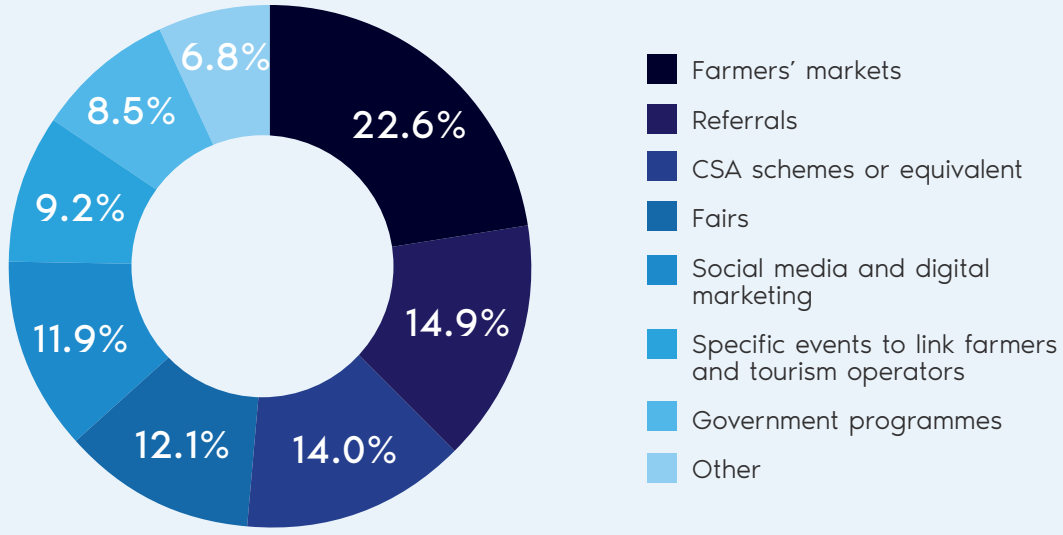
Often, tourism businesses require farmers and farmer groups to comply with specific quality standards. For example, there is ample demand for third-party certified organic products, mostly freshwater fish, processed foods and vegetables. Certain tourism establishments buy organic products from farmers with participatory guarantee systems (PGS) i.e. locally focused quality assurance systems. These products include, in order of importance, fruits, freshwater fish and dairy products. It is also common to require farmers to follow clean production practices, mostly for grains and cereals, and herbs and spices.

Modalities of engagement between tourism operators and farmers

The FAO survey sheds light on how tourism businesses identify farmers as potential suppliers. The most common ways for tourism operators to establish contacts with farmers were visiting farmers' markets, followed by referrals and connections, community-supported agriculture (CSA) schemes and fairs (see Figure 31).[24] Contrarily to what might be expected, few tourism operators find farmers through the internet or through government programmes.

FIGURE 31

Channels through which tourism businesses establish contacts with farmers



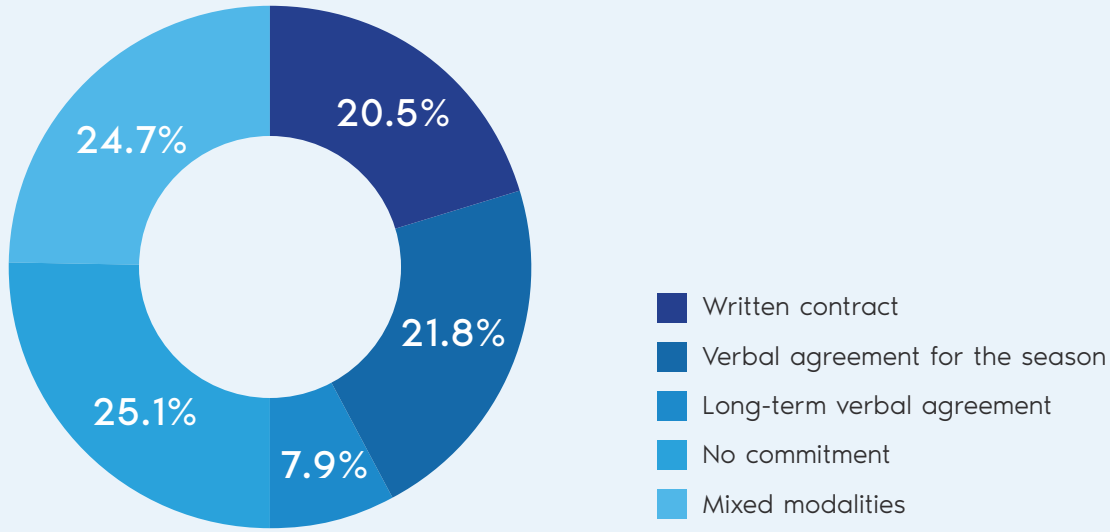
Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

Most tourism operators who engage with farmers do so based on short-term (21.8 percent) and long-term (7.9 percent) verbal agreements. Over one-quarter of tourism operators engaged with farmers without any obligations or commitment. Overall, only 20.5 percent of respondents offered farmers written contracts. Nearly a quarter of all respondents used all of these modalities, with different farmers (see Figure 32).

24 Community-supported agriculture (CSA) is a direct partnership based on the human relationship between people and one or several producer(s), whereby the risks, responsibilities and rewards of farming are shared, through a long-term, binding agreement (European CSA Research Group, 2015).

FIGURE 32

Modalities of engagement between tourism operators and farmers



Source: authors' elaboration, based on the survey findings.

Reasons that tourism operators have for and against engaging with farmers

The FAO survey showed that the main reasons for farmers to supply the tourism industry were to increase sales, have a more secure market and obtain fair prices. Other, less important motivations included, in order of importance, support from local authorities arising from the partnership, enhanced farm productivity, increased sales resulting from word-of-mouth recommendations and referrals, and improved market credibility based on the association with the tourism industry (see Section 5.2 for an in-depth analysis of these benefits).

Tourism establishments engaged in direct purchasing from farmers in order to secure and diversify their procurement sources while shortening their supply chain, which benefits the environment. Other less important reasons included having diverse menu options and building trust with local communities.

The survey found that tourists, local governments and local communities also benefitted, more or less in equal measure, from the contribution to the local economy of these partnerships between tourism operators and farmers. Tourists were able to take home unique local foods and enjoy a healthier and fresher food offering, became more aware about the importance of consuming local food, and were able to experience the unique local cuisine and ingredients produced by farmers.

Box 3 offers a series of insights into why hoteliers in Sri Lanka source from local farmers, as well as the constraints they face.

The survey revealed various factors that hinder the development of market linkages, including supply-side and demand-side barriers, marketing and enabling environment issues (Section 6.1 discusses these factors in greater detail). On the supply side, the main barriers reported by the tourism operators were, in order of importance, the lack of government support (to upgrade the skills and technologies of farmers), cost inefficiency, farmers' inability to comply with quality and traceability requirements, the lack of adequate facilities and equipment, outdated production practices and the depletion of natural resources.

BOX 3

Pros and cons of farmer–hotelier linkages: insights from Sri Lanka

The FAO survey and individual discussions held with several hoteliers in Sri Lanka shed light on their perceptions and readiness to engage with local farmers. High-end hotels extensively relied on long-term supply partners who were certified and audited regularly, to ensure quality, competitive pricing, formal documentation and on-time delivery. Hoteliers who hesitated about engaging with local farmers did so because of concerns about inconsistent quality, unreliable deliveries and high transaction costs. However, the survey also revealed a recent trend towards short-term flexible agreements with local farmers, which allow hoteliers to secure price advantages, obtain tailored services (e.g. small orders during the low season or for special events), provide guests with authentic local food experiences and build strong links with local communities.

A five-star hotel located in a verdant suburb of Colombo reported buying directly from a small number of rice, vegetables, meat and seafood producers. Most of the food, however, was sourced from certified suppliers. The main reason for this choice was the need to ensure consistent supplies, rather than secure low prices. Indeed, farmers were more likely to be unable to supply the volumes required during the high season, whereas during the low season hotels might struggle to absorb the agreed quantities. Certified suppliers offered the flexibility required by hoteliers' fluctuating demand.

The director of a four-star hotel in Sigiriya targeting both the European and the domestic market shared the same concern. It is difficult to reconcile the seasonal patterns of agriculture and tourism, so market linkages with food suppliers need to be flexible regarding price, quantity and quality for both parties. This limits the possibilities for direct engagement with farmers. Nevertheless, the director saw building a strong relationship with the local community as a must for hotels to survive the off-season, particularly in turbulent times. The hotel had therefore started to implement a hybrid approach combining sourcing from certified suppliers and from local farmers. This approach allowed the hotel to secure consistent, reliable supplies, while at the same time supporting the local community.

The manager of a four-star beach resort with a largely international clientele stated that the main factors considered when sourcing food were consistency of quality, professional service, credit period offered and brand value (for processed food products). The ultimate goal of the resort's procurement strategy was to offer a premium-quality food experience to its clients. Consequently, the resort preferred to work with large, certified suppliers who were audited annually; these suppliers were given regular orders without price bargaining. Furthermore, the hotel directly imported some high-quality beverages and confectionery items, while maintaining strong links with local suppliers for branded products such as tea, coffee, chicken meat, organic vegetables and spices. At the time of the survey, the resort rarely purchased from local farmers (except for specific events), but intended to start sourcing seafood and other high-value foods from young local producers.

Source:

FAO and SEARCA. 2021 and 2022. Documents related to the survey and case studies. FAO internal documents.

Other factors that prevented the respondents from engaging with local farmers included monthly or yearly tendering systems and centralized procurement policies (for hotel and restaurant chains), as well as a lack of funds to offer support to small farmers. Additional challenges faced by tourism businesses were the high turnover of decision-makers who champion local purchasing, the seasonality of tourist demand and the poor match between tourists' expectations in terms of quality and quantity and what local farmers can supply.

The main marketing challenges identified by respondents were the absence of farmer organizations and the costs of certification against quality standards, which are prohibitively high for small-scale farmers. These barriers were compounded by the lack of an enabling environment: an unstable economy that affects both production and demand (e.g. hyperinflation), inadequate health services, threats such as the COVID-19 pandemic, and a lack of government support to farmers for building linkages.

A key takeaway message from the survey is that successfully matching the supply by farmers with the demand of the tourism market is a delicate task. Its outcome ultimately depends on several factors, including the quality, safety and reliability of local produce, the nationality of food operations and the training of chefs, and the nationality, size and structure of hotels.

Box 4 provides a good example of the difficulties involved in matching farmers' supply and hotels' demand.

BOX 4

Challenges in building linkages between farmers and hoteliers: an example from the Lao People's Democratic Republic

The manager of a domestically-owned hotel chain in the Lao People's Democratic Republic reported procuring through various channels. The lion's share of the chain's food – a mix of fruits and vegetables, cereals, seafood and livestock products – was sourced through certified suppliers from Vientiane's wholesale market. These suppliers had been assessed for quality, safety, business practices and several technical, environmental and health considerations. Not only were these certified suppliers reliable, but their prices were also more competitive and the procurement process streamlined. The hotel would occasionally import certain products (e.g. meat, dairy products, processed foods and seafood) from the neighbouring countries of Thailand and Viet Nam. In addition, certain products such as meat, herbs and spices were procured from the local market, where there was plenty of choice. Hard-to-find products with stringent quality and safety requirements, such as seafood and dairy products, were bought from supermarkets.

The hotel had put in place a CSR programme that implied buying directly from local farmers (notably vegetables, poultry and rice). The programme was the mixed responsibility of the procurement team and the chef's team. However, when the COVID-19 pandemic started, the hotel chain had to temporary close down, and it suspended its CSR programme. After resuming normal operations, the hotel chain decided to discontinue purchasing from local farmers in view of the difficulties faced in terms of quality control.

This is a (rather common) example that proves that CSR programmes are not sustainable without a clear business case. It also demonstrates that it takes time and effort to build a solid foundation for farmer–hotelier linkages and ensure that local products comply with the tourism industry's stringent quality and safety requirements.

Source:

FAO and SEARCA. 2021 and 2022. Documents related to the survey and case studies. FAO internal documents.

2.3. BEST PRACTICES FOR BUILDING SUCCESSFUL FARMER–TOURISM LINKAGES

The survey identified a series of best practices for building lasting and successful linkages between farmers and tourism operators. Among the most frequently reported strategies used to build sustainable linkages were establishing production and purchasing baselines, adopting a long-term mission and a vision for the partnership, communicating the effort and accomplishments to partners, guests and other stakeholders, and anticipating challenges and opportunities by building trust and strengthening capacities.

Other strategies employed by tourism establishments to improve their partnerships with small-scale farmers included, in order of frequency of reporting: allowing for flexibility in terms of the quality and quantity of the purchased food, investing in infrastructure to access local farmers, reviewing product specifications with a view to including local small-scale farmers, and establishing a minimum quota for local procurement.

Respondents emphasized the importance of adopting a long-term vision. Setting up a partnership with small-scale farmers is costly, time-consuming, laborious and sometimes frustrating. For example, it took hoteliers and restaurateurs in the Philippines an average eight to ten years to successfully establish a partnership with small-scale farmers. Partnerships that flourished were those in which both parties invested enough time and resources. Chefs, restaurateurs and buyers should visit farmers often enough to build trust and confidence, and connect farmers with governmental and non-governmental organizations to leverage much needed support.

Respondents also agreed that efforts towards the establishment of partnerships between farmers and tourism operators did not pay off immediately. Consequently, they needed to be willing to invest resources long-term. In this respect, they highlighted how crucial the mindset of both internal and external stakeholders was. For example, the finance department may find the initial results disappointing, or diners might be frustrated with menu changes. Respondents identified two key success factors in this regard: communication and a focus on the long-term advantages of linking with local farming communities. Tourism establishments used two main strategies to communicate their partnerships with local farmers to their guests: through third-party certification and recognition, and by publicizing their farm-to-table principles to guests through internet marketing (e.g. on social media), four walls marketing and special events.

CHAPTER 3: Food tourism

KEY MESSAGES

- Food tourism, also known as gastronomy or culinary tourism, is not a niche market by any standard. In 2019, the food tourism market was worth nearly USD 450 billion or about 14 percent of the total travel and tourism market in the Asia-Pacific region, estimated at USD 3 294.3 billion (Allied Market Research, 2020; WTTC, 2022).
- Food tourism can have positive impacts on rural areas as it can create new opportunities for local farmers and entrepreneurs, and boost socioeconomic integration and social development. It is estimated that cities, regions and countries that market themselves as gastronomy tourism destinations can increase their revenues by 25 percent (WFTA, 2014). In addition, gastronomy tourism can play a key role in preserving culinary heritage.
- Food-related tourism experiences can be powerful instruments to attract more tourists, increase their expenditure and create business opportunities and employment in tourist destinations.
- Food tourism experiences encompass food festivals, culinary trails, cooking classes, dining experiences (including street food) and visits to farmers' markets, among others.
- The culinary heritage of a destination can strengthen its image as a culinary centre and thus help attract travellers keen on experiencing authentic, local food. Many countries in Asia and the Pacific have successfully invested in the development of food tourism, and are now perceived as appealing culinary destinations by both regional and international travellers.
- Food tourism helps spread tourism demand over time and space, relieving pressure from areas suffering from overtourism and attracting visitors to areas where the tourism sector is underdeveloped.

3.1. EXPLORING FOOD TOURISM

"Linking gastronomy and tourism [...] provides a platform for the promotion of cultures through their cuisine. This not only assists in destination branding, but also helps to promote sustainable tourism through preserving valuable cultural heritage, empowering and nurturing pride amongst communities, and enhancing intercultural understanding. Through a visit to a food festival, cooking class or farm-to-table dining experience, tourists garner a better sense of local values and traditions."

Former UNWTO Secretary General Taleb Rifai (UNWTO, 2017a, p. 10).

Food tourism has the potential to boost local businesses and promote socioeconomic development and integration in rural areas. It is one of the most effective drivers of transformation towards the development of sustainable agrifood systems and the inclusion of local, smallholder farmers.

The present chapter explores the various forms of food tourism that are emerging as more and more travellers seek authentic experiences related to local food and cultural heritage. These new forms of food tourism provide local producers with a growing market outlet and alternative opportunities for income generation (Torres and Momsen, 2011). The chapter analyses the concepts of food tourism and explores how the gastronomic heritage of a place can be used to position a destination as a culinary centre to attract travellers keen on experiencing authentic, local food.

Many countries in the Asia–Pacific region have successfully positioned themselves as culinary destinations, both regionally and worldwide. They have developed different types of gastronomy tourism experiences, including food festivals, food routes and trails, culinary classes, dining experiences and visits to markets.

Food tourism "applies to tourists and visitors who plan their trips partially or totally in order to taste the cuisine of the place or to carry out activities related to gastronomy" (UNWTO, 2012, p. 7). The terms food tourism, culinary tourism and gastronomy tourism are often used interchangeably (Hall and Mitchell, 2001; Hall and Sharples, 2003; Boniface, 2003; Hjalager and Richards, 2002; Sánchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán, 2011; Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019).

Food is and will continue to be a fundamental element of travel experiences. While food is an element in any tourism experience, what defines gastronomy tourism is that food is a key motivating factor for travelling (Hall and Mitchell, 2001). Indeed, an increasing number of tourists go beyond a basic engagement with food (e.g. simply dining out) and build their travel experiences around visiting places to explore their culinary traditions.

Food tourists (or culinary/gastronomy tourists/travellers) fall along a spectrum according to their interest in food-related activities (Everett, 2016). At the one end would be the foodie or gastronome with a very strong interest in food, for whom the primary travel motivation is to engage in food experiences. Meanwhile, tourists falling on the other end of the spectrum may dine at a restaurant or visit a market or store, but have other motivations for their trip.

Sorcaru (2019) distinguishes three types of food tourists: the deliberate, the opportunistic and the accidental food tourist. For deliberate culinary tourists, who make up around half of all food tourists, the main purpose of travelling is experiencing and learning about local cuisine. These tourists have a keen interest in food cultures and a strong desire to travel, along with awareness of social and environmental issues. They tend to come from middle to high socioeconomic backgrounds and spend around 50 percent

of their holiday budget on culinary activities. Opportunistic culinary tourists actively seek out culinary experiences, although food is not the primary reason for their trips. They make up about a quarter of all food travellers and seek out relatively accessible gastronomic activities such as visiting a market or tasting local street food. Another quarter of food travellers are accidental food tourists who participate in culinary activities when these happen to be available, but do not actively seek them out.

Hall and Sharples (2003) highlight the **experiential nature of food tourism**. Food travellers embark on a trip to pursue gastronomic experiences and for recreational or entertainment purposes. UNWTO (2019c) adds that food tourism activities are characterized by visitors' experiences of food and food-related products and activities while travelling. Such experiences are embedded into a lifestyle that focuses on experimenting, learning from different cultures, consuming local culinary specialities and acquiring knowledge and understanding of the qualities or attributes of tourism products. Even when gastronomy is not the main motivation for choosing a destination, it often plays an important role as a secondary or partial motivation for travelling to a particular location (UNWTO, 2019c).

Food tourism experiences are directly linked to the **foodways** of the destination. Slocum and Curtis (2018, p. 237) characterize foodways as "the cultural, social and economic practices relating to the production and consumption of food." This concept includes the farming traditions, culinary culture and eating practices of a people or region (i.e. cooking methods, recipes, ingredients, dining customs, social connotations and food-related rituals and festivals), as well as culinary routes, sights and landscapes (Timothy and Ron, 2013).

Food tourism is based on the concept of knowing and learning, eating, tasting and enjoying the foodways and gastronomic culture that is identified with a **territory**. It is not possible to talk of food tourism without also talking about the culinary identity of the terroir as a distinguishing feature that is the result of the social, cultural, historical and political-economic contexts of the place in question. The territory is the backbone of gastronomy because a destination's landscapes, culture, products, techniques and dishes define its culinary identity and are the foundation of, and should be part of, the DNA of the tourism experiences offered to visitors (UNWTO, 2019c).

Food tourism destinations are chosen based on:

> the perceived authenticity of cuisine, atmosphere, décor and architecture, evidence of traditional cultural practices in food preparation, cooking and consumption, opportunities for cross-cultural interaction, and the ethnicity and perceived localness of hosts (Walter, 2017, p. 366).

As Park, Kim and Yeoman (2019) put it, gastronomy tourism is an invitation to consume and taste local culture. This form of tourism tends to focus on already developed food destinations that are known for the superiority or uniqueness of their food, and are supported by a strategy that manages the image and market perceptions of food tourism products (UNWTO, 2007). However, gastronomy tourism can also help discover new food tourism locations or transform non-food tourism places into food tourism places.

This is where **culinary placemaking** comes in:

> [Culinary placemaking is a strategy] that seeks to put a destination on a food lover's map by identifying all food and beverage resources, bringing them together, weighing their value, assessing market forces, and engaging fundamental stakeholders (WFTA, 2014).

As competition between tourism destinations increases, culinary placemaking can help destinations to position themselves by capitalizing on their food and foodways (Long, 2004; Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019). Furthermore, food tourism can spread tourist flows over time and redirect them towards rural areas. By doing so, it can reduce the pressure on destinations with a high concentration of demand, while contributing to the development of rural and peri-urban areas, as well as less-visited neighbourhoods within large urban centres (UNWTO, 2021a).

3.2. THE EXPANSION OF FOOD TOURISM IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

Asia and the Pacific has a long story of promoting food tourism as a strategy to spur local development by increasing inward tourism flows and attracting international travellers. In 2019, the region accounted for more than two-fifths (nearly USD 450 billion) of the global food tourism market in revenue terms – the largest share of the market (Allied Market Research, 2020). It accounted for about 14 percent of the regional travel and tourism market, estimated at USD 3 294.3 billion (WTTC, 2022).

Destinations with strong brand images that are connected, with varying levels of intensity, to gastronomic values include China, Indonesia (Bali), Japan, Malaysia and Singapore (UNWTO, 2012). Henderson (2004) notes that destinations in the region are taking diverse paths to position themselves as culinary destinations, either by developing a marketable food culture (e.g. Singapore) or by relying on their existing food reputation (e.g. Bangkok, Hong Kong and Osaka).

In some Asian countries, food is strategically selected and combined with other cultural components to create a form of cultural diplomacy known as **gastrodiplomacy**, which helps attract food tourists to the host nation (Rockower, 2012; Zhang, 2015; Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019). Rockower (2012) adds that culinary and cultural diplomacy can transform local cuisine into a tool for building cultural understanding by providing insights into a culture that might otherwise be unknown.

The Republic of Korea and Thailand are among the most successful proponents of gastrodiplomacy, as reflected in the rapid growth of Korean and Thai restaurants globally, which has boosted both countries' food exports (Ichijo and Ranta, 2016; Suntikul and Tang, 2014; Varanyanond, 2013).

Thailand is widely credited as the first country to have implemented a gastrodiplomacy campaign with its Thai Kitchen to the World campaign, launched in 2002 (Rockower, 2012; Ichijo and Ranta, 2016; Suntikul, 2017). By adopting gastrodiplomatic principles, the Thai Government was not just trying to attract tourists, but also to create new economic opportunities for Thai chefs and producers. Thai restaurants around the world can apply for an official government endorsement. The criteria are strict: the restaurant must have been in operation at least six months prior to the date of application; use ingredients and tableware from Thailand itself; employ a Thai head cook or, in the case of non-Thai head cook, a cook with a certification from an accredited Thai institution; and at least 60 percent of dishes offered on the menu must be authentic Thai cuisine, and the cooking methods must be the same or very similar to those in Thailand (Thai Select, 2018; Parasecoli, 2022).

The Republic of Korea is another champion of gastrodiplomacy with its kimchi diplomacy, which has been driven by the Global Hansik campaign since the mid-2000s (Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019). The goal of this campaign has been to popularize hansik, the traditional dish of the country that is composed of rice, a bowl of soup and various side dishes.

Many Asian countries have promoted gastronomy to capitalize on the ongoing shift from mass tourism to tailored local and exotic experiences that satisfy specific interests, such as a passion for food and foodways. In other words, the region is transitioning from a focus on globalization to the exploration of food as a representative of otherness and localness.

Otherness is defined by perceptions of the unknown: in this case, the foodways of other people and places (Long, 1998, 2004). In the Asia–Pacific context, food as an experience of otherness is essential for attracting international food tourists. Through food, food travellers arriving in the region learn about different ethnicities, culture and history.

Note that preferences regarding food can also have an adverse impact on tourists' decisions to travel to certain destinations. Tourists who prefer the comforts of familiar cuisine might be hesitant to travel to a destination where it is difficult to find food that is similar to that at home. Food preferences are especially important to Asian people. The food factor is likely to hold Chinese tourists in their own country, or at least make them stay in Asia rather than seeking out other destinations (Chang, Kivela and Mak, 2010).


© Shutterstock/Cyrsiam

Otherness is not as important for domestic tourism (even though the concept is not entirely irrelevant within a single country) (Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019). Instead, domestic food tourism places the emphasis on **localness** or the notion of consuming local food (i.e. the locavore trend). The homogenization of mass-manufactured food in modern society has led to an increase in the demand for localness, seasonal ingredients and freshness (Broadway, 2017). People are bound by their locality, with clear differences in food and foodways. The growth potential of domestic food tourism relies on visitors' desire to explore the diversity of local food heritage within a country, and on the strength of the linkages between local food producers and tourism operators. This is particularly the case in post-COVID Asia and the Pacific.

Although food may be the primary motivation for food tourists to visit a destination, merely concentrating on providing memorable food experiences is not sufficient to gain a competitive advantage over other destinations. Indeed, a destination should not only be appealing from a food-related perspective, but also be easily reachable, have a targeted marketing strategy and count with sufficient infrastructure for the smooth functioning of food tourism (Williams, Williams and Omar, 2014; Guruge, 2020). A lack of effective supporting factors for the attraction of gastronomy tourists can slow down the growth of agrifood tourism in travel destinations.

Food tourism has been massively affected by the travel restrictions imposed in response to the COVID-19 outbreak. Since gastronomic experiences such as visits to food and wine production sites, cooking classes and food-theme events were not possible, technology was used extensively to rethink the tourist experience. For example, virtual and augmented reality experiences were developed for e-wine and e-food destinations. Other new opportunities include online cooking classes and remote partying and social dining experiences (TravelDailyNews International, 2021).

The remainder of this chapter features case studies of food tourism activities in the region, ranging from local cooking lessons to street food or food festivals. These examples show how food tourism has been turned into a development tool to promote inclusion and regional integration in Asia and the Pacific.

3.3. FOOD FESTIVALS AND FOOD-INSPIRED EVENTS IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

The concept of food festivals

Organ *et al.* (2015, p. 85) define food festivals as:

> [food-related events that typically] bring together consumers and producers in a multi-stimuli environment by providing samples, insights into methods of production and reassurance of authenticity amid a general atmosphere of curiosity, exploration and entertainment.

Attending food festivals is one of the most popular food tourism activities (Chang and Yuan, 2011; López-Guzmán *et al.*, 2017).

Types of food festivals

Food festivals vary in their duration, size, modalities of attendance, longevity, thematic focus and type of organizers, as shown in Table 1. The classification in the table is not exhaustive, but still comprehensive enough to illustrate the diversity of food festivals across the region.

TABLE 1

Different types of food festivals

Categories	Event type
Duration	• one-day food festivals • multiple-day food festivals
Size of the catchment area	• local food festivals • regional food festivals • national food festivals • international food festivals
Attendance modality	• in-person food festivals • virtual food festivals • hybrid food festivals
Longevity	• traditional food festivals (e.g. the Pahiyas Festival in Lucban, the Philippines) • modern or rationally constructed food festivals
Theme	• promotion of a single local food product or ingredients, either fresh or processed (e.g. the Hoengseong Korean Beef Festival in the Republic of Korea) • promotion of several food products in a single place, either fresh or processed • promotion of a single typical local/regional dish • promotion of traditional local/regional/national cuisine • special purpose festivals organized around food movements (e.g. the Singapore Vegan Festival, Vanuatu's slow food festivals). • hybridized events combining food and another cultural interest (e.g. the Food Film Festival Tokyo)
Organizer type	• food festivals organized by the public sector (e.g. the Singapore Food Festival organized by the Singapore Tourism Board, under the Ministry of Trade and Industry of Singapore) • food festivals organized by private operators (e.g. taste festivals in Hong Kong and Shanghai) • food festivals organized by not-for-profit organizations (e.g. the Ubud Food Festival in Indonesia, hosted by the foundation Yayasan Mudra Swari Saraswati) • food festivals organized through public–private partnerships.

Source: authors' elaboration.

Food festivals can have a duration ranging from one day to a couple of weeks, and they can be one-off or repeating events. They also vary in terms of the size of their catchment area, which can range from a collection of local food suppliers serving local customers, to sizable events that attract local, national and even international audiences (Organ *et al.*, 2015). The number of attendees can therefore range from a few dozen to millions of people. In terms of the modalities of attendance, food festivals can be in-person, virtual or hybrid events. Virtual and hybrid festivals have recently become more common, particularly in the wake of the COVID-19 pandemic. The mixing of virtual and in-person formats has become the new normal for culinary festivals as a result of the pandemic, especially for modern food festivals.

Food festivals can be classified as traditional or modern, depending on how far back in time they have been celebrated. Asia has a considerable number of traditional gastronomy festivals rooted in the celebration of the food production cycle (harvest time), religious holidays, impactful events, famous people or immigrant heritage (Hashimoto and Telfer, 2008; Sharples, 2008; Timothy, 2011; Slocum and Curtis, 2018). A case in point is the Pahiyas Festival in Lucban, in the Philippines, celebrated on 15 May to thank the patron saint of farmers, San Isidro Labrador, for a bountiful harvest. Houses are decorated with vegetables, fruits and colourful kipings, a traditional Filipino leaf-shaped wafer made from glutinous rice. The 2015 edition of the Pahiyas Festival drew in 3.2 million locals and tourists (Keadplang, 2021). Another example is the Mooncake or Mid-Autumn festival celebrated in China, Viet Nam and many other Asian countries. The history of this festival dates back almost three millennia and is linked to harvesting celebrations and moon worshipping traditions. It is celebrated by feasting on mooncakes and cassia wine and by displaying lanterns (Poceski, 2021).

In recent years, as food has increasingly become a part of travel experiences, a host of culinary festivals have cropped up all across the region. This can be ascribed to the perfect fit between the nature of these events and the desire of food tourists for authentic and unique local cuisine. The culinary festivals of recent creation are generally more commercial in nature than traditional festivals, with the intention of promoting local food and showcasing its distinctiveness. Lewis (1997) called them ''rationally constructed food festivals'' designed to increase tourist expenditures and develop a brand image. Both traditional and new culinary festivals can generate additional tax revenues that can be reinvested in local development (Briones *et al.* 2013).

The thematic focus of food festivals may be to promote a single local product, a typical regional dish or several products in a single place. The products promoted are usually local specialty or iconic foods of which the community that hosts the celebration is proudest (Timothy and Pena, 2016). Examples of culinary festivals that revolve around one product are the Hoengseong Korean Beef Festival in the Republic of Korea and Viet Nam's rice festival in the Mekong Delta.[25] Festivals can also be devoted to a category of food products, such as fruits. An example is the Southern Fruit Festival in Ho Chi Minh, Viet Nam, which every June celebrates tropical fruits in the Mekong Delta, including Nam Roi grapefruit from Vinh Long, Cai Mon durian from Ben Tre and Hoa Loc mango from Tien Giang.[26] Festivals that revolve around multiple products include the Cambodian Cuisine Food Festival held in the capital city of Phnom Penh.[27] This food festival offers a dozens of traditional dishes from 20 provinces that extol the virtues of the country's culinary heritage with recipes that have been passed down for generations, from Kampot noodles to crab fried rice, sea vegetable salad and palm curry.

Some food festivals focus on traditional local processed products, thus increasing the visibility and sales of the local agroprocessing industry. A case in point is the Salted Seafood Festival in Chau Doc Town, considered Viet Nam's capital of salted seafood. The festival promotes fish sauce and salted fish, including snakehead, moustached danio and snakeskin gourami, which are local specialties. Beside specialties of the Mekong Delta region, the festival showcases a wide variety of sauces from across Viet Nam, such as whole-body anchovy sauce from Hai Phong City and sour shrimp sauce from the ancient town of Hue. The festival has led to a revival in artisan salted seafood production (Nghia, 2020).

Also revolving around fish is the Bonghwa Euneo Sweetfish Festival, which takes place every summer in the county of Bonghwa, in the Republic of Korea.[28] Festival goers can catch smelt fish, which has sweet-tasting

25 For more information, see www.hsg.go.kr/english/00001866/00001903.web (Republic of Korea) and https://en.vietnamplus.vn/fifth-vietnam-rice-festival-underway-in-vinh-long/220354.vnp (Viet Nam)

26 For more information, see https://en.vietnamplus.vn/fifth-vietnam-rice-festival-underway-in-vinh-long/220354.vnp

27 For more information, see www.phnompenhpost.com/post-weekend/festival-cambodian-home-cookin

28 For more information, see www.bonghwa.go.kr/open.content/en/festivals/euneo/

flesh, in the Naeseongcheon stream with a long scoop net or their bare hands, grill them and eat them topped with local horseradish sauce. Bonghwa also organizes another food festival in the fall, the Bonghwa Pine Mushroom Festival, to celebrate the fact that the county is the largest producer of pine mushrooms in the country. Festival visitors can collect pine mushrooms in the wild and enjoy numerous food and cultural events.[29]

Food festivals can also be organized around street food. For example, India celebrates the National Street Food Festival in late December in New Delhi, bringing together around 500 of the best street food vendors from across the country. The festival, which is organized by the National Association of Street Vendors of India in association with the Food Safety and Standards Authority of India, promotes street food as a way to preserve the culinary heritage and the social and cultural diversity of India.[30] An upscale version of this type of festival takes place in Singapore, where the Michelin Guide Street Food Festival gathers the best Michelin Guide-recommended hawker stalls and restaurants under one roof during three days in February.[31]

Other culinary festivals seek to promote food movements such as veganism (see Box 5) or slow food – a food movement that embodies a commitment to quality, healthy and local dishes, instead of speed and convenience.[32] Frost and Laing (2013) label this kind of festivals as special purpose food festivals. They are an instrument for organizations or communities to spread a certain message or to set an agenda, such as protecting animal rights and promoting the health benefits of plant-based diets, or convincing consumers to stop eating unhealthy fast food and non-local products.

Some culinary festivals in Asia and the Pacific have been organized under the aegis of Slow Food, a global grassroots organization founded in 1989 to prevent the disappearance of local food cultures and traditions, counteract the rise of fast life and promote people's interest in the food they eat, where it comes from and how their food choices affect the world. The movement, which started in reaction to the opening of Italy's first McDonald's fast food restaurant near the famous Spanish Steps in Rome in 1986, has transcended its local roots and is now a global phenomenon. There are several Slow Food communities in Asia and the Pacific, and in 2013 the Republic of Korea organized AsiO Gusto, an Asia and Oceania Slow Food Festival in the city of Namyangju. The six-day festival welcomed more than half a million visitors from 43 countries who spent more than USD 15 million directly (Lee and Nam, 2016). Other slow food festivals in the region include those organized by the Slow Food Community Great China in Beijing in 2015, and a series of slow food festivals organized by the Slow Food Community in Vanuatu in 2016, 2018 and 2021 to showcase traditional culinary preparation and celebrate national identity.[33]

Thematically, festivals are undergoing a process of hybridization whereby two or more cultural interests, such as food and music, or food and cinema, are combined. For example, the Macau Food Festival includes live music performances, as well as game booths and rides (Chen, 2011). The Food Film Festival conceived in 2007 in New York creates multisensory food and film experiences. Over three days, guests can watch films about food while also tasting the dishes featured on screen. Currently, the Food Film Festival has two annual editions, one in Tokyo in April and another one in New York in October.[34]

Festival organizing committees are typically composed of public authorities such as local governments, ministries (e.g. ministries for tourism, culture, trade and commerce, or agriculture) and tourism boards, or a combination of them. For example, the International Food Festival of Chengdu is organized by the municipal government of Chengdu city and the China Council for the Promotion of International Trade, with support from the Ministry of Commerce, the tourism office and the local cuisine association.[35] The week-long Singapore Food Festival is organized annually by the Singapore Tourism Board, a statutory board under the Ministry of Trade and Industry of Singapore.[36]

29 For more information, see www.bonghwa.go.kr/open.content/en/festivals/mushroom/
30 For more information, see for example https://nasvinet.org/national-street-food-festival/
31 For more information, see for example https://guide.michelin.com/sg/en/article/travel/top-food-festivals-worth-flying-to-around-the-world
32 For more information on the slow food movement, see www.slowfood.com
33 For more information, see www.slowfood.com/slow-food-community-qorr-growers-of-vetimboso-founded-at-lantarr-slow-food-festival-in-vanua-lava-vanuatu/
34 For more information, see www.thefoodfilmfestival.com/
35 For more information, see www.chinadaily.com.cn/cndy/2011-09/28/content_13805902.htm
36 For more information, see www.stb.gov.sg/

BOX 5

Vegetarian and vegan festivals in the Asia-Pacific region

Vegetarianism and veganism are increasingly popular in the region, and with them the so-called "vegfests" are on the rise.

Japan hosts biannual vegan gourmet festivals in Tokyo, Kyoto and Nagoya in spring and autumn.[i] In the Philippines, Vegans of Manila launched the VegFest Pilipinas in 2016. The festival has grown from 40 merchants and 4 000 attendees in 2016, to 200 merchants and 10 000 attendees in 2019. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, only virtual events were held in 2020 and 2021.[ii] Singapore launched the Singapore Vegan Festival in 2019, followed by a virtual edition in 2020, and a third edition in 2021 held under the umbrella of the much celebrated annual Singapore Food Festival.[iii] The vegan festival includes masterclasses with Michelin-starred chefs, cooking demos and food tours to discover vegan dishes from the Peranakan, Indian and Chinese heritages in the city. Other examples include the Bali Vegan Festival launched in 2015, and the Saigon VegFest first organized in Ho Chi Minh City in 2017.[iv]

These modern vegan festivals coexist with traditional vegetarian food festivals rooted in Hindu, Taoist and other religious beliefs. An example is the Taoist-inspired Nine Emperor Gods Festival, which takes place over nine days during the ninth lunar month of the Chinese calendar. It is rooted in the belief that abstaining from meat and other stimulants during these nine days gives good health and peace of mind for the rest of the year. The festival is said to have originated in Fujian, China, and later spread to Malaysia, Singapore and southern Thailand, where it is also celebrated. The Phuket Vegetarian Festival (or Tesagan Gin Je in Thai) attracts perhaps the largest crowds. The festival, where a wide array of vegetarian food is on offer, is mostly known for the large processions of devotees in trance-like state and extreme body piercing. This festival is also celebrated, to a lesser degree, in Bangkok and Chiang Mai, and has become an example of how a long-standing religious event can be leveraged to provide unique vegan and vegetarian travel experiences for visitors.

The above festival shares a number of similarities with the Thaipusam Festival celebrated by the Tamil Nadu community in India and in other countries such as Malaysia, Singapore and Sri Lanka. During the Thaipusam Festival, devotees practice vegetarianism, sexual abstinence and general good behaviour as a form of self-purification and to ask for blessings from the gods.[v]

Notes:

i For more information, see www.vegefes.com

ii For more information, see https://primer.com.ph/event/2019/08/26/vegfest-pilipinas-advocates-to-live-kindly-for-the-community/ and www.pressreader.com/philippines/philippine-daily-inquirer-1109/20201110/281569473251884

iii For more information, see https://sgveganfestival.com/

iv For more information, see www.bridgesbali.com/tag/bali-vegan-festival/ and www.asialifemagazine.com/vietnam/saigon-vegan-festival/

v For more information, see https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Thaipusam

Increasingly, food festivals are organized by private operators, some of whom operate globally. This is the case of the Taste Festivals celebrated in nearly 20 cities around the world, including Hong Kong and Shanghai. These events, featuring celebrity and world-class chefs, highly skilled restaurateurs, gourmet food and drink purveyors, artisan producers and manufacturers of food- and drink-related lifestyle products attract between 10 000 and 55 000 visitors per event.[37] Another example is the World Gourmet Summit, an annual event celebrated in Singapore since 1997 to showcase the craftsmanship of internationally acclaimed chefs and vintners. It was originally put together by the Singapore Tourism Board and an event company, with the latter taking over entirely after the second run of the summit.[38] The Hong Kong Food Festival is also organized by a specialized event company that holds multiple festivals, conferences and other events in Hong Kong.[39]

Other culinary festivals are organized by not-for-profit organizations, such as the Ubud Food Festival in Bali (Indonesia) that is hosted by a foundation named Yayasan Mudra Swari Saraswati, in partnership with multiple private companies.[40]

Given the magnitude and logistical complexity of food festivals, coupled with the fact that they typically involve coalitions of interested stakeholders, they tend to be organized through some form of public–private partnership (PPP). For example, the 2021 edition of the Penang International Food Festival (Malaysia) was organized by a specialized event organizer (TLM Event), endorsed by the Penang State Government and supported by the city council, the Penang Island City Council and the tourism board (Penang Global Tourism).[41]

Reasons for celebrating food festivals

There are multiple motivations for organizing a food festival or a special event, as shown in Figure 33.

FIGURE 33

Motivations underlying the organization of food festivals

ECONOMIC IMPACTS	SOCIAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS
• Impact of visitors' expenditure on the local economy (increased sales and taxes); • Promotional opportunities for agrifood and tourism businesses; • Employment generation; and • Contribution to culinary placemaking and to building networks among agrifood tourism stakeholders.	• Preservation of local agricultural and culinary heritage; • Building community cohesiveness; and • Inducing behavioural change to promote healthy diets, consumption of locally-produced foods and environmentally friendly practices.

Source: authors' elaboration.

37 For more information, see https://imgevents.com/properties/taste-festivals/
38 For more information, see https://worldgourmetsummit.com/
39 For more information, see https://hka.com.hk/home-eng.html
40 For more information, see www.yayasansaraswati.org/about/
41 For more information, see https://piff.com.my/2021/

Perhaps the most common motivation to organize food festivals is because of the expected economic impacts of the expenditures made by visitors in the local economy during the festival, promotional opportunities for businesses and job creation (Gursoy, Kim and Uysal, 2004). Timothy and Pena (2016) underline that gastronomic festivals can directly increase food sales for local restaurants, supermarkets, farmers' markets, roadside stands and other businesses as attendees consume large volumes of food over the course of the fair and perhaps buy some more to take back home (Hall and Sharples, 2008).

Food festivals typically attract a large number of tourists (Chang and Yuan, 2011; López-Guzmán *et al.*, 2017). For example, the Hong Kong Food Festival has around half a million attendees,[42] whereas the International Food Festival of Chengdu attracts over three million visitors, generating a total revenue of nearly USD 15 million (UNESCO, 2017a). The Singapore Food Festival, organized every year to celebrate the country's rich culinary culture, attracts over 350 000 visitors.[43] In Japan, the Saijo Sake Festival has helped to put the city of Saijo on the map, attracting around 250 000 visitors and generating roughly USD 30 million in revenues (UNWTO, 2019d). The Ubud Food Festival in Bali (Indonesia), first launched in 2015, welcomed 15 000 visitors in 2019 and generated USD 5 million in revenues.[44]

A crucial incentive to organize food festivals is that they enhance the appeal of a tourist destination. Indeed, these events can be successful instruments for culinary placemaking and help develop local communities involved in tourism (Slocum and Curtis, 2018). Food festivals and other culinary events are critical elements in building the image and developing a food tourism destination (Hall, 2005; Lau and Li, 2019). Vice versa, the creation of a strong place-specific identity plays a crucial role in the success and longevity of a food festival or food-themed event (Ma and Lew, 2012). For example, in 2011, the city of Tatebayashi in Japan (which has a very long history of producing udon noodles, soy sauce and wheat flour) launched the Tatebayashi Noodle Grand Prix in Japan. This noodle festival helps promote the region's food and tourism industries by highlighting its agriculture and food heritage related to udon noodle production (Kim *et al.*, 2018). The festival is supported by regional and local governments and local communities, including food production associations and local residents (Kim, 2015). The strong collaboration among stakeholders contributes to the festival's success.

Synergies abound between the organization of food festivals and the recognition of the cities that host them as gastronomic centres, such as UNESCO's Creative City of Gastronomy label (see Box 6).

BOX 6

UNESCO Creative Cities of Gastronomy and their food festivals

The Creative Cities Network of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) aims to strengthen cooperation with and among cities that have recognized creativity as a strategic factor of sustainable development, with economic, social, cultural and environmental impacts. The 180 cities that currently make up this network have opted to pursue cultural policies based on seven different areas of creativity, one of which is gastronomy.

A growing number of Creative Cities of Gastronomy is committed to promoting cuisine and food practices to stir global engagement, action and dialogue towards peaceful coexistence around food. Most Creative Cities of Gastronomy joined the network in the mid-2010s, reflecting a rising interest on the part of countries in harnessing gastronomic creativity, as well as food-related intangible cultural heritage, as a driver for local development, creativity and innovation. UNESCO's Creative Cities of Gastronomy in the Asia–Pacific region include Chengdu, Macao, Shunde and Yangzhou in China, Hyderabad in India, Tsuruoka in Japan, Jeonju in the Republic of Korea and Phuket in Thailand, among others.[i]

42 For more information, see https://food-expo.com.hk/hong-kong-food-festival.html
43 For more information, see https://singaporefoodfestival.sg/about/
44 For more information, see www.ubudfoodfestival.com/

The example of Chengdu, China, is a good example of the concept of a Creative City of Gastronomy. Chengdu is the capital of Sichuan Province, and the cradle and centre of Sichuan cuisine, one of the four main traditional Chinese cuisines. Thanks to its popular food culture and tourism resources, Chengdu was recognized by UNWTO and the China National Tourism Administration as one of the best tourist cities in China, and was granted membership to the World Centre of Excellence for Destinations.[ii] The title of Creative Gastronomy City, granted to Chengdu in 2010, recognizes the pioneering spirit of the city in several gastronomy-related areas. For example, the city was the first in the country to set up a food museum, a brewery and a cultural tea centre.

Chengdu cuisine is characterized by an artful mixture of sweet, sour, bitter, spicy and salty flavours. This is embodied in the city's famous kung pao chicken, a dish made with chicken, peppers, garlic, chives, ginger, peanuts and Sichuan pepper. The gastronomy sector carries a significant weight within the city's economy. In 2017, Chengdu boasted over 60 000 restaurants, more than 2 300 renowned chefs and over 62 000 catering enterprises.[iii]

This thriving sector is supported by public authorities and by non-governmental organizations, which co-organize gastronomy activities all over the city throughout the year, including the Chengdu International Food and Tourism Festival. This festival, launched in 2004, has become an important platform for stimulating food culture exchanges and promoting both the tourism and the food industry, and catering in particular. The 2017 edition of the festival welcomed more than 3 million tourists from China and overseas, resulting in sales revenues of USD 14.7 million.[iii]

Another UNESCO Creative City of Gastronomy is Jeonju, also known as the "Taste City" and considered the gastronomic capital of the Republic of Korea. The city is renowned for its high-quality traditional gastronomy and food industry, ranging from the production of rice on the Honam Plain to fish and salted fish from the Yellow Sea, and fresh vegetables and wild greens from the mountains. To preserve and promote its food heritage, Jeonju hosts various food festivals, including the Jeonju Bibimbap Festival and the International Fermented Food Expo, thus contributing to the internationalization of traditional Korean food. The Jeonju Bibimbap Festival focuses on the widely popular bibimbap, a popular dish consisting of a bowl of rice topped with various vegetables, beef and chili pepper paste. This dish is a traditional signature dish of Jeonju and the national dish of the Republic of Korea.[iv] Additionally, the city offers various programmes centred around traditional food and cooking, and has established the Creative Culinary Institute of Korea and the Bibimbap Globalization Foundation through public-private partnerships.[v]

Notes:

i For more information on UNESCO's Creative Cities of Gastronomy network, see https://en.unesco.org/creative-cities/home

ii For more information on the World Centre of Excellence for Destinations, see www.ced.travel

iii **UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization).** 2017a. Chengdu, UNESCO Creative City of Gastronomy since 2010. Monitoring report. Paris.

iv **Park, E. and Kim, S.** 2018. Supporting the industry or just consuming leisure? The case of industrial festivals and events in Jeonju, South Korea: In W. Frost and J. Laing, eds. Exhibitions, trade fairs and industrial events, pp. 161–172. London, Routledge.

v **UNESCO.** 2017b. Jeonju, UNESCO Creative City of Gastronomy. 2012–2017 monitoring report. Paris.

Culinary placemaking through a food festival can happen even at a smaller scale. For instance, the tiny Pacific island of Niue organizes a biennial food festival called KaiNiue, which is designed to showcase the island's local produce to the world. During the festival, guests can experience new ways of cooking by international culinary experts.[45]

The success of food festivals at strengthening the profile of tourism destinations can be attributed *inter alia* to the participation of celebrity chefs, as well as to the use of social and digital media. For example, the Ubud Food Festival has put the spotlight on Michelin-starred chefs and up-and-coming culinary talents in the region from Bangkok to Kuala Lumpur and Manila. The festival typically features a host of events, including cooking demos and culinary battles between chefs, food tours and talks, workshops, masterclasses, musical and other performances, films and markets. The 2018 edition brought together close to 100 chefs, restaurateurs, farmers and entrepreneurs. Festivalgoers are mostly Indonesian (85 percent), with about 15 percent international visitors. The large majority of participants (97 percent) travelled to Ubud specifically to participate in the festival, and 55 percent of the attendees found out about the festival through social media (Facebook, Twitter and Instagram). The organizers invested heavily in creating a strong social media presence, with a Facebook reach of 600 million, 100 000 tweets on Twitter and over 11 000 Instagram followers (Yayasan Mudra Swari Saraswati, 2019). The example of the Ubud Food Festival shows that many of the trends driving food tourism are interrelated. Indeed, high-profile festivals such as this can not only contribute to culinary placemaking, but also raise awareness of local sourcing, sustainability and ethics.

Because of their importance for culinary placemaking, food festivals are often embedded in national tourism strategies. For example, Thailand has for many years been using cuisine as a platform to differentiate and promote itself as a destination, inviting tourists to consume the local culture, including food festivals. In 2018, the Tourism Authority of Thailand organized the Amazing Thai Taste Festival as a key component of its marketing strategy "Amazing Thailand". The festival focused on presenting new ways of experiencing Thai food culture. Amongst the numerous displays and activities was an exhibit promoting different types of Thai rice, the cornerstone of Thai cuisine. Six types of rice (e.g. jasmine, sticky white, brown and black) produced in different regions of Thailand were showcased along with the best food match for each rice (Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019).

Beyond these economic benefits, food festivals may have positive social impacts. Firstly, culinary festivals can play a key role in preserving culinary heritage. Timothy (2011) explains that decisions have to be made regarding which type of heritage, out of many, will be preserved and promoted through food festivals, which is inherently a political process.

Other common social impacts are building community cohesiveness and generating social incentives for residents and the businesses community (Gursoy, Kim and Uysal, 2004). Culinary festivals can help create cohesion in the community by building pride, preserving the local culture and generating revenues for civic projects. Festivals provide social incentives for residents to get actively involved in community activities and for food and tourism businesses to support and invest in the community (Chwe, 1998). Culinary festivals can generate common knowledge, build trust and provide new recreational opportunities, thus reinforcing ties within a community and contributing to social cohesion (Gursoy, Jurowsky and Uysal, 2002). However, these events may also create problems for the local community, such as increased pressure on local services, traffic congestion and a rise in crime.

Furthermore, food festivals can act as agents for behavioural changes that are in line with broad public policy objectives (Gursoy, Kim and Uysal, 2004), such as promoting the consumption of locally produced food and creating awareness about healthier food options, such as organic or vegetarian food.

45 For more information, see https://southpacificislands.travel/tropical-feast-at-niue-food-fest/

3.4. FOOD TRAILS

The concept of food trails

Food trails can be described as "a linear route primarily intended for recreational and educational travel involving the consumption of local food" (Slocum and Curtis, 2018, p. 237). They can also be referred to as taste trails, gastronomic trails, culinary routes or trails, and in essence denote touring circuits that cater to visitors interested in food heritage. Such circuits allow tourists to experience an assortment of different foods, cooking techniques or local produce specialties.

Developing a culinary trail starts with the definition of a thematic focus (e.g. wine, organic production or street food), the tracing of a route and the selection of components. Creating organized itineraries that suit the diverse needs of trail users, as well as obtaining agreement for the signage of the food route, are critical steps in the development of the trail. Itineraries related to food and drink typically incorporate a number of gastronomy-related products or tourism sites within a given geographical area, such as factories, restaurants or food museums. The route brings together food-related and other types of tourist attractions and offers them in a convenient package so that tourists stay in the trail longer, thereby promoting economic development throughout the area.

A calendar of events and a food trail map listing local food options and events are then created to communicate a unified message. The calendar and map allow tourists to visualize the whole trail and pick and choose different experiences over the course of their visit (Slocum and Curtis, 2018). What usually follows is the development of digital marketing tools, including a website for the destination management organization (DMO)[46] and a trail planning application that allows visitors to consult dynamic trail information at their fingertips (Jacobs, 2010).

Food trails need a clear marketing strategy that creates a renewed identity by providing a unifying theme and brand. Marketing efforts begin with a clear identification of the target audience and continue with the development of narratives and interpretations that offer compelling stories to attract tourists to the trail (Timothy, 2016). Slocum and Curtis (2018) emphasize how important it is to tell the story behind the food trail, so users can learn more about the history of the trail, the food heritage and customary practices surrounding certain foods, the cultures they are going to encounter, and so on. UNWTO (2017a) concurs that the success of a culinary trail ultimately relies on how its marketing message is delivered to and received by the target audience. For example, millennials appreciate customizable experiences; they like to use digital information channels and integrated websites containing user-generated content with the trail's hashtag to plan, book and collaborate.

Types of food trails

There are different types of food routes according to their thematic focus, their geographical scope, and their origin story, as shown in Figure 34.

A food trail's theme is typically a type of food or beverage (e.g. wine routes, tea trails, spice trails and rice routes), but they can also revolve around a specific cooking style or culinary tradition (Timothy, 2016). An illustrative example from the region is the Royal Heritage Gastronomy Tour in Indonesia, which focuses on the eating habits of former Indonesian kings in the cities of Solo and Yogyakarta (UNWTO, 2017a).

46 See the glossary for a definition of DMO.

FIGURE 34

Different types of food trails

THEMATIC FOCUS	GEOGRAPHICAL SCOPE	ORIGIN STORY
• Food trail revolving around a type of food or beverages (e.g. wine routes, tea trails, spice trails and rice routes); and • Food trail revolving around a specific cooking style or culinary tradition (e.g. the Royal Heritage Gastronomy Tour in Solo and Yogyakarta, Indonesia).	• City food tours; • Regional food trails (e.g. the Sikkim food trail in India); • National food trails (e.g. Sri Lanka's tea trail); and • Food trails connecting two or more countries (e.g. the tea caravan trail along the Mekong River connecting Thailand, the Lao People's Democratic Republic and the province of Yunnan in China).	• Food trails that evolved spontaneously (e.g. Malaysia's spice route); • Intentionally created food trails; and • Food trails with a mixed-origin story (e.g. Japan's food trail based on the country's One Village One Product initiative)

Source: authors' elaboration.

Culinary trails can take place at various geographical scales: a city, a region, multiple regions within a country, and even multiple countries. There are uncountable examples of local food tours in main cities across the Asia–Pacific region (Timothy, 2016). Singapore has several food tours that enable participants to experience the city's hawker culture, which was recently inscribed on the UNESCO Representative List of the Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity.[47] These city food tours are increasingly being customized to fit different audiences: from those who can afford tasting different cuisines in Michelin-starred restaurants in Hong Kong to those interested in vegetarian food in Hanoi or Hue, or in discovering the lively Kuromon Market, known as Osaka's kitchen, and its surrounding food and culinary spots. Operators in several major Asian cities now take visitors to night markets to enjoy local delicacies in a casual atmosphere that combines gastronomic and shopping experiences; this type of food tour is becoming increasingly popular.

The increased demand for food tours in major cities in the region is being met with digital applications that make these experiences more accessible and memorable to food tourists. Tan and Abu Bakar (2016) discuss the creation of mobile-driven applications for food trails in Singapore as a way to provide access to rich multimedia content and interactive social communication platforms that add value to the overall gastronomic and cultural experience. Apps for mobile-driven food trails must map out the totality of the food trail experience and incorporate the various interpretative programmes and marketing messages. Such apps serve the triple purpose of:

- helping tourists find information and plan, prior to their trip;
- optimizing on-site tourism experiences at selected food sites through instruments such as quick response codes, global positioning systems and image recognition, which facilitate collaborative and self-directed learning experiences; and
- promoting post-trip recollection and word-of-mouth.

47 For more information, see https://ich.unesco.org/en/lists

Tan and Abu Bakar (2016) present the example of the Jalan Besar mobile food trail app, which enables visitors to experience the culinary heritage of this street in central Singapore. Another example is the application developed by FOODIEON, a start-up from the Republic of Korea and winner of UNWTO's Second Gastronomy Tourism Start-up Competition, which offers customized local food tours.[48]

Some food trails stretch across a province or region, such as the culinary tours that invite tourists to discover Balinese gastronomy by attending fine-dining restaurants, eat traditional or local food offered by warungs (small family-owned businesses such as eateries or cafes), go to culinary theatres in Ubud, attend cooking classes, or visit vineyards, coffee plantations, traditional markets and food festivals (UNWTO, 2017a). Another example is the Sikkim Food Trail in India, which allows visitors to experience the food traditions and local organic food of the mountainous state of Sikkim, nestled in the Himalayas. The distinctive geography of Sikkim, bordering on Bhutan, China and Nepal, and the six major tribes that inhabit it make it a place of remarkable agricultural, culinary and cultural diversity. Like its neighbour Bhutan, the State of Sikkim is striving to become one hundred percent organic, thus enriching its narrative and attracting a new segment of food tourists that are interested in healthy, organic food.[49]

Since more and more tourists are seeking out organically grown local produce, a focus on organic products may become a crucial element of the marketing strategies for food trails. Likewise, regions with food products that are registered as geographical indications or carry similar types of heritage recognition labels can integrate this into their trail marketing strategies (Timothy, 2016).

Food trails can also link various regions, using place narratives as a basis for product promotion. Examples include the Royal Heritage Gastronomy Tour linking Solo and Yogyakarta in Indonesia, and Malaysia's Spice Route that links the Straits Settlements of George Town (Penang) and Malacca, both UNESCO World Heritage Sites (UNWTO, 2017a). Sri Lanka is well known for its tea trails, which build on the country's renowned Ceylon tea, scenic landscapes and rich gastronomic and cultural heritage. In the tea triangle formed by the cities of Kandy, Ella and Nuwara Eliya, tourists can enjoy a trek among the scenic tea-carpeted hills, stay in colonial-era tea planter residences turned into tourism resorts, participate in tea tasting workshops, visit tea factories, learn the art of tea picking and relax with tea-themed spa treatments.[50]

Some trails connect two or more countries. These trails, although often not purposefully designed around culinary experiences, tend to follow ancient trade routes that offer trail users a wealth of gastronomic adventures (Timothy, 2016). This is the case of the Tea Caravan Trail in the Golden Triangle, which follows the Mekong River through Thailand, the Lao People's Democratic Republic and Yunnan (China). Tourists following the Tea Caravan Trail can enjoy the unique Lanna cuisine in northern Thailand, with its sticky rice and chilli paste, taste the local food in night markets in the Lao People's Democratic Republic, and explore the terraced rice fields in historical Xishuangbanna, in Yunnan.[51]

Hashimoto and Telfer (2015) acknowledge the importance of the origin story of the food trail. They point out that some trails developed organically as an evolution of original trade routes (such as the Silk Road) or ancient pilgrim, explorer or settler routes. Some evolved spontaneously along man-made lines such as railways, highways, canals and political borders, while still others have a more recent, intentional development. Timothy and Boyd (2015) note that the latter routes are intentionally developed within a defined geographic area that has nodes of culinary interest for modern tourist use. The line between a natural and an intentional development is often blurred, as in the case of Japan's One Village One Product (OVOP) initiative (see Box 7).

48 For more information, see www.gastronomytourismventures.org/en/
49 For more information on the Sikkim Food Trail, see www.kipepeo.in/trips/sikkim-food-trail/
50 For more information on Sri Lanka's Ceylon tea trail, see https://impactescapes.com/sri-lankas-ceylon-tea-trail/
51 For more information on the Tea Caravan Trail, see www.mekongtourism.org/the-tea-caravan-trail/

BOX 7

Food trails of Japan's One Village One Product initiative

The One Village One Product (OVOP) initiative was initiated in 1979 in Oita Prefecture, Japan, to revitalize depressed rural areas by promoting the food and beverage products that individual villages are known for. Efforts focused on boosting the production and improving the branding and marketing of these products. As a result of the initiative, heritage food and drinks were revalorized and the communities in the prefecture became more vibrant.[i]

Nowadays, heritage food and drink products have become an instrument to attract food tourists. Along village roads and at train stations, travellers encounter signs indicating OVOP products, and they can buy bento boxes (lunch boxes) containing the traditional food from a particular area. Thus, when travelling from one place to the next, visitors can get a taste of the different regional cuisines that are based on villages' unique local ingredients.[ii]

The OVOP initiative reflects the extreme importance the Government of Japan attaches to preserving the country's culinary heritage, avoiding the erosion of food traditions and distinguishing heritage foods from contemporary local foods. Many other countries in the region have found inspiration in this initiative and have adapted it to fit their own specific contexts.

Notes:

i **UNIDO (United Nations Industrial Development Organization).** 2008. The One-Village-One-Product (OVOP) movement: what it is, how it has been replicated, and recommendations for a UNIDO OVOP-type project. Vienna. https://open.unido.org/api/documents/4814612/download/The%20One-Village-One-Product%20(OVOP)%20movement%20-%20What%20it%20is,%20how%20it%20has%20been%20replicated,%20and%20recommendations%20for%20a%20UNIDO%20OVOP-type%20project

ii **Hashimoto, A. and Telfer, D.J.** 2015. Culinary trails. In D.J. Timothy. Heritage cuisines. Traditions, identities and tourism, pp. 132–147. London, Routledge.

Whether they evolved spontaneously or were purposively created, food trails have the potential to enhance the connection between tourism, food heritage and other cultural components in a way that increases the length of visitors' stays, as well as their spending (Hashimoto and Telfer, 2015).

Why develop and promote food trails?

Like food festivals, culinary trails can generate considerable economic investment, create employment and boost visitors' spending in travel destinations. By improving the visibility of local food products, organized food trails increase visitors' expenditure. Local tourism operators should therefore be encouraged to offer the products promoted by the trail to stimulate backward linkages and minimize economic leakage (Everett, 2016).

Food routes create clusters of businesses associated with the trail, thus providing a critical mass of similarly themed services. These clusters result in symbiotic relationships between various local businesses (including restaurants, hotels, tour agencies, wineries, farms, butcheries, delicatessen shops, farmers' markets and food processing plants), offering opportunities to collaborate and produce a single coherent experience for tourists (Slocum and Curtis, 2018).

For these reasons, food routes and trails have become an important policy tool for governments across the region to highlight local specialty items and create a competitive advantage over other food tourism destinations (Timothy, 2016).

Strategic alliances to develop and position food trails often incorporate government agencies and marketing associations, as well as businesses that realize that they can benefit more from concerted efforts to sell the whole food trail as a single experience than from separate individual actions (Timothy, 2016). This realization is the basis of successful food tourism clusters with horizontal and vertical linkages among stakeholders.

3.5. CULINARY CLASSES

Another type of gastronomy tourism that is on the rise are cooking lessons. Sharples (2003) notes that attending culinary lessons has become a popular activity with the mainstreaming of the foodie culture.

The trend initially started with the establishment of professional cookery schools across the region, and particularly in Southeast Asia, from Thailand to Viet Nam, Indonesia (Bali) and Malaysia (Everett, 2016). Cooking schools contribute to the success of local food markets as participants go shopping for ingredients and incorporate market visits into their programme.

More and more locations across Asia and the Pacific offer cooking classes with local chefs and culinary amateurs who teach tourists how to prepare local food during home cooking classes and homestays (Bell, 2015; Everett, 2016).[52] Such cooking sessions are quite common in a number of countries, including *inter alia* Indonesia, Japan, Singapore, Thailand and Viet Nam. They offer an opportunity for tourists to visit local villages or gardens to collect ingredients and prepare them together with locals. Cooking with locals can be passive (e.g. observing cooking demonstrations) or more active experiences (e.g. participating in cooking lessons). Both professional and home culinary lessons may be integrated into food trails as one of many culinary experiences offered.

In response to the trend towards experiential and co-creative tourism, cooking schools and tourism operators throughout the region offer visitors the opportunity to gain insights into local cuisines by learning with locals. By so doing, these classes provide alternative tourist products that offer visitors a glimpse into the daily life of local families. Bell's exploration (2015) of a home cooking school in Bali, Indonesia, found that compared to professional cooking schools, there was a rather friendly atmosphere in home cooking schools, where visitors share a family's personal space. Through these lessons, the daily lives of local people become a commodity that generates income for the household. Jolliffe (2019) studies the proliferation of home cooking lessons in Thailand, as presented in more detail in Box 8.

Ultimately, when visitors cook with locals, a sense of home and being part of a family is created, but is it true or staged? Although cooking lessons promise an authentic experience in a place where a certain cuisine originates, Park, Kim and Yeoman (2019) warn about the risks of staged authenticity. Cooking schools may adapt and commodify the local culinary heritage to provide what they think the tourists want. For example, Avieli (2013) noted that in Hoi An, Viet Nam, cooking classes offer an invented culinary heritage that adapts dishes from various traditions. Bell (2015) found a similar situation in home-based cooking schools in Bali, while Walter (2017) documented an analogous case in a cooking school in Bangkok, Thailand.

52 For a definition of homestay, see the glossary.

BOX 8

Home cooking lessons in Thailand

A multitude of cooking schools in Thailand offer cooking lessons to visitors as a way to interact with locals. In addition, food trails may also include cooking classes. Some cooking schools are located in cities, in restaurants or dedicated cooking school facilities, while others are located on rural farms near the city with an emphasis on farm-to-table cooking. City-based cooking schools often feature kitchen gardens and organize visits to small local neighbourhood markets. Both city and country schools offer courses of various lengths, from half-day to full-day offerings.[i] Many cooking schools either use or stage home environments with local instructors.

These courses are bookable through local hotels and agencies, and more recently through digital platforms. An example is Cookly, a Thai digital platform that gives access to culinary traditions through experiences (cooking with locals), content (traditional recipes and stories that highlight local food traditions) and culinary accessories, such as aprons and wooden cooking tools.[ii]

Most cooking courses allow users to personalize their experiences in terms of the number of dishes, spiciness and special dietary requirements (e.g. gluten-free and vegetarian choices). Participants are often offered souvenir cookbooks, and many schools post photos on social media and on their websites.

These cooking schools contribute to the sustainability of the local agrifood tourism chain through their links to small local food markets, which participants tour or visit to shop for ingredients. In addition, they offer employment to locals who share their traditional culinary knowledge with tourists.[i]

Notes:

i **Jolliffe, L.** 2019. Cooking with locals: a food tourism trend in Asia? In E. Park, S. Kim and L. Yeoman, eds. Food tourism in Asia, pp. 59–70. Singapore, Springer.

ii For more information, see www.cookly.me

3.6. DINING EXPERIENCES

Consuming food while travelling can also be associated with seeking social recognition when tourists look for trendy restaurant experiences, haute cuisine and the like (Hjalager and Richards, 2002). In parallel, street food has become ever more popular over the past few years, particularly in Southeast Asia (a number of street food vendors have even received Michelin stars, typically given to high-end restaurants).

Restaurant dining

The region's fine-dining scene is being transformed by the introduction of farm-to-table and locavore principles. Up until recently, fine-dining menus in the region highlighted imported luxury ingredients such as foie gras, truffle, caviar and lobster. Now, the farm-to-table counter-culture puts the emphasis on using ultrafresh, authentic ingredients sourced locally and artfully combined to tell a love story for the terroir. Pioneering this trend, a fine restaurant in Ubud (Bali, Indonesia) has started offering a signature dish that represents the rice fields in the area: from Balinese heritage rice to duck eggs, snails, frogs, fern tips and wild chilli blossom (Chen, 2022).

The restaurant dining sector in Asia and the Pacific is experiencing a digital revolution, whereby diners choose their restaurant based on recommendations on social networks, such as Facebook and Instagram, or travel or restaurant guidance platforms such as Tripadvisor and The Fork. Once at the restaurant,

diners can look up the menu by using QR codes, order via digital channels, and pay contactless. The trend towards digital sophistication is demonstrated by the birth of a new generation of start-ups, including Ginkan from Japan, a winner of UNWTO's First Global Gastronomy Tourism Startup Competition. Ginkan's application SynchroLife is the world's first social restaurant review app with artificial intelligence-based restaurant recommendations and cryptocurrency token rewards (UNWTO, 2019e). At the time of this study, the app had 380 000 reviews of 120 000 restaurants in over 155 countries.[53]

For food tourists, the times of a binary choice between fine or more casual dining are long gone. Nowadays, alternatives to restaurant dining encompass street food and dining with locals. These alternative choices reflect diners' concerns regarding convenience and authenticity (Mintel, 2018). While convenience is something that has traditionally been associated with fast food, it is also behind the skyrocketing popularity of street foods.

Street food

Over the past years, there has been a resurgence of street food, which FAO defines as:

> the foods and beverages that are prepared and/or sold by itinerant or stationary vendors in streets and in other public places for immediate consumption or for later consumption without further processing or preparation (FAO, 2009, p. vi).

In the early 2010s, street food was consumed by approximately 2.5 billion people every day (FAO, 2011), representing almost one-quarter of global foodservice transactions (Euromonitor International, 2012; Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019).

Barone and Pellerito (2020) underline that street food is a type of cultural heritage that is diffused in all urbanized areas of the world, suggesting relationships with social aggregation, economic convenience, typical folk elements, etc. Henderson (2021) adds that visitors perceive street food as local and authentic, which renders it more attractive to them. In addition, street food outlets enliven the sites where they are located, especially city streets at night and night markets.

53 For information on the app, please see Syncrolife's website at www.synchrolife.io/

BOX 9

Street food and its contribution to tourism in Asia

Street food is ubiquitous in Asia, and especially in Southeast Asia, where the tropical climate favours outdoor eating and retailing. Street food vendors or hawkers operate mostly in urban areas, with some conducting transitory business at festivals and other events.

The growing popularity of street food, particularly in several destinations in Asia that are presented as food paradises, is motivating vendors to upgrade their hygiene practices and thus respond to eaters' demand for safer food.[i, ii] Indeed, while street food is the most popular food experience in many Asian destinations, it is also regularly identified as presenting the highest food safety risks. Some tourists avoid street foods because of health concerns.[iii] Many municipalities, tourism boards and other official agencies have therefore launched public programmes to improve food safety outcomes. For example, in 2017, Hong Kong launched a two-year food truck pilot scheme overseen by the government, whereby 16 food trucks were selected to trade at eight attraction sites. The pilot scheme sought to increase the appeal of the attraction sites, offer safe local food to tourists and enforce hygiene standards.[ii, iv]

Being a dynamic concept and practice, street food is adapting to the modern era and the rise of social media with numerous blogs and YouTube videos devoted to street foods and sellers. A few Asian hawkers have even introduced online ordering, internet advertising and home delivery.

Street food vending is not a preferred career choice for the youth because of the physical demands and relatively low remuneration. For this reason, a number of governments (e.g. Singapore) and the private sector are supporting the trade with various instruments, including skills training and grants.[v]

The concept of street food in Asia is evolving; it now embraces gourmet food trucks and pop-up restaurants. These have become fashionable around the world, but are not necessarily representative of the local food heritage.[ii] Street food is also moving upmarket in more prosperous Asian cities as a result of its growing appeal to visitors looking for authenticity.[ii] This trend is reflected in the decision of the prestigious Michelin Guide in 2016 to incorporate street food as a category of food establishments. In February 2023, 317 street food outlets were featured in the Michelin Guide, mostly from China, Singapore and Thailand.[vi] Street food has also become a basis for city tours and broader product and destination development strategies.

Notes:

i **Park, E., Kim, S. and Yeoman, I.** 2019. Food Tourism in Asia. Singapore, Springer.

ii **Henderson, J.C.** 2021. Street food and gastronomic tourism. In S.K. Dixit, ed. The Routledge Handbook of Gastronomic Tourism, pp. 431–440. New York, USA, Routledge.

iii **Telfer, D.J. and Wall, G.** 2000. Strengthening backward economic linkages: local food purchasing by three Indonesian hotels. An International Journal of Tourism Space, Place and Environment, 4(2): 421–447.

iv **Lee, D. and Kwek, A.** 2020. Tourists' perceptions of food trucks in Asia: a Hong Kong case study. In S.K. Dixit, ed. Tourism in Asian Cities, pp. 176–189. New York, USA, Routledge.

v **Henderson, J.C.** 2016. Foodservice in Singapore: retaining a place for hawkers? Journal of Foodservice Business Research, 19(3): 272–286.

vi **Michelin Guide.** 2023. Street food. In: Restaurants. Clermont-Ferrand, France. Cited 27 February 2023. https://guide.michelin.com/en/restaurants/street-food

Although sometimes neglected in the tourism literature, street food can play a major role in attracting visitors and enhancing the appeal of sites and events. Food hawkers tend to be more prevalent in poorer countries where street food is a vital source of cheap food, income and employment. Street food is especially important in Southeast Asia, where it is deeply rooted in the economy and the local culture (Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019) (see also Box 9).

Another alternative form of dining that is on the rise in Asia and the Pacific is dining with locals. Food tourists are increasingly interested in eating homemade meals with locals in their own homes. The dining experience fosters tourists' interaction with the community and can be viewed as a cultural marker to internalise the perception of a place through embodied experience (Okumus, Okumus and McKercher, 2007).

This experience is particularly appealing to solo travellers, who can engage in a conversation with the host family while tasting local food and learning about the local culture and way of living. The dining experience brings the tourists closer to the local community and creates points of identification and a sense of place.

This form of social dining is facilitated by a number of digital applications such as Eat With, with 25 000 hosts in more than 130 countries, including many Asian destinations.[54]

3.7. OTHER GASTRONOMY-RELATED TOURISM EXPERIENCES

In addition to the experiences listed above, food tourists are looking for other kinds of authentic experiences to connect with local culture. In Asia and the Pacific, these include visiting traditional markets, and particularly farmers' markets and floating markets, and participating in food-related health and wellness experiences, e.g. in line with the principles of traditional Ayurvedic medicine.

Farmers' markets

Troccoli and De Rosa (2021, p. 16) define farmers' markets as "platforms where farmers bring their produce, with the purpose of directly selling them to final consumers at affordable prices." They anchor short food supply chains or alternative localized circuits, as opposed to global food supply chains. As such, they are the epitome of localness, quality and freshness (Getz *et al.*, 2014) and an outlet for seasonal products and traditional or heirloom varieties. They are also a privileged vehicle for providing visibility to the area's agricultural produce, showcasing regional ingredients and cuisine, and assisting in the preservation of culinary heritage (Thompson and Prideaux, 2021).

Since the above attributes feature high on tourists' lists of criteria for choosing a destination, more and more tourism products are being developed around farmers' markets. Visits to farmers' markets are offered as a stand-alone activity, in combination with other gastronomic experiences such as food festivals and cooking lessons, or as part of food trails (Joliffe, 2008). A visit to a local farmers' markets is now a common element of many food tours and cooking lessons.

From a food tourist perspective, farmers' markets offer authentic food experiences and a direct connection to farmers and local communities (Zittlau and Gorman, 2012). Because farmers' markets showcase a variety of local food in a single location, they represent an entry point to other food-related experiences (e.g. visits to local restaurants and wineries and following local food trails), as well as to experiences that are not food-related, such as visits to heritage sites and national parks (Thompson and Prideaux, 2021).

54 For more information, see www.eatwith.com

Despite their rising popularity, farmers' markets face numerous challenges. The first challenge regards their economic viability, as they have to compete for the attention of consumers with modern supermarkets that offer convenient prices, a wide range of products and a one-stop grocery experience (Thompson and Prideaux, 2021). Farmers' markets located in or near large urban areas have to compete with other types of urban-based markets by developing distinctive product mixes and food experiences that entice local residents and visitors (Frost *et al.*, 2016). A second frequent concern regarding farmers' markets is their lack of compliance with food safety regulations (Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019).

Floating markets

Floating markets are traditional markets where merchandise is sold from boats. They are mostly found in places where water transportation traditionally plays an important role in daily life, such as Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Sri Lanka, Thailand and Viet Nam (chiefly the Mekong Delta).

Originally, floating markets were scheduled according to the lunar calendar and on specific days so as to avoid competition with other markets in the same region. They were important not only as trading places for food and other traditional products, but also as social meeting places (Pongajarn, van der Duim and Peters, 2018). Gradually, floating markets became a popular tourist attraction where tourists engage in food experiences and leisure activities on rivers or canals while connecting with locals and learning about their foodways (Fakfare *et al.*, 2021).

Tourists who visit floating markets may see stunning waterscapes, taste local delicacies and hear local dialects, all of which contributes to a lasting impression of a destination. Both the public and the private sector have long recognized the importance of floating markets for agrifood tourism (Fakfare and Wattanacharoensil, 2020). This has led to the development of food tourism experiences around these markets, often linked to local culinary trails and other gastronomic and non-gastronomic tourism experiences (e.g. boating activities and cultural exhibitions) (Thongpanya, 2018).

BOX 10

Floating markets in Thailand and Viet Nam

In Thailand and Viet Nam, floating markets have traditionally served as trading places for domestic produce. However, from the 1950s onwards, these markets started disappearing as land-based transportation became predominant in Thailand. With the support of public tourism bodies, some floating markets became tourist attractions, providing home-grown products, local cuisine, cultural performances and water-based activities to tourists.[i]

For some time, the Ludplee Damnernsaduak floating market, located just over 100 kilometres from Bangkok, remained the only floating market in the country used for tourism. Things changed when the Thai Government included floating markets in community-based and cultural tourism programmes in the late 1990s and early 2000s. For example, in 2001 local authorities decided to revive the Amphawa floating market, in the province of Samut Songkhram, by promoting it as a key tourism attraction. This historic floating market was operative from the seventeenth until the mid-twentieth century, but was on the verge of disappearing. Its promotion not only boosted the local economy but also helped preserve heritage agrifood products and traditional houses and orchards near the market.[ii]

Pongajarn, van der Duim and Peters (2018) argue that the economic success of publicly supported floating markets eventually stimulated the establishment of new floating markets by the private sector. The authors argue that the transition from trading places to tourism

attractions has diminished their authenticity, with fresh local products such as fruits and vegetables being replaced by souvenirs and ready-to-eat food, and boats being used for cruising rather than trading.

Floating markets perform a key role in tourism product development along the Mekong River, and particularly in Viet Nam's delta region, which is the most heavily cruised segment of the Mekong. This is facilitated by the area's proximity to Ho Chi Minh City, which is an international air hub and first-tier destination. Well-known floating markets in this region include the floating markets of Cai Be and of Phong Dien, where tourists can taste local specialties and buy fruits, vegetables and household products, and perhaps continue their local experience with a village visit, an overnight homestay or a visit to tropical orchards.[iii]

Notes:

[i] **Pongajarn, C., van der Duim, R. and Peters, K.** 2018. Floating markets in Thailand: same, same, but different. Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change, 16(2): 109-122. https://doi.org/10.1080/14766825.2016.1253704

[ii] **Lunchaprasith, T.** 2017. Gastronomic experience as a community development driver: the study of Amphawa Floating Market as community-based culinary tourism destination. Asian Journal of Tourism Research, 2(2): 84-116.

[iii] **UNWTO.** 2016. Mekong river-based tourism product development. Madrid. www.e-unwto.org/doi/epdf/10.18111/9789284418015

Food-related health and wellness experiences

Food can also be linked to other tourist motivations, such as an interest in health and wellness. The consumption of healthy, locally sourced foods is an inherent part of wellness-related tourism that complements more traditional elements such as spas and hot springs (Erfurt-Cooper and Cooper, 2009). In Asia and the Pacific, two food-related health and wellness initiatives that are worth highlighting are hot spring cooking and Ayurvedic treatments with an important gastronomic component.

Hot springs are traditionally linked to gastronomic experiences in several countries in Asia and the Pacific. For instance, visitors to hot springs in Japan also seek authentic, local gastronomic experiences. The small city of Beppu, located in the Japanese island of Kyushu, is endowed with eight traditional hot spring bathing areas that attract many local and international tourists. The presence of the springs has shaped unique local cooking habits, including steaming ingredients with the vapor of the hot springs. This technique allows food to be cooked quickly, while the small amount of salt in the water adds flavour to the dishes. In addition, hot spring cooking requires no fossil fuels and is therefore a sustainable cooking method. By including food cooked using the hot springs in their menus, tourism operators in the city manage to use the hot springs to their full potential in terms of culinary, spiritual, and health and wellness experiences (Erfurt-Cooper and Cooper, 2009; UNWTO, 2019d).

A small but growing number of destinations in Asia and the Pacific are catering to the growing demand for tourism products that combine gastronomic experiences and traditional wellness treatments. Wellness tourism in Asia, and especially China, has grown considerably in recent years. According to ADB (2020b), travellers to and within Asia generated USD 136.7 billion in wellness tourism revenues in 2019, or 21.1 percent of the global total, with a 10.9 percent CAGR. The popularity of wellness tourism is not surprising: historically, societies in the region have emphasized mind-body connections in traditional medicine systems, for example traditional Chinese medicine in China and the Republic of Korea (ADB, 2020b) or Ayurveda in India and Sri Lanka (see Box 11). Wellness tourism experiences based on Ayurveda, traditional Chinese medicine and the like rely heavily on local agricultural and culinary heritage, and therefore have a strong agrifood component. As such, destinations that have developed this type of experiences, at a crossroads between wellness and agrifood tourism, are well positioned to benefit from global trends in gastronomic and wellness tourism.

BOX 11

Ayurveda as a driver of food and agriculture tourism in India and Sri Lanka

Ayurveda is a holistic, traditional system of medicine from India based on the idea of physiological balance and detoxification through a combination of diet, lifestyle modification, herbal treatments and yogic breathing.[i] Ayurvedic practitioners use food, beverages and mindful eating habits to restore the loss of this balance. As far as nutrition is concerned, the main objective of Ayurvedic medicine is to establish healthy food habits for proper nourishment and the prevention of diseases.[ii] While historically Ayurveda originated in the Indian subcontinent, today neighbouring countries like Bhutan, Nepal and Sri Lanka each promote unique, culturally-rooted wellness tourism experiences that link wellness with Ayurveda and similar indigenous medicine traditions, yoga, meditation, spirituality and nutrition.[iii]

The Indian state of Kerala was an early pioneer of Ayurveda-based tourism. It branded itself as the "Land of Ayurveda" two decades ago, and now 40 percent of its tourism revenue is generated by Ayurveda-related offers.[iv] Thanks to the rising demand for Ayurveda, yoga and meditation retreats, India ranked seventh as a wellness tourism destination in 2017, with wellness tourism revenues worth USD 16.3 billion and 3.8 million direct jobs (or 14 percent of global employment in wellness tourism).[iii, iv] Similarly, Sri Lanka has successfully promoted wellness tourism with Ayurvedic characteristics, in conjunction with its historical, natural and cultural and culinary offerings.

As a result, there has been a marked increase in the number of hotels and resorts in India and Sri Lanka transforming themselves into Ayurvedic spas and wellness retreats that combine culinary experiences, spa treatments, yoga and meditation. A number of Ayurveda and wellness resorts from India and Sri Lanka (e.g. the Indian Carnoustie Group) are now opening Ayurvedic centres in China.[iii, iv]

The growth of wellness tourism is further supported through public schemes. In 2016, India set up the National Medical and Wellness Tourism Board to provide policy advice to promote these sectors. Instruments that have been developed to support Ayurveda-based wellness tourism include guidelines for quality and training, financial assistance and the promotion of investments in wellness centres catering to tourists (through the country's Market Development Assistance Scheme).

Following India's example, the Government of Sri Lanka has also implemented strategies to promote wellness and Ayurvedic tourism, including economic incentives and simplified project approval procedures for companies investing in wellness-related ventures.[iii, iv] The country has also developed a Wellness Tourism Strategy as part of its National Export Strategy (2018–2022).[v] In addition, the government is exploring the establishment of a national certification system for wellness and Ayurveda service providers, and has established the Sri Lanka Wellness Tourism Association, comprising dozens of stakeholders, including Ayurveda practitioners and many others engaged in wellness tourism-related activities.[iv]

Gastronomy is an integral part of Ayurveda-based tourism experiences, as this tradition attaches notable emotional and spiritual significance to food, in addition to its material and biological attributes. For instance, spices are widely used in Ayurveda to help treat diseases. The consumption of healthy food with an emphasis on local sourcing is an inherent part of wellness-related tourism in Ayurvedic resorts, which create tailor-made diets for detox, weight loss and other health purposes following Ayurvedic principles.

Ayurveda-based tourism experiences in India and Sri Lanka strongly rely on local food and on agricultural heritage that has been passed down from generation to generation. These practices are very much aligned with movements such as farm-to-table and slow food, which are very much in vogue in the agrifood tourism segment.[iv] Ayurveda-based tourism operations have strong backward linkages to local smallholder farmers who cultivate herbs and spices, as well as other agricultural products used in Ayurvedic diets and treatments. Thus, as the demand for Ayurvedic experiences grows, so does the demand for locally produced agrifood products.

The rising demand for Ayurvedic ingredients has also entered the global food culture. Millennials and Generation Z consumers all over the world, who are keen on holistic approaches to their diet, health and wellness, find Ayurvedic principles particularly attractive and try to integrate them in their diets and lifestyles.[vi] As a result, the global demand for some Ayurvedic ingredients, such as ghee, curry leaves, cinnamon and turmeric, supportive herbs and medicinal teas is on the rise. In line with global trends towards vegetarianism and veganism, consumers are also becoming more familiar with Ayurveda's great-tasting vegetarian dishes – illustrating the success of India and Sri Lanka's gastrodiplomacy.

Notes:

i **GWI (Global Wellness Institute).** 2020. Definition of Ayurveda. In: Wellness evidence. Miami, USA. Cited 11 December 2022. https://globalwellnessinstitute.org/wellnessevidence/ayurveda/

ii **Amrutha, C., Meena, S., Sakhitha, S. and Rao, S.** 2021. Gastronomical concepts in Ayurveda: an overview. Journal of Pharmaceutical and Scientific Innovation, 10 (2): pp. 38–42. https://doi.org/10.38-42. 10.7897/2277-4572.102202

iii **GWI.** 2018. Global wellness tourism economy: Asia-Pacific. Miami, USA. https://globalwellnessinstitute.org/industry-research/asia-pacific-wellness-tourism/

iv **ADB.** 2020. Analysis of the global and Asian wellness tourism sector. Mandaluyong, Philippines. www.adb.org/sites/default/files/institutional-document/633886/adou2020bp-global-asian-wellness-tourism.pdf

v **LaingBuisson.** 2020. Plans to regulate wellness tourism in Sri Lanka. In: IMTJ. London. Cited 12 December 2022. www.laingbuissonnews.com/imtj/news-imtj/plans-to-regulate-wellness-tourism-in-sri-lanka/

vi **Prepared Foods.** 2017. Ayurveda influences food culture. Michigan, USA. Cited 27 February 2023. www.preparedfoods.com/articles/120540-ayurveda-influences-food-culture

Healthy (vegetarian) eating plays a key role in wellness tourism experiences in other countries, too. Examples include experiences focused on healthy eating in Viet Nam, and spirituality, meditation and healing offerings in Nepal and Bhutan (Global Wellness Institute, 2018). A particular interesting case is the rapid development of the Chinese wellness tourism sector, which mostly caters to domestic travellers. Many of these tourists are rediscovering their wellness heritage and healing systems such as traditional Chinese medicine, where food and herbal treatments are of paramount importance.

CHAPTER 4: Agricultural tourism

KEY MESSAGES

- Agricultural tourism is a form of tourism whereby tourists and visitors plan their trips partially or entirely in order to carry out activities related to agriculture or enjoy an agricultural setting (UNWTO, 2012).
- Agriculture provides the background for three types of tourism attractions in rural environments: agritourism, agroheritage tourism and community-based tourism.
- Agritourism is the business of making a working farm a travel destination for educational and/or recreational purposes (Hall and Wood, 2020). It offers great potential for diversifying and revitalizing declining rural economies (e.g. income and employment generation, and retail growth), preserving agrarian cultures and preventing rural migration. In 2019, the global agritourism market was valued at USD 42.46 billion, with Asia-Pacific being the fastest-growing market (Allied Market Research, 2021b).
- Agroheritage tourism revolves around sites that are recognized for their valuable heritage associated with agriculture, which relies on various types of ecosystem services used by generations of farmers to perform food security and livelihood functions. Agroheritage is safeguarded at the global level through two main instruments: FAO's GIAHS programme and UNESCO's World Heritage Convention.
- Community-based tourism puts rural communities at the core of agricultural tourism and ecotourism, giving them control over tourism planning and management.

4.1. THE CONCEPT OF AGRICULTURAL TOURISM

Travellers' demand for new experiences focusing on nature, local food products and community engagement is growing, both globally and in the Asia–Pacific region. This trend offers immense opportunities for the economic revitalization of rural areas through agricultural tourism, which can be used as a tool to enhance the attractiveness and competitiveness of destinations away from mainstream tourism circuits, spread the benefits of tourism to rural areas, and reduce seasonality.

Agricultural tourism can be defined as a form of tourism whereby tourists and visitors plan their trips partially or totally in order to carry out activities related to agriculture, including the enjoyment of an agricultural setting (adapted from UNWTO, 2012). Agriculture provides a background for three tourism modalities in rural environments: agritourism, agroheritage tourism and community-based tourism (CBT) (Telfer and Wall, 1996). The lines between these three types of experiences are often blurred, and their defining features can be combined into hybrid experiences.

The background for agritourism experiences is a working farm where visitors can peek into farm life, taste and buy farm produce, and connect with nature. Backgrounds for agroheritage tourism are sites that are renowned for their unique agricultural heritage i.e. remarkable land use systems and landscapes that are rich in biological diversity and have evolved as a result of the interaction of a community with its environment, and its needs and aspirations for sustainable development (FAO, 2023). Backgrounds for community-based tourism are agricultural and natural resources managed by rural and farming communities, with a focus on both the natural environment and community empowerment.

4.2. AGRITOURISM

Agritourism is the business of making a working farm a travel destination for educational and/or recreational purposes (Hall and Wood, 2020). By engaging in a range of activities in the farm environment, visitors become accustomed with the traditions of working the land, raising animals, craftsmanship and processing food, while establishing a direct and emotional contact with nature (Petroman *et al.*, 2016).

The term agritourism is often used interchangeably with farm tourism and farm-based tourism, and is part of agricultural tourism or agrarian tourism. It is also related to rural tourism, nature tourism and heritage tourism (Phillip, Hunted and Blackstock, 2010; UNWTO and Huzhou City, 2017; Rauniyar *et al.*, 2021). However, there is no standard definition of agritourism, and inconsistencies surround the meaning of the term in the literature (Gil Arroyo, Barbieri and Rozier Rich, 2013). For some authors, agritourism can take place only on a farm, while others expand the background to other agricultural settings, such as nurseries or ranches. There are also ambiguities in terms of the authenticity of the agricultural facility or the experience. While some authors consider activities offered on non-working farms as agritourism, this concept is rejected by mainstream academic opinion. Weaver and Fennell (1997, p. 357), for instance, underscore the status of agritourism establishments as rural enterprises that incorporate "both a working farm environment and a commercial tourism component." The absence of a clear definition of what constitutes agritourism may hinder the formulation of effective policies to support the sector, the development of marketing strategies, and efforts towards knowledge building and sharing (Gil Arroyo, Barbieri and Rozier Rich, 2013; Rauniyar *et al.*, 2021).

Agritourism is a very dynamic tourism market. It was valued at USD 42.46 billion globally in 2019, and estimated to reach USD 62.98 billion by 2027, growing at a CAGR of 13.4 percent from 2021 to 2027 (Allied Market Research, 2021b). Other sources value the global agritourism market at USD 69.24 billion in 2019 and project the market to reach USD 117.37 billion by 2027 (Fortune Business Insights, 2020). A more recent report estimates the size of the global agritourism market in 2021 at USD 45.4 billion, and forecasts it to reach USD 141 billion by 2030 (Straits Research, 2022).

The growth of the agritourism market can be attributed in part to the mounting use of the internet and the growing availability of platforms where people can find information and book farmstays. The direct sales channel is gaining significant traction in agritourism, and is estimated to reach USD 21.31 billion by 2027, growing at a CAGR of 14 percent. Europe and the United States of America are expected to be the main markets, although Asia and the Pacific will be the fastest-growing region in the coming years (Allied Market Research, 2021b).

Types of agritourism activities

Agritourism farms can offer different services, including *inter alia* accommodation and meals, on-farm sales, agritainment (agriculture as a type of entertainment), and recreational and educational activities.

Accommodation can be offered in the farmhouse where the farm family lives, in separate buildings (e.g. old farm buildings converted into guest houses), in a tree house or on a campsite on the farm, among other possibilities. Of all agritourism activities, the accommodation segment is estimated to grow fastest, registering a CAGR of 18 percent from 2021 until 2027 (Allied Market Research, 2021b).

Examples of agritainment activities include pick-your-own fruits and vegetables, farm tours, on-site farmers' markets, festivals and fairs, interactive animal displays, farm cooking contests and on-site processing demonstrations, among others (McGehee, 2004). Outdoor recreation can involve a panoply of different activities such as picnicking, swimming, hunting, fishing, photography, horseback riding and biking (University of California, 2022).

Educational activities can range from half-day classes, field days, tours or short-term workshops to long-term, accredited courses (Petroman *et al.*, 2016), sometimes sponsored by producer organizations or government entities. Agritourism centres can offer specific educational activities targeted at students of tourism and agronomy, as well as school students as part of field trips or summer camps. A farm visit can allow young students to better understand the ways in which farms operate, their relationship with the foods they eat, seasonality, the concept of food miles, rural living, etc. Agritourism farms can also welcome interns or apprentices and charge tuition for the learning opportunity. For example, some farms offer classes in arranging flowers, cooking or making herbal medicines (Mahaliyanaarachchi, 2015). The educational tourism segment, which was valued at USD 2.76 billion in 2019, is expected to experience significant growth, registering a CAGR of 14.9 percent from 2021 to 2027 to reach USD 4.55 billion by 2027 (Allied Market Research, 2021b).

Agritourism establishments may offer a combination of all or some of the previously mentioned activities (Sznajder, Przezbórska and Scrimgeour, 2009). For instance, Choo and Park (2020) found that in the Republic of Korea, more than one-third of agritourism farms offered experiences that combined accommodation and gastronomic and educational activities, whereas 56.1 percent of all establishments surveyed were dedicated exclusively to educational programmes. The specific offering of a farm depends on that farm's resources (e.g. its food production, buildings, landscape or water supplies), as well as on the tourism demand in the area, the distance to main markets and other factors.

The type of activities offered in a region typically reflect the agricultural endowments of that region. In the Lao People's Democratic Republic, agritourism activities in the northwest focus on the production of mountain rice, livestock, forest foods and medicinal herbs, while those in the central region tend to revolve around traditional weaving and rice paddies. In the south, visitors flock to the Bolaven Plateau and large coffee plantations to experience the planting and picking of coffee beans (ADB, 2021a).

Phillip, Hunted and Blackstock (2010) distinguish three types of agritourism activities depending on the degree of contact with agricultural activities: direct contact, indirect contact and passive contact. Agritourism experiences that involve direct contact with agricultural activities include, for example, milking cows and picking fruits. Agritourism experiences can also provide indirect contact or a secondary connection to agricultural activities in the sense that agrifood products, as opposed to the agricultural activities themselves, feature in the tourism product. Indirect contact can take the form of the purchasing

or consumption of the farm produce in on-farm shops or restaurants, or assisting at on-site demonstrations of the processing of farm produce (e.g butter- or winemaking). Passive contact is provided by agritourism experiences that take place at the farm but have no connection with farming (e.g. outdoor activities such as fishing or hunting).

Agritourism activities can be incorporated in farm operations in different manners (Di Domenico and Miller, 2007). In the most basic form, the timing of farming and tourism activities can be aligned (e.g. to allow visitors to be present at feeding times). More complex interactions involve investing in purpose-built agricultural attractions such as agricultural museums and petting and feeding zoos.

Pezzi, Faggian and Reid (2020) argue that agritourism offerings are showing ever higher degrees of innovation, not only in terms of the technology used (e.g. digital technology) but also in the types of food produced and the organizational structures adopted (e.g. cooperatives and community enterprises). In addition, agritourism offerings are paying greater attention to sustainability.

Development of agritourism across the Asia–Pacific region

Asia and the Pacific have witnessed a remarkable growth in the agritourism market over the past years, and the region is expected to be the fastest-growing region globally in the coming years. It is blessed with suitable agriculture climatic conditions, a plethora of working farms, agroheritage sites and adequate rural resources, all of which provide a fertile ground for the development of agritourism. These assets, together with a focus on clean or organic production and the smart use of social media, will provide a crucial basis for the successful development of agritourism in the region (Chen *et al.*, 2020).

Agritourism is developed unevenly across the region (Choo and Jamal, 2009). In most countries in Asia and the Pacific, governments and cooperatives are the main sources of investment; private investments predominate only in the most advanced economies.

Agritourism offers are widely spread in Japan (Ohe, 2008, 2017; Daigaku and Nohguchi, 2019) and the Republic of Korea (Choo and Park, 2020). In Japan, domestic tourists – and a growing number of international visitors – are keen on experiencing traditional Japanese life and interact with rural people though farmstays, known as nohaku in Japanese. There is a vast array of lodging options available, including farmhouses and old residential properties in agricultural, mountain or fishing villages across the country (Japan National Tourism Organization, 2020). The situation in the Republic of Korea is fairly similar (Choo and Park, 2020). So far, the bulk of the demand for agritourism in both countries is for educational purposes, but the demand from individual tourists and for corporate training purposes is increasing (Daigaku and Nohguchi, 2019; Choo and Park, 2020).

China has also experienced an increase in the number of farms pursuing agritourism over the past decades (Yang, 2012). This growth is driven by domestic visitors that experience nostalgia for rural life, traditional food and nature, as exemplified by the nongjiale (''happy farm'') movement (see Box 12).

BOX 12

Nostalgia-driven agritourism in China: the nongjiale or "happy farm" movement

Nostalgia for rural life drives the development of the agritourism sector in China, which in 2014 generated a turnover exceeding USD 55.72 billion, benefitting 5.3 million farmers.[i] An average 300 million (mostly domestic) visitors enjoy agritourism activities in China every year.[ii]

As urban populations lose touch with their rural roots, there is a growing nostalgia for rural lifestyles and a concern about communities losing their social coherence and viability.[iii] There is a sense that more traditional cultures hold valuable teachings about health and well-being. In China, this trend is driving the nongjiale movement, whereby rural families host urbanite guests in farm guesthouses and provide them with local food.

The first nongjiale gueshouses appeared in Chengdu, Sichuan Province, in the early 1980s. Nongjiale farm guesthouses originally opened in the vicinity of big cities, but the phenomenon has now spread to remoter areas, including in ethnic regions and mountain areas.

Nongjiale farms are seen as family-oriented, authentic, eco-friendly, healthy and traditional.[iv] They typically offer local food that is seen as a symbol of rurality, rusticity and authenticity, and has become a core selling point for attracting urban visitors.[iv] Since the initial stages, the range of services offered by nongjiale farms has evolved from the provision of simple board and lodging to more specialized leisure services, such as rafting, fishing, fruitpicking and the sale of farm products.[v]

Agritourism has especially taken hold in the province of Yunnan. Although it is one of the less-developed provinces in the country, Yunnan is endowed with a unique landscape, abundant natural resources and diverse ethnic groups with rich cultural heritage.[vi] In the late 1980s, agritourism was promoted in Yunnan as a new regional development and poverty alleviation tool, and a major complement to agriculture.[v] Thanks to government subsidies and incentives to spur the development of agritourism, coupled with improvements in roads, service quality and tourist facilities, a considerable number of nongjiale farms were established in Yunnan. These farms are concentrated in Tuanjie township, which in 2004 was awarded the title of "Excellent Model of Agritourism" by the China National Tourism Administration.[vii] Tuanjie consists of 119 villages, including the village of Longtan, which has become the main agritourism destination in the area due to its rich resources, beautiful scenery, and its proximity to Kunming City. A study by Yang (2012) found that nongjiale operators in the area earned 20 to 100 percent more than the average household in the township, and that women appeared to be particularly active in this type of business, both as operators and as employees.

Notes:

i **Jiang, Y., Wang, S. and Chung-Chou, T.** 2016. Study on the consumption of agritourism in China. DEStech Transactions on Engineering and Technology Research, November 2016. https://doi.org/10.12783/dtetr/ssme-ist2016/3903

ii **Rauniyar, S., Awasthi, M. K., Kapoor, S., and Mishra, A. K.** 2021. Agritourism: structured literature review and bibliometric analysis. Tourism Recreation Research, 46(1): 52–70. https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2020.1753913

iii **UNWTO.** 2020a. International tourism highlights. 2020 edition. Madrid. www.e-unwto.org/doi/epdf/10.18111/9789284422456

iv **Park, C.H.** 2014. Nongjiale tourism and contested space in rural China. Modern China, 40(5): 519–548.

v **Yang, L.** 2012. Impacts and challenges in agritourism development in Yunnan, China. Tourism Planning and Development, 9(4): 369–381. https://doi.org/10.1080/21568316.2012.726257

vi **Gao, S., Huang, S. and Huang, Y.** 2009. Rural tourism development in China. International Journal of Tourism Research, 11(5): 43950. https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.712

vii **Yang, M. and Luo, J.** 2006. Survey and research on the rural ecotourism of Tuanjie Village in Kunming City. Tourism Tribune, 21(2): 51–5.

Other countries in the region that have made significant strides towards the development of agritourism are India, the Philippines and Thailand. In India, agritourism is fairly developed in the State of Maharashtra thanks to the efforts of the Agri Tourism Development Corporation, a private corporation that piloted the concept of agritourism in 2005 near the city of Pune. Nowadays, there are over 300 agritourism farms across the state (FAO, 2019a). The Agri Tourism Development Corporation provides an umbrella booking platform and conducts training and research programmes to enable smallholders to manage agritourism operations on their farms (Srivastana, 2016).

Agritourism has not spread much beyond the state of Maharashtra (Chatterjee and Prasad, 2019). Some slow growth has been observed in Karnataka (Hamilpurkar, 2012), Haryana (Kumar *et al.*, 2010), Punjab (Pinky and Kaur, 2014) and Rajasthan (Srivastava, 2016; Kotharia and Perwejs, 2021). Despite this uneven uptake, revenue from agritourism activities in India grew at a CAGR of 20 percent in 2019 (Rauniyar *et al.*, 2021). There remains much scope for further developing agritourism in the country, particularly in other predominantly agricultural states such as Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and Andhra Pradesh.

The Philippines adopted the agritourism model in the 1990s to promote rural development. In December 2021, there were 239 accredited agritourism farms in the country, most of which were situated in the area of Luzon, the Philippines' largest island in the northern part. There are also accredited agritourism establishments in the regions of Western Visayas and Ilocos.[55]

Agritourism in the Philippines is currently oriented towards the domestic market. While there is little mention of farmstays on official tourism promotion websites,[56] national news regularly features urban dwellers visiting agritourism sites as a weekend get-away activity. For example, Costales Nature Farms – the country's first accredited agritourism farm – hosts 3 000 to 4 000 visitors a month, 95 percent of whom are local tourists (Rodriguez, 2018). Agritourism operations mainly target schoolchildren. Government agencies are important clients too, especially for those farms that have conference facilities (Montefrio and Sin, 2021).

Thailand has also made remarkable progress towards the development of agritourism, which is recognized as a pathway to farm business development (Ismail and Chansawang, 2018) (see Box 13).

BOX 13

Development of agritourism in Thailand

There are several studies documenting agritourism development in Thailand. Prayukvong, Huttasin and Foster (2015) found that the agritourism sector in Thailand is oriented predominantly towards the domestic market: in 2015, 95.2 percent of all agritourists were domestic visitors, while only 4.8 percent were international travellers. They also noted that 37 percent of agritourism revenues were generated by the provision of tourism services and 63 percent by the sale of agricultural products.[i]

Srisomyong and Meyer (2015) analyse the agritourism market and supporting policies in two predominantly agricultural provinces, Rayong and Samut Songkhram, east of Bangkok. The agritourism experiences offered in each province were found to reflect local heritage and natural resources. In Rayong, activities focus on visiting paddy fields, orchards and rubber plantations and participating in farm activities such as ploughing paddy fields with water buffalos and harvesting fruits. In Samut Songkhram, agritourism operators provide experiences such as picking fruits in orchards, visiting salt fields, harvesting cockles and oysters, and watching fireflies at night. The agritourism establishments surveyed in the study highlighted that the new tourism activities resulted in a revalorization of former agricultural resources such as

55 For an updated list of officially accredited tourist enterprises in the Philippines, see https://philippines.travel/accreditation

56 Examples of international tourism promotion websites include www.morefunphilippines.de/tour-ideen/naturwunder-auf-den-philippinen and https://itsmorefuninthephilippines.co.uk/destinations/

barns, houses, land and woods. The authors underscore, however, that the increase in the value of these resources may incite new groups of actors to capture and exploit them, with benefits distributed unequally.[ii]

Slocum and Curtis (2018) document the case of rice-based agritourism in Phrao, a small town in Chiang Mai Province in the north. This region, formerly known as the Lanna Kingdom (meaning "one million rice fields"), produces some of the best jasmine rice in the country, and its economy pivots around rice, even today. The authors discuss the example of an agritourism operation that specializes in offering tourists a range of activities focused on rice production, preparation and consumption over two or three days. The operation has an on-site museum on the history of Thai rice, the different species and properties of rice in the region, and tools and equipment used in the rice fields. Guests can take a bike ride along the paddy fields and are encouraged to go into the paddies and work alongside local farmers to learn how rice is cultivated. They can also visit the nearby market where rice is sold and a local shop selling rice seeds, fertilizer and farm tools, where the owner tells them about the history of rice cultivation in the area. The experience is completed with a cooking class in a culinary school, where visitors learn to prepare traditional rice dishes, including steamed rice, rice noodles, rice paper wraps and rice desserts.[iii]

Choenkwan *et al*. (2016) discuss the development of agritourism in the district of Phu Ruea (Loei Province), which has been a popular tourist destination in the mountains of northeast Thailand since the establishment of the homonymous national park in 1979. The district is well known for growing ornamental plants and shiitake mushrooms, as well as for being the site of the country's first large vineyard and winery.[iv]

Agritourism in Phu Ruea generated a gross income of almost USD 16 million in 2014. About 80 percent of this income came from sales by specialty crop farms and from the provision of tourism services by local farming households. The system employed 1 500 people directly, 90 percent of whom were members of farming households who derived significant benefits from their involvement in the agritourism system.[iv]

In addition to engaging in agritourism, farming households supplied produce to three large resorts, 47 small resorts and hotels, and seven large restaurants that catered to tourists visiting the district. Most of these enterprises are owned and operated by local businesspeople; they employ many members of local farming households as maids, waiters, gardeners and receptionists.[iv]

Notes:

i **Prayukvong, W., Huttasin, N. and Foster, M.J.** 2015. Buddhist economics meets agritourism on the Thai farm. International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research, 9(2): 183–199. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCTHR-08-2014-0065

ii **Srisomyong, N. and Meyer, D.** 2015. Political economy of agritourism initiatives in Thailand. Journal of Rural Studies, 41: 95–108. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrurstud.2015.07.007

iii **Slocum, S.L. and Curtis, K.R.** 2018. Food and agricultural tourism: theory and best practice. New York, USA, Routledge.

iv **Choenkwan, S., Promkhambut, A., Hayao, F. and Rambo, A.T.** 2016. Does agrotourism benefit mountain farmers? A case study in Phu Ruea District, Northeast Thailand. Mountain Research and Development, 36(2): 162–172. http://dx.doi.org/10.1659/MRD-JOURNAL-D-15-00111.1

Despite its great potential, agritourism is still developing in Indonesia, mostly in Bali (Budiasa and Ambarawati, 2014), almost inexistent in Nepal (Bhatta, 2020) and in its nascent stage in other countries in the region such as the Lao People's Democratic Republic (ADB, 2021a) and Viet Nam (Hau and Tuan, 2017; Ha and Mohanty, 2021), where it has developed in parallel with community-based tourism and ecotourism. Thus, there is still ample room to support the development of agritourism in the region, especially when considering the benefits that this form of tourism may offer (see Section 5.4).

4.3. AGROHERITAGE TOURISM

Agroheritage tourism attracts visitors to sites renowned for their agriculture-related heritage, which is broadly defined to include both animal and plant farming (including horticulture and forestry). Such heritage relies on various types of ecosystem services that have been used by generations of farmers to perform specific functions for their food security and livelihoods.

Heritage sites of agricultural, pastoral or silvicultural value at a global level are safeguarded through two main instruments: FAO's GIAHS programme and UNESCO's World Heritage Convention.[57]

FAO's Globally Important Agricultural Heritage Systems sites

Globally Important Agricultural Heritage Systems (GIAHS) sites are landscapes of outstanding aesthetic beauty that combine agricultural biodiversity, resilient ecosystems and a valuable cultural heritage. Located around the world, they sustainably provide multiple goods and services, thus guaranteeing food and livelihood security for millions of farmers. GIAHS sites constitute living, evolving systems of human communities in an intricate relationship with their territory, cultural or agricultural landscape or biophysical and wider social environment (FAO, 2020a).

FAO launched the GIAHS Programme in 2002 to strike a balance between conservation, sustainable adaptation and socioeconomic development. The GIAHS programme helps identify ways to mitigate the threats faced by farmers and enhance the benefits derived from agricultural heritage systems, involving all stakeholders concerned. More specifically, the GIAHS approach aims to provide technical assistance, boost awareness of the importance of preserving sustainable agricultural knowledge, and develop agricultural production, agricultural tourism and other market opportunities.

There are currently 62 GIAHS sites in 22 countries. The majority of these GIAHS sites are in the Asia–Pacific region: 40 sites in eight countries and one territory. Most sites are located in China (15), followed by Japan (11) and the Republic of Korea (5).[58] China has transposed the GIAHS model to the national level by launching, in March 2012, the China Nationally Important Agricultural Heritage Systems programme, under the aegis of the Chinese Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs (Jiao and Min, 2017).

The central element of FAO's GIAHS programme is the characterization of what constitutes unique agricultural heritage that is worth preserving. GIAHS sites feature ancestral agricultural systems whose cultural, ecological and agricultural diversity is still evident and may constitute a foundation for agricultural innovation, today and in the future. Furthermore, the picturesque landscapes or seascapes that characterize GIAHS sites have the potential to become extraordinary tourism attractions. Box 14 provides a glimpse into what renders some GIAHS sites in the Asia–Pacific region unique.

57 UNESCO conventions related to agricultural heritage include the World Heritage Convention (1972) and the Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage (2003). In addition, UNESCO's Local and Indigenous Knowledge Systems or LINKS programme promotes local and indigenous knowledge and its inclusion in global climate science and policy processes.

58 For an updated list of GIAHS sites, see www.fao.org/giahs/giahsaroundtheworld

BOX 14

The value of unique agricultural heritage: examples of GIAHS sites in Asia and the Pacific

The Dong's rice–fish–duck system in Guizhou, China

Guizhou Province in southern China is home to the rice–fish–duck agroecosystem of the Dong people, an ethnic group using farming practices that have been handed down from generation to generation. The Dong simultaneously grow rice and rear fish and ducks in paddies, thus creating a virtuous ecocycle in which many traditional methods of farming and folk customs are embedded.

Most of the food consumed by the Dong people comes from their rice–fish–duck paddy fields. Over a hundred kinds of edible plants (including fern, bamboo shoots, funghi, taro, lotus root, water celery and plantain) co-exist with the rice. Aquatic animals such as snails, eel and loach fish are also eaten, providing high-quality protein.[i] The rice–fish–duck system relieves tensions between humans and nature and saves land resources, which is important in areas where arable land is scarce, such as Congjiang County.

In 2011, this unique agroheritage system, covering 7 685 ha of land in mountaineous areas in Congjiang County and Liping County, Guizhou Province, was included in FAO's list of GIAHS.[ii] The scenic landscapes in which this agroecosystem is located, together with the cultural heritage of the Dong people, create outstanding conditions for attracting tourists.[iii]

Rice terraces in mountainous and hilly areas of southern China

In 2018, rice terrace systems in four sites in subtropical provinces of southern China were included in FAO's GIAHS list. The terrace systems include the Chongyi Hakka terraces (in Jiangxi Province), the Longsheng Longji terraces (Guagnxi), the Xinhua Ziquejie terraces (Hunan) and the Youxi Lianhe terraces (Fujian). On these terraces, local farmers still cultivate traditional rice varieties that are renowned for their high quality and excellent nutritional value.[iv]

The rice terraces located in Longsheng County were built at least 2 300 years ago and are known as longji (meaning "dragon's backbone"). This name is derived from the dragon scale-like appearance of the terraces, while the summit of the mountain range resembles the backbone of the dragon. This GIAHS site, which was recognized as a China Nationally Important Agricultural Heritage System in 2014, covers an area of about 238 km2 and is home to about 16 000 people of the Han, Miao, Dong, Yao and Zhuang ethnic communities.[iv]

The Minabe–Tanabe ume system, Japan

The Minabe–Tanabe ume system is a sustainable agricultural system that produces high-quality ume or Japanese plums (which are actually more closely related to apricots). Pickled ume, called umeboshi, have been consumed as both a food (as a side dish) and a medicine in Japan for over 1 300 years.[v] The GIAHS site encompasses the towns of Minabe and Tanabe, situated in the southwestern part of Japan, with an estimated population of 87 500 in 2015.[vi] Farmers plant ume trees on steep slopes with nutrient-poor soils that cannot not be used for other agricultural purposes, and maintain coppice forests near ume orchards and along the ridges of steep slopes. By doing so, they contribute to the conservation of watersheds, the replenishment of nutrients in the soil and the prevention of slope collapse. Furthermore, the coppice forests host honeybees that help pollinate the ume trees (the ume is an early spring bloomer that provides nectar for the bees when not many other flowers are in bloom).[v]

In 2015, the Minabe–Tanabe ume agroheritage system was recognized as a GIAHS. The area, covering 4 180 ha,[vii] is cultivated by around 3 300 farming households.[viii] The site produces 16 ume varieties that are unique to the area and are the result of continuous efforts of local people and farmers. The picturesque landscape associated with this sustainable agriculture system not only produces high-quality ume and umeboshi, but also creates opportunities to attract tourists to the site.

Traditional gudeuljang irrigated rice terraces, Republic of Korea

These rice terraces, built between the sixteenth and mid-twentieth century on Cheongsando Island, received GIAHS recognition in 2014. The residents of the island constructed these unique rice paddies using the so-called gudeuljangnon system (gudeuljang means "stone layers" in Korean, while non means "rice fields"): building culverts by stacking stones to form aqueducts in underground irrigation and drainage systems. This technique combines soil and water management to engineer the natural environment in disadvantageous areas. It maximizes the usable area of the land by constructing paddies on stacked rocks of various sizes, red mud and arable soil. The gudeuljangnon system allows farmers to easily convert their paddies into dry lands to cultivate other crops in case of drought. This unique way of farming is part of a rich local culture including typical cuisine, religious traditions and songs related to agriculture. Sustainable tourism that builds on the GIAHS programme could be a means to preserve this unique water network, despite the increasing urbanization of the island and the decrease in the number of youths practising agriculture.[v]

Sri Lanka's cascaded tank–village system

The cascaded tank–village system in dry zones in Sri Lanka achieved GIAHS recognition in 2017. It is an ancient and unique traditional agricultural system that provides water for irrigation, domestic purposes and watering animals and ecosystems. Dating back nearly two millennia, this widely-used system consists of a series of connected tanks that store and convey water from an ephemeral rivulet within a microcatchment of Sri Lanka's dry zone landscape. Among the many beneficial characteristics of this system are its expansive coverage, the use of sustainable technology, its contribution to biodiversity, and its resilience to natural disasters (such as droughts, floods and cyclones) and human-made disasters (such as external invasions and civil war).[v]

Notes:

i **FAO.** 2022a. Dong's rice fish duck system, China. In: GIAHS around the world. Rome. Cited 15 December 2022. www.fao.org giahs/giahsaroundtheworld/designated-sites/asia-and-the-pacific/dongs-rice-fish-duck-system/detailed-information/en/

ii **Li, Y.J., Yu, H., Chen, T., Hu, J. and Cui, H.Y.** 2016. Livelihood changes and evolution of upland ethnic communities driven by tourism: a case study in Guizhou Province, southwest China. Journal of Mountain Science, 13(7): 1313–1332.

iii **Yu, X., Mingju, E., Sun, M., Xue, Z., Lu, X., Jiang, M. and Zou, Y.** 2018. Wetland recreational agriculture: balancing wetland conservation and agro-development. Environmental Science and Policy, 87: 11–17. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsci.2018.05.015

iv **FAO.** 2018a. Rice terraces in southern mountainous and hilly areas, China. In: GIAHS around the world. Rome. Cited 15 December 2022. www.fao.org/giahs/giahsaroundtheworld/designated-sites/asia-and-the-pacific/rice-terraces-systems-in-subtropical-china/detailed-information/en/

v **FAO.** 2018b. Globally Important Agricultural Heritage Systems: combining agricultural biodiversity, resilient ecosystems, traditional farming practices and cultural identity. Rome. www.fao.org/3/i9187en/I9187EN.pdf

vi **Japan, National Statistics Center.** N.d. View data (municipality data). In: System of Social and Demographic Statistics (SSDS). Tokyo. Cited 15 December 2022. www.e-stat.go.jp/en/regional-statistics/ssdsview/municipality

vii **Minabe–Tanabe Regional Association for GIAHS Promotion.** 2022. Minabe–Tanabe ume system. In: GIAHS ume system. Minabe and Tanabe, Japan. Cited 15 December 2022. www.giahs-minabetanabe.jp/en/ume-system/

viii **FAO.** N.d. Globally Important Agricultural Heritage Systems (GIAHS) application. Minabe-Tanabe ume system. Rome. Cited 15 December 2022. www.fao.org/3/bp806e/bp806e.pdf

UNESCO's World Heritage Sites

UNESCO's Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage (World Heritage Convention, for short) is a remarkable international instrument to protect and preserve cultural and natural heritage deemed of outstanding universal value around the world. In January 2022, there were 1 154 sites on the World Heritage List, a fourth of which were located in Asia and the Pacific.

The list includes natural heritage sites considered exceptional based on their outstanding biodiversity, ecosystems, geology or superb natural phenomena. At the end of 2021, 257 natural terrestrial and marine sites (including 39 mixed sites) in 110 countries were included in the list. The list of natural World Heritage sites in Asia and the Pacific is spearheaded by China with 18 sites, followed by India (eight sites), Japan (five sites), Indonesia (four sites), the Philippines, Thailand and Viet Nam (three sites each), Malaysia, Nepal, the Republic of Korea and Sri Lanka (two sites each), and Bangladesh, Kiribati, Palau and Solomon Islands (one site each).[59]

One of the criteria for awarding this recognition to a natural site is its endowment with biological resources, which includes many factors relevant to agriculture in its broad sense (crop production, fishing and aquaculture, livestock farming, subsistence and commercial harvesting of wild plants, forestry, etc.). The bulk of the registered natural sites are protected terrestrial and marine parks, while several sites involve the conservation of unique mountain heritage.[60]

UNESCO's World Heritage List also includes 119 cultural landscapes, which are sites that embrace a diversity of manifestations of the interaction between humankind and its natural environment (UNESCO, 2022a). Cultural landscapes often reflect traditional techniques of sustainable land use that support biological diversity. Examples of Asian-Pacific cultural landscapes registered as UNESCO World Heritage sites include the rice terraces of the Philippine Cordilleras, China's Honghe Hani rice terraces and the Subak traditional irrigation system in Indonesia (see Box 15).[61]

59 For the updated World Heritage List, see https://whc.unesco.org/en/natural-world-heritage/
60 See Romeo *et al.* (2021) on mountain tourism.
61 For an updated list of these recognized cultural landscapes, see https://whc.unesco.org/en/culturallandscape/

BOX 15

UNESCO's cultural landscapes: rice terraces in Asia

The northern island of Luzon, in the Philippine archipelago, hosts the **rice terraces of the Philippine Cordillera mountain range**. Inscribed on the World Heritage list in 1995, these terraces are a living cultural landscape of unparalleled beauty developed by the Ifugao ethnic group over two millennia. The Ifugao rice terraces are the product of the blending of the physical, cultural, socioeconomic, political and religious environment. These terraces are a masterpiece of engineering, and reach a higher altitude and are built on steeper slopes than many other types of terraces. The Ifugao people have carved the natural contours of hills and mountains to create stone terraces and ponds, and build intricate irrigation systems that harvest water from the forests on the mountain tops. The Ifugao have also developed a complex farming system based on detailed knowledge of agrobiodiversity, lunar cycles, soil conservation techniques and zoning and planning, and incorporating an elaborate pest control method that uses local herbs and religious rituals.

Only five clusters of the most intact and impressive terraces were inscribed as a UNESCO site (the Nagacadan, Hungduan, Mayoyao, Bangaan and Batad terrace clusters). Whereas other nearby terraces have been abandoned or have temporarily fallen out of use due to changes in climate and rainfall patterns, the inscribed terrace clusters continue to be worked in the traditional manner, mainly using a communal system of rice production.

Tourism is unevenly distributed in the area, with the town of Banaue, some 300 km north of Manila and home of the Bangaan and Batad rice terraces, emerging as the main tourist centre. Meanwhile, tourism is barely starting in the other heritage areas in the municipalities of Kiangan, Hungduan and Mayoyao. Some incipient forms of community-based tourism are being developed in the municipality of Kiangan, where visitors stay with a family for a fee (homestays) and cycle around the rice fields and join farmers in field activities, such as weeding, ploughing or transplanting rice seedlings.[i]

Another UNESCO-protected cultural landscape is the so-called **subak system in Bali, Indonesia**, which integrates rice farming and temple culture. The subak system is a traditional irrigation system for paddy fields that can be traced back to the ninth century. Fresh water from springs and rivers flows through the temples and out onto the rice paddy fields, enabling the miracle of this crop, which the Balinese consider a gift from the gods on a rugged, volcanic, densely populated island.

Inscribed on UNESCO's World Heritage list in 2012, the site encompasses five rice terraces and their water temples, covering a total 19 500 hectares. Subaks are an example of cooperative water management, distribution and supply systems with attention to social welfare and based on democratic and egalitarian farming practices. The subak system embodies the Balinese philosophy of Tri Hita Karana (translated loosely as "the three paths to prosperity"), which brings together the realms of the spirit, humankind and nature. The unique beauty of rice terraces shaped by the subak tradition and the Tri Hita Karana philosophy, coupled with the UNESCO recognition, have boosted the development of the tourism sector in the region, and organized tours and visits have increased.[ii]

In 2013, the **Honghe Hani rice terraces in Yunnan (China)**, were inscribed on the list of UNESCO World Heritage sites. Carved out in densely forested areas over the past 1 300 years by the Hani people, the irrigated terraces support paddy fields overlooking narrow valleys. In some

places, as many as 3 000 rice terraces cascade down the slopes of the Ailao Mountains to the banks of the Hong River. The Hani people, who live in their traditional thatched "mushroom" houses in over 80 villages, have built a complex system of channels to bring water from the mountaintop forests to the terraced rice fields. They have also created a unique integrated farming system involving buffalos, cattle, ducks, fish and eels, which supports the production of their primary product, red rice.

The resulting water and land management systems, spreading over 16 603 hectares, reflect the extraordinary harmony between the Hani people and their environment, both aesthetically and ecologically. Underpinning this system are long-standing traditional social and religious structures based on dual interdependence, both between the individual and the community, and between humans and gods (the Hani worship the sun, moon, rivers, mountains, forests and other natural phenomena).[iii]

Honghe has become a major domestic and international tourism destination that revolves around the scenic beauty of the terraced fields set amid a sea of clouds. As tourism grew, viewing platforms were built in popular terrace viewing spots, terraced fields sightseeing and photographic tours were developed, and villagers started staging ethnic performances.[iv]

Notes:

i **Dulnuan, E.** 2014. The Ifugao rice terraces tourism: status, problems and concerns. IAMURE International Journal of Ecology and Conservation, 10(1).

ii **UNESCO.** 2022b. Cultural landscape of Bali Province: the Subak system as a manifestation of the Tri Hita Karana philosophy. In: The list. Paris. Cited 17 December 2022. https://whc.unesco.org/en/list/1194/

iii **UNESCO.** 2022c. Cultural landscape of Honghe Hani rice terraces. In: The list. Paris. Cited 17 December 2022. https://whc.unesco.org/en/list/1111

iv **Wang, Z. and Marafa, L.** 2021. Tourism imaginary and landscape at heritage site: a case in Honghe Hani rice terraces, China. Land, 10(4): 439. https://doi.org/10.3390/land10040439

4.4. COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM WITH A FOCUS ON AGRICULTURE-RELATED EXPERIENCES

Community-based approaches to tourism are:

> [activities that are] managed and owned by the community, for the community, with the purpose of enabling visitors to increase their awareness and learn about community and local ways of life (George, Nedelea and Antony, 2007, p. 1).

Community participation is one of the keys to the sustainability of community-based tourism (CBT). It refers to recognizing local people as essential stakeholders in tourism development and giving them control over tourism planning and management. Importantly, CBT also focuses on marginalized groups and "works towards the shift of control, ownership and management within the tourism sector in favour of the excluded, marginalised and poor" (Saayman and Giampiccoli, 2016, p. 179).

This community-based approach can be applied to all forms of tourism related to agriculture (i.e. agricultural tourism) and nature (i.e. ecotourism). CBT promotes an "intercultural dialogue between host and guest, the exchange of information and [connected] activities" (UNWTO, 2016, p. 72), which is particularly relevant for agricultural tourism. In rural communities, tourists can learn about the farming methods employed by the locals and taste food prepared with fresh local ingredients. By experiencing

the relationship between agriculture and cuisine in a rural community setting, tourists are provided with a starting point for the exploration of a culture.

The analysis of community-based ecotourism that follows is limited to activities with a clear link with agriculture, thus excluding other common ecotourism experiences such as hiking, the observation of astronomical phenomena, photo safaris or the observation or rescue of flora and fauna. As the emphasis is on the community, there is some overlap with agritourism. Yet, CBT's growth in the region, both in numbers and in recognition, makes it worthy of an independent analysis.

"Well-managed, community-based tourism increases and diversifies household incomes, enhances job and livelihood opportunities, supports traditional systems, builds resilience and helps to conserve and promote natural and cultural heritage across landscapes."

UNWTO Secretary-General Zurab Pololikashvili, speaking on the occasion of International Mountain Day 2021 (UNWTO, 2021b)

Types of community-based tourism activities

While destinations and local cultures may be different, the key concept of CBT is fairly consistent: local communities take the lead in the planning, managing and operation of tourism products and services designed to immerse visitors in the local lifestyle and culture. CBT experiences typically include the provision of accommodation and meals, educational activities and activities focusing on environmental conservation.

Accommodation usually takes the form of a homestay with members of the local community. Simple accommodation is offered in rural hamlets or villages where the guest is integrated into the rural community and given the opportunity to participate in the daily life of the farm or village (UNWTO, 2020a). In Mongolia, for instance, visitors stay with nomadic communities in traditional yurts and participate in daily activities, such as travelling in open pastures (ADB, 2020c). Living with a local family means learning about their customs of eating, sleeping, etiquette and hygiene, as well as spiritual and religious beliefs, kinship, gender roles and relations, language and local history.

The provision of meals is an instrumental part of CBT ventures, reflecting local food production, preparation and consumption practices. In addition to being a medium to explore the local culture, food is a source of income and an opportunity for livelihood diversification for local communities in CBT contexts. Studies by Siphannara (2019) and Lyttleton and Allcock (2002) demonstrate that selling and cooking food and beverages constitutes the main source of revenue in CBT endeavours. Lyttleton and Allcock (2002), for instance, analyse income sources from ecotourism in two villages in the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Nammat Mai and Nammat Kao. The revenues generated by selling and cooking food accounted for 76 and 82 percent of the total profits derived from ecotourism, respectively. Additionally, a study conducted by Amir *et al*. (2017) on CBT in Melaka (Indonesia) revealed that food and beverage consumption accounted for approximately one-third of all expenditures by visitors (excluding other food-related activities).

Examples of educational activities include interacting with elders or other locals, or participating in livelihood activities and community events. Many of these educational activities revolve around food or local production and consumption practices, from the farm (e.g. working in the fields, fishing with local fishers and visiting farms) to the fork (eating and dining experiences). Educational activities around food and cuisine represent one of the major channels for visitors to experience a deeper understanding of the local community (Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019).

Nature conservation activities are becoming increasingly common (Thailand Community-based Tourism Institute, 2013), as visitors to CBT projects increasingly prioritize immersion in nature (Walter, 2016). Tourists

look for activities that allow them to interact directly with local communities in activities that focus on the local environment, such as planting trees, working in the field and gathering wild plants. Thus, tourists' awareness about biodiversity, the environment and community development contributes to the well-being of the community. In turn, the host community not only provides visitors with authentic local experiences and healthy and nutritious local food, but also protects the environment and promotes biodiversity by using indigenous ingredients and sustainable farming systems (Giampiccoli, Mnguni and Dłużewska, 2020).

The development of community-based tourism across Asia and the Pacific

CBT has emerged over the last two decades in Asia and the Pacific, providing many opportunities but also creating challenges. As explained earlier, the overarching objectives of the nurturing of CBT by countries in the region are to minimize migration from rural to urban areas, create employment opportunities for rural youth, ethnic minorities, women and marginalized groups, alleviate poverty and preserve culture and heritage (UNWTO, 2017b). While the level of priority accorded to the development of CBT varies from country to country, its potential as a means of diversification of the tourism industry is widely acknowledged.

For China, one of the most appealing elements of this form of tourism for national and regional governments is its potential for poverty alleviation. In 2015, the China National Tourism Administration and the State Council Leading Group Office of Poverty Alleviation and Development started to promote rural tourism, and CBT in particular, as an effective means to fight poverty.

In India, there are several examples of CBT initiatives (see Box 16, for example, for a CBT initiative in the state of Kerala). The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) helped India build capacities in 36 rural sites through its Endogenous Tourism Project (2003–2007). This project represented a total shift away from the standard tourism projects implemented by the Ministry of Tourism, focusing strongly on the improvement of infrastructure, towards CBT principles. The project's overall framework emphasized processes rather than products, and placed at the centre of its interventions the notion of local communities taking decisions related to tourism development. The capacity building programme focused on food production practices, among other topics.

BOX 16

The Responsible Tourism Mission in Kerala, India

The Responsible Tourism Mission is the nodal agency created by the Government of Kerala to spread the principles of responsible tourism and implement initiatives in the state. The agency's main objectives are promoting tourism as a tool for the development of local communities, eradicating poverty and promoting women empowerment. The Responsible Tourism Mission aspires to provide an additional income and better livelihoods to farmers, traditional artisans and marginalized people, along with creating a social and environmental equilibrium.

In Kumarakom, tourists are given an opportunity to experience village life through tour packages, such as the "Village life experience" and "A day with the farmer" packages. A guide takes visitors to the lush green villages around the Vembanad Lake where they sail in a traditional Kerala boat, learn about coconut farming and toddy tapping (i.e. the collection of juice from the bud of palm tree flowers, which has been practised in Southeast Asia for centuries), explore the traditional art of weaving coconut leaves and coir making, and learn about organic farming and cattle breeding.

The case of Kerala points to two success factors for CBT development. First of all, it is critical to ensure that local communities buy into initiatives and understand the potential of this form of

tourism for income generation. The second success factor concerns the effective organization of local communities to implement CBT initiatives. In Kerala, village tourism committees are established under the leadership of the village headman; these committees are comprised of representatives of all stakeholders in the community, ideally including women, youth, folk artists, crafts people, artisans and marginalized groups.

Source:

India, Kerala, Department of Tourism. 2022. Responsible Tourism Mission. In: Kerala tourism. Thiruvananthapuram, India. Cited 17 December 2022. www.keralatourism.org/responsible-tourism

Nepal is another country that has identified ecotourism and CBT as subsectors that can provide significant contributions to environmental conservation, job creation and socioeconomic development. Box 17 provides information on a CBT initiative in Nepal, in this case driven by a social enterprise.

BOX 17

Community Homestay Network and CBT in Nepal

Community Homestay Network is a social enterprise that supports a network of community homestays in Nepal. It was the winner of UNWTO's Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) Global Start-up Competition in the category SDG 8 (decent work and economic growth). The start-up has developed a platform that connects travellers with communities across Nepal, providing unique opportunities to stay with local families and get immersed in authentic rural Nepali life. Local communities can share their culture, lifestyle and landscapes with the world while gaining access to a sustainable source of income through tourism. Community Homestay Network retains 15 percent of the revenues for management, promotion activities and training, while the remaining 85 percent is channelled directly to the local community.

During their stay with host families, visitors get involved in their daily lives. The main activities include cooking local dishes, helping out on the farm, exploring the surroundings of the community, participating in local culinary and cultural festivals and learning local crafts.

Agriculture-related activities include tea factory visits in Shree Antu, an area dotted with tea fields. Guides walk visitors through all the steps of tea production on farms, and visitors can interact directly with workers from the community. The tour includes a tea tasting experience that allows tourists to learn about the distinct flavours of different tea varieties and the grading of leaves. The network also organizes classes on organic farming. Patlekhet, for example, is a community that is well known for its authentic organic farming practices. Community hosts, most of whom have agriculture as their main livelihood source, invite visitors to observe and practice different organic farming techniques used in Nepal.

Source:

Community Homestay Network. 2022. Community experiences Nepal. Kathmandu. Cited 17 December 2022. www.communityhomestay.com

Malaysia has been implementing CBT initiatives since 2000. Malaysia's CBT strategy includes the Homestay Programme, an initiative led by the Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture. The programme aims at encouraging rural communities to venture into the tourism sector by offering CBT products or services. Visitors are given the opportunity to stay with a family and learn about the culture and lifestyle of rural communities in Malaysia. The Homestay Programme emphasizes unique rural and nature-based experiences focusing on farming, food production and local cuisine. Tourists sojourn with local hosts, eat with them and participate in their everyday activities, including rubber tapping, paddy harvesting, fishing, palm oil harvesting and the making of local handicrafts. The Homestay Programme is a high priority for Malaysia. In addition to the Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture, it involves the Ministry of Agriculture and Food Industries, and the Ministry of Rural and Regional Development.

In Viet Nam, the CBT segment has also experienced remarkable growth over the past decade. CBT experiences are mostly offered in the mountains up north, along the central coast and in the Mekong Delta in the south. These are rural areas where natural beauty intersects with the rich cultural heritage of ethnic minorities. The segment attracts both international tourists and domestic visitors, particularly city workers during weekend breaks and phuot or Vietnamese backpackers who travel the country by motorbike and are keen on buying local produce and herbal remedies to take home (Environmentally and Socially Responsible Tourism Capacity Development Programme and World Wildlife Fund Vietnam, 2013). Box 18 presents an example of a CBT initiative in Viet Nam.

BOX 18

Lessons from a CBT initiative in Nam Dam village, Viet Nam

Nam Dam is a picturesque village in Ha Giang province, a six-hour drive north of Hanoi in Viet Nam. Home to the Dao ethnic community, Nam Dam has fertile land producing rice, corn and cassava as well as medicinal herbs, which the Dao people have used for centuries in herbal baths.[i] Although agriculture has traditionally been Nam Dam's main economic activity, the village has recently positioned itself as one of the top four CBT villages in the country.[ii]

The primeval forest, the beautiful rice terraces and the culture of the Dao ethnic community are valuable tourism resources that are attracting both international and domestic tourists to the village. Visitors can stay with families in the village, cook with them and taste the local cuisine, work in the fields with the locals, enjoy a traditional herbal bath and participate in events featuring traditional dances and folk songs. A special culinary tradition that has remained unchanged over the years in Nam Dam is that all dishes are cooked in the eternal flame of every house – a small fire that is kept burning uninterruptedly.[iii] In addition to the additional income derived from tourism services, Nam Dam villagers sell local agricultural products to tourists, including San Tuyet tea (an ancient wild tea grown by the Dao people), wild shiitake mushrooms, honey and medicinal products.

The development of CBT in Nam Dam started in 2012 with a project implemented by Caritas Switzerland and local non-governmental organization Pan Nature. This project developed a pilot model to demonstrate how CBT can contribute towards the improvement of livelihoods of local communities, while preserving their cultural and natural heritage. Over the past decade, the village has formed a tourism cooperative called the Quang Ba Community-based Tourism Cooperative to manage its tourism business (including homestays) and promote it through different social media sites and village notice boards. Several houses in the village were refurbished to meet tourists' basic needs (e.g. by providing a bathroom with hot water), while retaining the traditional architecture. Some of these houses have received the certification of "ASEAN Homestay".[iv] In addition, the village's herbal bath facilities were upgraded and herb

collection practices were improved to meet the guidelines of the World Health Organization on good clinical practice.[i]

The success of this initiative is the result of a combination of effective cooperative leadership, transparent communal management of conflicts of interest, and continued support from the local government (e.g. training on homestay safety regulations).[v]

This CBT experience and others in Ha Giang provide useful examples for learning. FAO recently organized a three-day study tour to Ha Giang province to allow farmers from Ca Mau province and representatives of provincial government agencies dealing with agriculture and tourism to learn about sustainable CBT. The participants gained hands-on experience of the CBT activities and services offered by the villages of Nam Dam and Dong Van, including homestays, cultural experiences and agricultural and handicraft activities.[vi]

Notes:

i **GEF Small Grants Programme.** N.d. Contributing to conserve herbal gen and improve livelihood of Dao ethnic minority through developing herbal bath service for community-tourism in Quan Ba commune, Quan Ba district. In: Projects. New York, USA. Cited 30 May 2022. https://sgp.undp.org/spacial-itemid-projects-landing-page/spacial-itemid-project-search-results/spacial-itemid-project-detailpage.html?view=projectdetail&id=23763

ii **Vu, A.** 2020. Vietnam's four top community-based tourism villages. In: VnExpress International. Hanoi. Cited 30 May 2022. https://e.vnexpress.net/news/travel/places/vietnam-s-four-top-community-based-tourism-villages-4196298.html

iii **Vietcraft.** N.d. Community Nam Dam cultural tourism village. In: OCOP. Hanoi. Cited 30 May 2022. https://vietcraft.org.vn/mdl/content/action/category/catid/97

iv **ASEAN.** 2016. Asean Homestay Standard. Jakarta. Cited 30 May 2022. www.asean.org/wp-content/uploads/2012/05/ASEAN-Homestay-Standard.pdf

v **ActionAid Vietnam.** 2019. 3-days training course on "First Aid Emergency Skills" in Nam Dam village, Quan Ba district, Ha Giang province. In: News. Hanoi. Cited 30 May 2022. https://vietnam.actionaid.org/vi/news/2019/3-days-training-course-first-aid-emergency-skills-nam-dam-village-quan-ba-district-ha

vi **FAO.** 2022b. Final report of the project "Agro-ecotourism development support for Ca Mau, Viet Nam". Internal document. Hanoi.

PART III

PROMISES AND PITFALLS OF AGRIFOOD–TOURISM LINKAGES

CHAPTER 5: Benefits of strong agrifood–tourism linkages

KEY MESSAGES

- The intimate connection between tourism and agrifood systems through factor–demand linkages and backward linkages can express itself in both positive and negatives outcomes. Under beneficial circumstances, these links can create positive synergies and spillovers, and stimulate a virtuous cycle of economic growth and investment. In this positive scenario, agrifood tourism offers many beneficial opportunities for improving livelihoods, creating employment and stimulating overall economic growth.
- Agrifood tourism can contribute to achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) across the Asian–Pacific region. This tourism segment not only generates income and employment opportunities, but also increases inclusiveness in various sectors of the local economy.
- Local sourcing by the tourism industry can generate benefits for the industry itself, for farmers and the broader economy, as well as for society and the environment.
- Food tourism, in the form of gastronomy- and agriculture-based experiences, can offer multiple opportunities to nurture the linkages between the tourism and agrifood sectors in a sustainable and inclusive manner.
- Sustainable agricultural tourism benefits farmers and rural communities by providing an opportunity to diversify their economic activities and create new demand for their agricultural products. To ensure the sustainability of agricultural tourism, any potential negative impacts on the environment, agricultural resources, biodiversity and the lives and cultures of the people in these areas must be minimized.
- By fostering positive synergies between tourism and agriculture, agrifood tourism can become a key driver of the sustainable development of rural areas, delivering economic, social and environmental benefits. Agrifood tourism can create business and employment opportunities that counter the rural exodus to overcrowded cities in the region, while contributing to building cohesive local communities and protecting the environment.

5.1. THE CONTRIBUTION OF AGRIFOOD TOURISM TO THE SDGS

There is broad consensus that tourism can provide significant contributions towards the attainment of the SDGs in many destinations, including in Asia and the Pacific. Up to the beginning of the COVID-19 crisis, tourism was a major driver of economic development and job creation in the region. Many Asian-Pacific countries were engaging in agrifood tourism, making it a central part of their tourism strategies and, in some cases, of their agricultural strategies.

It is also widely agreed that there is still untapped potential to increase the contribution of agrifood tourism in areas such as economic growth, rural development, job creation or responsible consumption and production (UNWTO, 2019c). Agrifood tourism may also play an important role in the recovery from COVID-19. This potential constitutes the rationale for conducting this study.

Tourism touches almost every part of our economies and societies, enabling the historically marginalized, and those at risk of being left behind, to benefit from development. The sector could become an engine for prosperity, a vehicle for integration, a means to protect our planet and biodiversity, and an agent of cultural understanding between peoples.

United Nations Secretary-General António Guterres, speaking on World Tourism Day (27 September 2021) in New York (United Nations, 2021).

Promoting sustainable agritourism [...] can help generate new jobs, diversify income, build robust micro-economies and revitalize products and services.

FAO Director-General Qu Dongyu, speaking on 10 December 2021 in Rome (UNWTO, 2021b).

Food tourism adds vitality to rural communities, supports small, local food producers and strengthens their position in the market contributing to add value to the tourism experience while promoting the preservation and development of local produce and know how.

UNWTO Secretary-General Zurab Pololikashvili, speaking on 2 November 2021 in Bruges (UNWTO, 2021c).

Tourism, as one of the largest and fastest growing economic sectors in the world, can make a critical contribution towards the achievement of SDG 1 (No poverty). In 2019, the global travel and tourism sector contributed 10.3 percent to global GDP, or USD 9 630 billion.[62] In Asia and the Pacific, the travel and tourism sector contributed to 9.8 percent of the region's total GDP that same year, or USD 3 294.3 billion (WTTC, 2022). As mentioned earlier, agrifood tourism accounted for 12 percent of the travel and tourism sector worldwide, and 14 percent in Asia and the Pacific (Allied Market Research, 2020; WTTC, 2022).

Agrifood tourism, in particular, has great potential to contribute towards national poverty reduction goals. Beyond purely economic considerations, the current emphasis is on the sector's contributions towards sustainability and its impacts on society, such as boosting the cultural, in addition to the economic, value of food. Agrifood tourism can foster economic growth and development at multiple levels, notably through its linkages to agrifood systems, and provide income through job creation. The sector is particularly well positioned to promote entrepreneurship and empower less favoured communities and vulnerable groups, particularly youth and women (UNWTO, 2019c).

Agrifood tourism also contributes towards achieving SDG 2 (Zero hunger) by fostering sustainable and thriving agrifood systems, and creating innovative income-generating activities. By increasing the opportunities for visitors (and locals) to enjoy an authentic "taste of place", agrifood tourism can have a significant impact on the growth and viability of local agrifood systems.

Agrifood tourism can also help achieve SDG 8 (Decent work and economic growth) by creating jobs. The tourism sector accounted for one in every 11 jobs worldwide in 2015 (UNWTO, 2020f), and one in ten (or a total 330 million jobs) in 2019. In the Asia–Pacific region, 9.9 percent of all jobs, or a total 184.7 million jobs, were in tourism in 2019 (WTTC, 2022). Despite the lack of specific data on the employment generated by the agrifood tourism segment, its importance in terms of job creation is likely to be significant. This is supported by the many studies and reports that identify food as the first category of travel spending, and a strong influencing factor for travellers' decisions to select a destination (UNWTO, 2017a). Food tourism is identified as one of the fastest growing markets within the tourism sector, and directly linked to the bulk of job creation (UNWTO, 2019d).

5.2. BENEFITS OF LOCAL SOURCING BY THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

Overview of benefits

By sourcing significant amounts of high-quality food from local producers and processors, the tourism sector can stimulate the development of value addition processes and promote further investments in local food production (CTA, 2020). The creation of farm-to-table linkages between local farmers and tourism entrepreneurs can yield multiple benefits for the parties involved and generate positive externalities for the wider economy, the society and the environment. Therefore, it is crucial to support the development of farmer–market linkages beyond their current levels (presented in Chapter 2). Figure 35 provides an overview of the beneficial impacts of the creation of agrifood–tourism linkages.

62 Estimate for 2019, considering a global travel and tourism market of USD 9 630 billion, with food tourism worth USD 1 116.7 billion and agritourism USD 42.6 billion (WTTC, n.d.).

FIGURE 35

Common benefits of the creation of agrifood–tourism linkages

BENEFITS FOR FARMERS	BENEFITS FOR THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY	SOCIOECONOMIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL BENEFITS
• Increased income; and • Access to higher-paying markets (e.g. supermarkets and export markets) as a result of improved skills.	• Access to reliable local supplies with consistent quality and competitive prices; • Ability to meet the demand of visitors for locally produced food; • Access to a diversified supply network, reducing overall risk; • Stronger linkages with local communities; and • Better CSR strategies, and progress towards obtaining responsible tourism certifications.	• Sustainable development of local food supply chains; • Increased food exports and less reliance on food imports; • Potential development of tourism supply chains for non-food agricultural/ forestry products; and • Poverty reduction and employment generation.

Source: authors' elaboration.

Benefits for farmers

The development of local food chains for the tourism and hospitality industry requires a gradual shift away from relying on imported products procured through large-scale intermediaries towards building short supply networks that incorporate local smallholders. Such a shift empowers local farming communities and puts local food heritage front and centre.

It has been demonstrated that farmers can perceive higher net incomes by entering into linkages with hotels or restaurants (FAO, 2007). Smaller farmers can strive to meet the demand of the tourism industry for high-value food products, usually without many of the logistical complications involved in supplying more sophisticated, distant and risky export markets.

Farmers may transfer the skills acquired by engaging with tourism establishments to other food supply chains. Thus, supplying local tourism businesses becomes a stepping stone for farmers towards entering other, higher-paying markets such as supermarkets and international markets (FAO, 2007).

The benefits of engaging in tourism supply chains are not exclusive to farmers. Ashley and Haysom (2008) underscore that opportunities for emerging entrepreneurs in agricultural value chains to access tourism supply chains are among the most powerful contributors to local development.

Benefits for the tourism industry

Tourism businesses can obtain more reliable, regular and competitively priced supplies through formal or informal linkages with local food producers. Such linkages give them a high degree of control over produce quality and safety, and allow them to meet the demands of their customers for locally produced food. Tourism establishments can also purchase from farmers in a variety of locations so as to minimize production risks, especially from disease and extreme weather events.

On a larger scale, working with local smallholder producers improves the relationship with local communities and is also more politically and socially acceptable. It can be part of a company's CSR strategy and constitute an important step towards achieving a responsible tourism certification.

Positive externalities

The development of backward linkages can stimulate agricultural activity and food production, empower the local community through job creation and encourage entrepreneurship. It can also directly or indirectly contribute to other elements of regional development through enhanced destination attractiveness and inward investment stimulation (Telfer and Wall, 1996). Ashley and Haysom (2008) take the argument further and describe the income earned from such short supply chains as "pro-poor flows".

The development of backward linkages can have positive impacts on the entire agrifood chain, which transcends the buyer–seller relationship. When hotels and restaurants buy from local farmers, they contribute to the development of local supply chains, which simultaneously benefits local communities, travellers and the environment at the destination (Mak, Lumbers and Eves, 2012). Local sourcing by the tourism industry can make local agrifood systems more balanced and sustainable by providing a basis for branding and marketing activities that can increase farmers' revenues. For example, local procurement can encourage producers to adhere to food standards and comply with food safety and quality requirements, including regarding packaging and labelling (CTA, 2020). Strengthening backward linkages in the tourism supply chain can create new markets for particular foods and food events, and can help boost food exports from the destination.

Furthermore, tourism–agriculture linkages can also cover non-food products, such as agro-based craftwork and forestry and indigenous products. Examples include bespoke wooden furniture, linens and other textiles for tourism establishments (Hampton, Jeyacheya and Long, 2018) and agro-based, non-food souvenirs sold at tourism sites (Rolle and Enriquez, 2017).

Tourism–agriculture linkages can contribute to the substitution of food imports and improve the sustainability of tourism and the territory, not least through the alleviation of poverty and the creation of employment (Torres and Momsen, 2011). Torres (2003) adds that close tourism–agriculture linkages can spatially disperse the benefits of tourism beyond the travel destination, all along the supply chain.

Another compelling argument for tourism establishments to source locally relates to the reduction of carbon footprints (Gössling *et al.*, 2012). Local food sourcing is gaining popularity because of its reduced environmental impacts. Local agriculture, and especially small farms, offers a more seasonally varied assortment and a shorter supply chain. Moreover, expanded linkages between agriculture and tourism can help position destinations by meeting travellers' lifestyle demands; contribute to the circularity of agrifood systems through reusing or recycling; create income and employment; promote the inclusion of local foods in tourist menus; and reduce post-harvest losses (Berno, 2011). The trend towards local sourcing can also draw attention to the healthiness of ingredients (e.g. clean and/or organic crop and livestock products), to more sustainable production methods and to traditional preparation styles (Long, 2013).

5.3. BENEFITS OF FOOD TOURISM

Overview of benefits

Food tourism is widely recognized as a tourism modality with great potential to generate synergies and jumpstart a virtuous cycle of interlinkages between agrifood systems and the tourism industry (UNWTO, 2012; 2017a; 2021a; FAO, 2016). Hall and Gössling (2016) posit that from a local or regional development perspective, food tourism can strengthen the relationships between food and tourism and thus contribute to the economic, environmental and social well-being of communities in tourism destinations (see Figure 36).

Economic benefits of food tourism

Agrifood tourism has enormous potential to stimulate local, regional and national economies and enhance sustainability (Asiedu and Gbedema, 2011; Rogerson, 2012). Based on existing resources such as culinary traditions and history, food tourism can create employment opportunities and generate new income streams in travel destinations (Everett, 2016). It can also boost the GDP of host countries and thus increase government tax revenues. The economic benefits of food tourism can accrue through several pathways, which are invariably interlinked. Some of these economic benefits are described in detail in the following paragraphs.

FIGURE 36

Potential benefits of food tourism

ECONOMIC BENEFITS	SOCIAL BENEFITS	ENVIRONMENTAL BENEFITS
• Increased incomes and tax revenues in the agrifood tourism destination; • Poverty reduction, creation of employment and economic diversification at the destination; • Increased GDP in host countries; • Sustainable development of local and domestic agrifood value chains; • Increased exports of agrifood products; • Promotion of local and rural entrepreneurship, especially among women and the youth; and • Contribution to the development of peripheral regions.	• Preservation of the local gastronomic and cultural heritage; and • Reinforcement of the cultural identity and pride of rural communities.	• Reduction of the environmental footprint of both the tourism and the agriculture sectors thanks to shorter supply chains, sustainable local production, the conservation of biodiversity and better waste management. • Reduction of travellers' environmental footprints as a result of the promotion of local and domestic travelling.

Source: authors' elaboration.

Food tourism can help reduce poverty and diversify the economic landscape, particularly in rural areas. Food tourism can stimulate agriculture and agroprocessing, and thus strengthen economic diversification and development at local and regional levels (Lejarraga and Walkenhorst, 2007). It can enable communities to generate and retain income locally, and capture more value added. Additional income can be generated in different ways: from the expenditures of visitors of food festivals or of those following a food trail, from expenditures on fine dining or street food experiences, etc.

This type of tourism opens promising opportunities for farming communities, many of which have struggled in the face of rapid urbanization and shifts away from traditional economic sectors. It allows these communities to turn their food traditions into marketable attractions that create new business opportunities for local farmers and food producers.

In many parts of Asia and the Pacific, food tourism helps attract young people and women to agriculture and its auxiliary sectors (Privitera, 2010). Hall and Mitchell (2001) therefore regard food tourism as an inclusive force. They argue that this form of tourism includes farmers, local products and cultural and recreational activities in an integrated process of sustainable development of various connected economic activities.

Food tourism can create new sources of income for both communities and individual households. Income from tourism can boost communities' budgets and can be leveraged to attract investment and access additional government funding. However, if the rural economy is weak, the income and employment opportunities generated by food tourism can be distributed in a highly unbalanced manner (UNWTO, 2017a).

Food tourism can boost employment. A key contribution of food tourism towards local development lies in its ability to generate employment for farmers, workers in agro-industries, tour guides or local chefs, among many others. Tourism is a labour-intensive sector and can create employment opportunities in rural areas where jobs are scarce. Jobs in the tourism sector are often part-time jobs and can supplement income from other activities. The variety of jobs in the tourism sector make it a natural and efficient tool for regional development (OECD, 2019).

While tourism-related jobs often attract unskilled labour and offer low wages (Jones and Munday, 2001), food tourism has more potential to improve work environments, reduce the gender wage gap, tackle youth unemployment and address the problem of seasonality than other forms of tourism (UNWTO, 2019f).

Food tourism can foster the sustainable development of local agrifood chains. This tourism segment can attract tourists and differentiate destinations by associating them with particular food products and cuisines (culinary placemaking).

The consumption of local food can be promoted as a key component of the agrifood tourism experience. Food-themed events such as food festivals and farmers' markets can enhance the appeal of tourist attractions and foster the development of flourishing local communities involved in agrifood tourism (Slocum and Curtis, 2018). In Singapore and Thailand, tourists can choose from a variety of cooking classes, while visitors to Japan can participate in sake tasting sessions (UNWTO, 2019d). All of these activities generate revenues in travel destinations (Horng and Tsai, 2012). As more tourists participate in these gastronomic events and opt for foods supplied by local farms (which may find it difficult to enter more traditional supply chains), the social and economic equality in rural communities tends to increase (Testa *et al.*, 2019).

By promoting local foods, food tourism nurtures local communities' pride in their food culture and heritage. It builds on this culture and heritage to reinforce the brand identity of destinations and enhance their attractiveness (Zhang, Chen and Hu, 2019). Of crucial importance is the promotion of regional speciality food and drink products that are identified with locations and territories and are registered as GIs (Hall and Gössling, 2016). Most GI names contain the name of their place of origin and therefore add greatly to the image of destinations, strengthening tourism branding and culinary placemaking.

Food tourism can act as a trigger for local entrepreneurship. Contemporary travellers are increasingly searching for locally produced ingredients and food, creating business opportunities for both local food producers and tourism service providers (Long, 2004). Slocum and Curtis (2018) see food tourism as an opportunity for the development of small businesses: food tourism stimulates entrepreneurship in local

communities and helps build human capital. This is especially true for those destinations in Asia and the Pacific where the tourism industry is primarily composed of MSMEs that offer accommodation, catering, touring and transportation services and organize leisure activities (Konrad and Ekiem, 2011; Othman and Rosli, 2011; Rashid, Jaafar and Dalahan, 2013; Asian Development Bank Institute [ADBI], 2020). According to UNWTO (2020a), around 80 percent of tourism enterprises, both globally and in the Asia–Pacific region, are MSMEs, employing a high share of women and young people. Meanwhile, MSMEs make up 98 percent of enterprises in the agrifood sector (including food processing) in the region (Gálvez, 2022).

The available figures indicate that the number of MSMEs active in tourism is increasing (UNWTO, 2020a). Even in tourism destinations in Asia that are dominated by large companies, the growing demand for personalized holiday experiences that are tailored to travellers' individual needs and tastes is creating new opportunities for MSMEs. Indeed, MSMEs tend to be better placed than larger companies to adapt their offer to consumers' changing tastes and preferences (OECD, 2008).

Supporting local entrepreneurship is critical not only because it boosts the ability of destinations to adapt to the ever-changing requirements of tourists, but also because tourist expenditures in small local businesses are more likely to accrue to the local community than those in large tourism establishments, which are often foreign-owned and therefore prone to economic leakage (OECD, 2008; ADBI, 2020). In addition, MSMEs are known for employing a higher share of female workers, including those with disabilities or social issues (Purnomo, 2016). MSMEs also have a great influence on how tourists perceive destinations and on destinations' image abroad (Kozak and Rimmington, 1998).

Food tourism can also benefit youths by making them familiar with foreign languages and digital technologies, thus helping them pave their way as entrepreneurs. Lunchaprasith (2017) presents an example from Thailand whereby the successful development of a public space in the Amphawa district, about 100 kilometres southwest of Bangkok, into a floating market in 2001 encouraged many young locals to return to their hometown to start agrifood or tourism businesses. These young entrepreneurs had become acquainted with a metropolitan food scene characterized by a mixture of diverse culinary influences, and thus brought home culinary innovations. They also brought with them new entrepreneurial skills and digital technologies to improve the quality and marketing of local food items.

Food tourism can bring economic development to peripheral regions. Food tourism can be developed in underdeveloped locations that lack tourism resources, including in small rural villages. Numerous developed economies have implemented programmes, over several decades, to encourage tourism (and particularly food tourism) in rural and peripheral areas, including Australia, Canada, countries in Europe, New Zealand and the United States of America (Hall and Jenkins, 1998; Hall and Gössling, 2016).

This strategy is now being emulated by many developing countries in Asia and the Pacific and across the globe. By attracting tourist flows to less visited regions, food tourism can generate revenues in an equitable manner, while also helping to overcome tourism seasonality and avoid overtourism (UNWTO, 2017a; Richards, 2012). Sustainably developed food tourism contributes to the overall attractiveness of peripheral regions. The impacts of this form of tourism go beyond income generation and job creation in the tourism and agriculture sectors. Indeed, food tourism can also positively affect other sectors of the economy, allowing whole areas to develop and prosper (Horng and Tsai, 2012; Richards, 2012). External ownership of large tourism establishments, together with an underdeveloped local tourism infrastructure, can limit the contribution of food tourism activities to growth in peripheral regions (Jones and Munday, 2001).

Food tourism can support the development of international markets for food products. Culinary tourists tend to have higher income levels, spend more money on services and be better educated and more culturally sensitive than the average tourist (Long, 2013). These factors make them a desirable clientele. Policymakers should therefore consider this type of tourism as a positive force for the development of new markets at regional and global levels.

Food tourists are likely to take local items back home as souvenirs. International visitors may take home high-value ingredients that fit into their suitcase and satisfy biosecurity requirements, such as packaged spices, nuts, coffee and confectionary products. Back in their home countries, they may seek out food

ingredients imported from the country they visited or go to restaurants serving the foods they experienced while travelling. Thus, food tourism may stimulate the development of both domestic and export markets. Indeed, branding a country or a region as a food destination can lead to an increase in the popularity of their local cuisine, which can stimulate the creation of restaurants abroad and boost exports of local ingredients. For instance, the Thai Government has over the past decades implemented policies to brand Thailand as a food destination and promote Thai food around the world. These policies have resulted in an increase in the demand for Thai food exports worldwide, while at the same time leading to a surge in the number of visitors to the country (Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019).

Social benefits of food tourism

Food tourism helps preserve local cuisine and cultural heritage, and may even assist rural communities in reviving their forgotten customs, traditions, foods and recipes (Slocum and Curtis, 2018). In the case of the Amphawa floating market in Thailand, the gastronomy tourism experiences built around the market have proved crucial to preserving local heritage foods prepared using family recipes that were passed on from generation to generation and were on the verge of disappearing. This case illustrates that agrifood tourism experiences can help preserve local gastronomic heritage as well as revitalize local communities (Lunchaprasith, 2017).

Food tourism can reinforce the cultural identity of rural communities. This type of tourism has food as its cornerstone, which has been demonstrated to be a major source of identity and pride for local communities. Thus, food tourism builds on an intangible heritage that ties communities to their place of origin (Richards, 2012).

Environmental benefits of food tourism

Food tourism can contribute to reducing the environmental footprint of both the tourism and the agriculture sectors. One pathway for the delivery of positive environmental impacts is through changes in tourist preferences towards organic, free-range and cage-free food options (Renko, Renko and Polonijo, 2010). Food tourists seek high-quality and artisan foods, which are frequently produced in more sustainable ways, on smaller farms and possibly organically. They also tend to want to eat a variety of foods, which, in theory, can encourage the protection of biodiversity.

Food tourists' preferences for farm-to-table experiences can lead to positive environmental changes to agricultural systems. Indeed, close interaction between customers and local farmers often leads the latter to adopt free-range or pasture-grazing practices that reduce the need for hormones, antibiotics or chemical additives in food (Slocum and Curtis, 2018). There is also evidence that food tourism encourages local farmers to reduce waste by adopting a circular production system that recycles by-products, for example by using animal waste as fertilizer (Gössling and Hall, 2013). Emphasis is also placed on farmland protection, which preserves open public spaces and increases the quality of life of the community (Slocum and Curtis, 2018).

Food tourism is a great fit for local and domestic travel, which has a smaller environmental footprint than international travel. As a result of travellers' increased awareness about climate change, as well as the impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic, more people are opting for tourism choices that do not involve extensive travelling, thus rediscovering local and domestic travel. This emerging travel pattern, which has a reduced environmental footprint, is reinforcing the development of food tourism in Asia and the Pacific.

In light of the potential benefits of food tourism, policymakers are increasingly using this type of tourism as a tool for territorial development, especially when they acknowledge the considerable scope for policy interventions to boost the procurement of local supplies (Mitchell and Ashley, 2010). To ensure that food tourism is indeed a driver of local and regional development, it is crucial to coordinate policies related to tourism, agriculture, agro-industries and rural development at all levels (UNWTO, 2021a). For an analysis and examples of policies and field interventions that leverage food tourism to foster local development in Asia and the Pacific, see Chapter 7 and Chapter 8.

5.4. BENEFITS OF AGRICULTURAL TOURISM

Overview of benefits

Tourism literature often frames agritourism and other forms of agriculture-based tourism as a means to revitalize declining rural economies, preserve agrarian cultures and prevent rural migration (Brown, 1996; McGehee, 2007; Torres and Momsen, 2011; Montefrio and Sin, 2021). Owing to its unique combination of agriculture and tourism experiences, agricultural tourism offers a number of economic, social and environmental benefits to tourists, producers and wider communities (see Figure 37).

FIGURE 37

Potential benefits of the development of agricultural tourism

ECONOMIC BENEFITS	SOCIAL BENEFITS	ENVIRONMENTAL BENEFITS
• Direct income generation and diversification for farmers and local communities; • Avenue for the direct marketing of agricultural products to visitors; • Creation of decent employment and opportunities for entrepreneurship in rural communities; • Creation of direct and indirect employment and poverty reduction in local communities; • Increased number of visitors and longer stays, which increases local revenues; • Contribution to the development of peripheral regions; • Enhanced community involvement and control in the planning and management of tourism experiences and related profits; and • Increased resilience resulting from the diversification of income sources.	• Reduced rural-to-urban migration and retention of young people; • Empowerment of women and youth in rural communities; • Strengthening of rural–urban linkages by providing recreational and educational services to urban dwellers; • Educational opportunities for schoolchildren and university students (e.g. Students of agricultural or tourism/ hospitality colleges); • Provision of incentives for the preservation and revival of cultural, food and agricultural heritage; • Improved nutrition as a result of the prioritization of indigenous food and the preservation of local biodiversity; • Community empowerment by giving an active voice to indigenous community members; and • Strengthening of social capital and team spirit.	• Incentives for the protection of the environment, biodiversity and natural resources that are critical to attract tourists. Improved environmental stewardship can manifest itself through a shift to organic farming methods and better knowledge of the environmental functions of farming; and • Increased income from on-farm tourism activities; this can relieve some of the pressure on natural resources associated with more intensive farming practices.

Source: authors' elaboration.

Economic benefits of agricultural tourism

Agritourism provides producers with an opportunity to generate additional income, as well as an avenue to directly market agricultural products to visitors (Tew and Barbieri, 2012). Many farmers find in agritourism a way to diversify and increase their income by providing new services for tourists, who often buy farm products to consume on site or take home. Indeed, agritourism focuses on creating connections between farmers and tourists by bringing the latter to the production place to consume. For some family farms, this additional income – be it from tourism activities or from direct sales – can make the difference between keeping on to their farmland or selling it for other uses (Torres and Momsen, 2011). This is particularly important in areas where economic returns from agriculture are diminishing and in times of economic distress, such as when harvests fail or prices are low (Tew and Barbieri, 2012).

Researchers have observed that income augmentation and diversification strategies through agritourism are most likely to be adopted by farmers in peri-urban areas who are facing rural distress and pressure from advancing urbanization (Polovitz Nickerson, Black and McCool, 2001; Liu, Li and Yang, 2018; Gomes *et al.*, 2019; Rauniyar *et al.*, 2021). These strategies also tend to be more common among younger, risk-seeking farmers with secure farm rights, less productive soils and high-value crops (Meraner, Pölling and Finger, 2018; Rauniyar *et al.*, 2021). For instance, in Nepal, young farmers aged 21 to 40 were found to be more willing to engage in agritourism on their farms than other age groups (Bhatta and Ohe, 2019).

Agritourism motivates farmers to acquire business skills and become entrepreneurs, and is believed to provide a more stable and often higher income to farmers (Schilling, Sullivan and Komar, 2012). Beyond the direct impact on the livelihoods of the owners of these establishments, agritourism supports local economies by promoting entrepreneurship, creating employment for rural communities, and increasing the number of visitors to an area and extending the length of their stay, which in turn enlarges the local tax base (UNWTO and Huzhou City, 2017).

For these reasons, agritourism has been widely promoted as an effective way to generate income in peripheral rural areas, often in partnership with small businesses and local government agencies. Agritourism and other forms of rural tourism tend to be less costly and easier to develop than other economic activities, such as manufacturing. Furthermore, agritourism can easily be combined with existing rural enterprise models, and can generate important secondary income flows for farmers and other rural entrepreneurs (UNWTO and Huzhou City, 2017).

Governments should support efforts by private entrepreneurs to develop agritourism by providing comprehensive assistance to farmers, including training and financial support. Assistance programmes should convince farmers to stay in agriculture and diversify into agritourism as an innovative way to attract domestic and international visitors.

Agroheritage tourism allows visitors to enjoy a territory as a manifestation of traditions, culture, gastronomy and food production techniques, and can generate new income flows for local communities. In Dazhai, China, for example, the construction of a cableway that reaches the top of the longji rice terraces has resulted in an increase in the number of visitors to the village, which in turn has encouraged villagers to set up tourism businesses, including homestays and restaurants. Villagers in Dazhai now enjoy higher incomes from multiple sources, including agriculture, non-farm tourism jobs (e.g. guiding tours and carrying luggage for tourists), compensation for maintaining terraces and tourism dividends (e.g. revenues from the sale of cableway tickets). This additional income has encouraged local farmers to stay in their villages, rather than migrating (Zhang *et al.*, 2019; Zhu, Li and Zhang, 2021; China, Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs, 2021).

Community-based tourism (CBT) can bring several economic advantages for local communities, including increased incomes, the creation of direct and indirect employment and poverty reduction (Manyara and Jones, 2007). CBT provides opportunities for income generation to local community members, who can access new markets for their products (e.g. fresh and processed foods, art- and craftwork) and establish businesses such as restaurants and homestays. The development of CBT can result in the creation of various types of jobs, for example in the construction and maintenance of tourism infrastructure, accommodation, logistics, food production, nature trails and cooking sessions.

The amount and distribution of the economic benefits of tourism initiatives depends on many factors, including the attractiveness of the tourism asset, the type of tourism operation, the nature and degree of community involvement, and whether earnings are private income or are channelled into community projects or other mechanisms that spread the benefits. At the core of CBT is the goal of directly benefitting the local community by enabling the "local control of development, community involvement in planning, equitable flow of benefits, and incorporation of resident values" (Strydom, Mangope and Henama, 2017, p. 5). In CBT, the management of the tourism experience and the profits accrue to the community, as opposed to other forms of tourism whereby experiences are marketed and organized by private companies that retain the bulk of the profits.

Social benefits of agricultural tourism

One of the key social benefits of agritourism is that it can help reduce migration from rural to urban areas by creating new opportunities for income generation, especially for women and youth, even in remote areas.

By providing a new and appealing perspective on farm life, agritourism can counteract the decline in youth's interest in working in rural areas in Asia and the Pacific. Agritourism can create new jobs in tour guiding, marketing and business development that call on young people's social media and language skills (Amir *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore, agritourism allows young farmers to exploit the opportunities created by the shift in consumer demands towards organic, natural, healthy, environmentally friendly and traditional products (FAO, 2014). Youths are generally better placed to respond to these demands thanks to their creativity, flexibility, interest in serving novel and niche markets, and digital and social media skills, which are crucial to promote agritourism businesses on platforms such as Facebook and Instagram (SEARCA, 2019). The additional income derived from agritourism often convinces younger generations to stay on the family farm, rather than leaving in search of outside employment.

Agritourism can also create new opportunities for women. Sharpley and Vass (2006) observe that women often prefer to engage in agritourism rather than in other types of activities, as it allows them to work from home and generate additional income while taking care of children and the household. However, there can also be a downside to the extra work for farmwomen.

Agritourism can also help strengthen rural–urban linkages. Through agritourism, urban dwellers can experience rural life, satisfy a desire to connect with nature, and learn about farming and the origin of their food (Torres and Momsen, 2011). Chen *et al.* (2020) underline the combination of recreational benefits (peace and tranquillity, mental and physical health, aesthetic appreciation) and educational benefits (cultural and heritage teachings, escape in time) that urbanites derive from exposure to rural life through agritourism. In the wake of the COVID-19 pandemic, city dwellers are actively seeking to spend more time in nature. Participating in farming activities through agritourism is perceived as a way to find peace and relaxation in a safe, mostly outdoors environment, reducing stress and providing purpose.

Agritourism also provides an answer to the growing demand for family-oriented educational activities that satisfy the curiosity among young minds about farming and rural activities. In addition, agritourism offers educational opportunities to students of tourism and agronomy. Several studies analyse the educational offerings of agritourism centres, for example in Indonesia (Wisudawati, 2019), Japan (Ohe, 2017), Nepal (Bhatta and Ohe, 2019) and the Republic of Korea (Choo and Park, 2020). India seems to excel at motivating schools and universities to tap on educational agritourism opportunities: agritourism has been included in the curricula of a number of agricultural colleges in India, which organize study tours to nearby agritourism establishments (The Hindu, 2022). For instance, the Savitribai Phule Agriculture University in Pune conducts a programme called the Rural Agricultural Work Experience, which exposes agronomy students to the natural settings and business elements of agritourism. Under the programme, the university works with farming families, identifying their problems and making use of various extension tools to transfer the latest agricultural technologies (Mahatma Phule Krishi Vidyapeeth Rahuri, 2018).

Agritourism and agroheritage tourism play a key role in preserving agricultural heritage. LaPan and Barbieri (2013) analyse the interplay between agritourism and the preservation of cultural and agricultural heritage by assessing the motivations of farmers for preserving tangible heritage on their farmlands. Such heritage may include historical buildings, monuments, artefacts and other physical resources considered worthy of preservation (UNESCO, 2023). Although the authors confirm that agritourism drives heritage preservation and that heritage enhances the appeal of agritourism experiences, they also notice that farmers often miss out on the economic gains from these resources. This may jeopardize the sustainability of their conservation efforts in the long term. To capture some of the economic benefits of agricultural heritage assets, agritourism establishments can post educational signs next to historical buildings, display antique farming tools or properly advertise heritage resources in their marketing efforts (Gao, Barbieri and Valdivia, 2013; LaPan and Barbieri, 2013).

Agritourism and agroheritage tourism can also contribute to the preservation of food heritage. Torres and Momsen (2011) discuss the synergies between agritourism and GIs, which are intellectual property rights that identify and protect food and other products with a specific geographical origin and produced in a certain way. Agritourism experiences can further solidify consumers' association of a product with a specific place, while successful GIs can stimulate agritourism in a destination. For example, collective efforts to promote the GI for Nishio Matcha (powdered green tea) in Japan have also benefitted agritourism farms in the production area. These farms provide accommodation and food to visitors attending tea festivals and other GI promotional events, but they also offer tea harvesting experiences and train local guides about Nishio Matcha (Bonanno, Sekine and Feuer, 2019). Torres and Momsen (2011) add that initiatives linking agritourism (or more broadly, rural tourism) to GIs may take place at different levels, depending on who is the main driver of those initiatives: local stakeholders, the central government or regional actors.

CBT also tends to have positive social impacts. The main social impact of CBT initiatives is generally community empowerment: (indigenous) community members become the protagonists, main controllers and beneficiaries of tourism activities. By welcoming visitors, local communities diversify their economic activities, thus increasing their resilience. Governments can support efforts by communities to engage in CBT by improving infrastructure such as roads and electricity and water supply systems.

Another important benefit of CBT is the revival of local culture and knowledge, which otherwise risk being lost. Local communities can teach tourists about their culture and customs, including farming and food processing practices. By using this knowledge and these practices for tourism purposes, communities can revive their traditions and ensure that they are passed on to the next generation. Moreover, the prioritization of local food and the protection of local biodiversity may lead to improved nutritional outcomes (Giampiccoli and Kalis, 2012).

CBT initiatives can help counter rural-to-urban migration and strengthen local communities by offering local job prospects to young people, allowing them to stay in their villages and use their skills and knowledge. By staying in their villages, youths help build social capital and strengthen family bonds, which are vital for a healthy community. The social capital and team spirit generated by youths' involvement in CBT improves understanding and creates mutual trust between community members, which can help manage potential conflicts and promotes collective action (Frey and Berkes, 2014).

Environmental benefits of agricultural tourism

There is a positive connection between agritourism and environmental stewardship, which can manifest itself in various ways. For example, agritourism entrepreneurs are more likely to adopt organic farming methods. In addition, the additional income from on-farm tourism activities can relieve some of the pressure on natural resources that is associated with certain more intensive farming practices (Torres and Momsen, 2011). Chen *et al*. (2020) argue that agritourism cultivates knowledge of the environmental functions of farming, such as land preservation, landscape formation and the conservation of biodiversity.

Involvement in CBT encourages communities to protect the environment, biodiversity and natural resources, as these attract tourists. For example, Sardiana and Purnawan (2015) found evidence that the development of CBT activities had helped the indigenous people of Tenganan Dauh Tukad, a village in Bali (Indonesia), understand the importance of preserving the environment. The local community committed to the sustainable use of resources for tourism purposes and implemented measures to protect the environment. These efforts yielded economic benefits (which were distributed equally) and promoted the community's ownership of the CBT activities. In addition, increased awareness of how cultural heritage can help attract tourists also encouraged the community to preserve their own customs and culture (Sardiana and Purnawan, 2015).

CBT can play a major role in the conservation of the natural environment, particularly when the focus is on ecotourism. Ecotourism combines tourism activities with efforts towards the conservation of the environment. It provides ecological experiences to travellers while promoting the sustainable use of resources and aiming to protect biodiversity (Kiper, 2013). For example, Bansil *et al*. (2015) document how the ecotourism experiences offered by the residents of Lobo (in the province of Batangas, in the Philippines), while fun and


© Shutterstock/Soul Free Images

invigorating for travellers, contributed to preserving the local ecosystem, protecting endangered species and improving waste management by both local residents and tourists.

The growing demand for "green" activities by visitors strengthens local communities' commitment to the conservation of the natural resources. Although many local communities already have a strong tradition of respect for nature, involvement in CBT initiatives can raise environmental awareness and lead to the improved management of local forests, grazing lands and other natural resources. This may counter the decline in local vegetable species in many parts of the world resulting from the widespread cultivation of exotic crops, which sometimes involves the use of herbicides to eliminate wild, nutritious and indigenous vegetables (Giampiccoli and Kalis, 2012).

CHAPTER 6: Challenges facing the development of agrifood-tourism linkages

KEY MESSAGES

- Efforts to strengthen linkages between farmers and tourism operators face multiple barriers. These barriers can be grouped into four categories: barriers on the supply side, barriers on the demand side, marketing constraints and issues related to the enabling environment.
- The expansion of agrifood tourism can lead to additional pressures on natural resources, the creation of an extra workload (particularly for women), the commoditization and de-authentication of tourism experiences, and conflicts within local communities that engage in agrifood tourism.
- The sustainable development of agrifood tourism in the Asian-Pacific region is hindered by various factors, including a lack of (tourism) business skills, insufficient investments and (youth) labour migration to urban areas.
- A major source of challenges lies in failures in the enabling environment for agrifood tourism and farmer-tourism linkages, whether these pertains to the lack of infrastructure (including ICT) or failures in policy, regulatory and institutional frameworks (which are often fragmented and outdated, and lack an integrated approach).
- Despite the manifold potential benefits of enhancing agrifood-tourism linkages, their development may cause various negative externalities, including environmental degradation and congestion, overtourism, increased food imports and the creation of (food) waste.
- Agrifood tourism in Asia and the Pacific is facing a number of threats caused by *inter alia* climate change and the COVID-19 crisis. The pandemic has severely disrupted the tourism sector, with a massive fall in international demand. This has pushed many countries to focus on domestic tourism, and especially agrifood tourism, and develop strategies to improve the sustainability of the tourism sector.

This chapter studies the factors that hamper the development and undermine the sustainability of agrifood tourism and farming-tourism linkages. It is divided into three sections. Section 6.1 studies the obstacles that can hinder the establishment of farming-tourism linkages. Section 6.2 analyses the multiple challenges that may hinder the growth of agrifood tourism. Failures in the enabling environment are especially important in this respect, and are therefore studied separately in Section 6.3. Section 6.4 discusses the potential negative externalities of the development of the agrifood sector, while Section 6.5 analyses the threats posed by the impacts of climate change and the COVID-19 outbreak.

The study of the major challenges and potential areas for improvement of agrifood tourism in Asia and the Pacific helps agrifood tourism marketers, destination managers, policymakers and other stakeholders to design strategies to develop sustainable tourism experiences and strengthen the status of all partners involved in the agritourism value chain (Rauniyar *et al.*, 2021).

6.1. BARRIERS TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF FARMING–TOURISM LINKAGES

Multiple barriers can hinder the purchasing of locally produced food by the hospitality sector in Asia and the Pacific. An overview of the barriers identified through the FAO survey of tourism establishments in six countries in the region was provided in Chapter 2. This section complements that analysis with information for other countries found in the literature.

While certain tourism publications sing the praises of direct tourism–farming linkages, multiple sources argue that optimism about the ability of local food producers to supply tourism establishments needs to be tempered with a sense of realism (see e.g. FAO, 2007; Vorley, Fearne and Ray, 2007; Sharma *et al.*, 2013; CTA, 2016a). Some researchers even argue that the potential benefits of tourism–farming linkages rarely materialize (Timms and Neill, 2011; Torres and Momsen, 2011; CTA, 2017; Scheyvens and Laeis, 2021). This argument is based on the multitude of barriers that can inhibit the development of linkages between local food producers and tourism buyers (Torres and Momsen, 2004; Berno, 2011). Scheyvens and Laeis (2021) group these inhibiting factors into four categories: factors on the supply side, factors on the demand side, marketing (or intermediary) constraints and issues related to the enabling environment. Figure 38 provides an overview of the barriers identified through the FAO survey and in the literature.

FIGURE 38

Common barriers to building linkages between farmers and tourism operators

SUPPLY-SIDE BARRIERS	DEMAND-SIDE BARRIERS	MARKETING ISSUES	ENABLING ENVIR. ISSUES
• Inability of local farmers to meet the requirements of the hospitality industry in terms of the consistency of supply, quantity, quality, price, food safety and traceability, • among others; • Local farmers' lack of ability to organize themselves into farmer groups; • Decrease in food production for domestic consumption resulting from the promotion of export-oriented agriculture and competitive pressure from food imports; and • Decline in agrobiodiversity and impacts of climate change.	• Characteristics of the tourism sector demand (e.g. seasonality of the demand, quality and safety requirements, bias in favour of Western ingredients) that do not facilitate the development of linkages with local food suppliers; • High transaction costs of working with local suppliers and smallholder farmers (e.g. the need to provide advisory services, financing and other forms of support, side selling by farmers); • Lack of skills to organize local farmers into groups; • Centralized procurement policies that do not allow local sourcing, or decentralized procurement policies that are not smallholder-friendly; • High rotation of international chefs, which hinders their understanding of what is available locally and restricts their ability to work with local supply networks; and • The "grow-your-own" trend, whereby hospitality operators cultivate their own produce on-site, reducing the need for external sourcing.	• Fragmented and inefficient collection and distribution systems; and • Supply disruptions caused by COVID-19, global supply chain issues, the increased occurrence of extreme weather events, and other factors.	• Lack of extension services; • Inadequate transport and communication infrastructure; • Lack of infrastructure/ facilities in local food supply chains, including transportation, processing and storage; • Underfinancing and a lack of investment in agriculture; and • Preference for export-oriented agriculture to increase foreign earnings.

Source: authors' elaboration, based on the findings of the FAO survey and on the literature review.

Supply-side barriers

Supply-side barriers to the development of farming–tourism linkages are manifold; they mostly relate to inadequate quality, quantity and consistency of the local food supply. For example, a study conducted by the International Finance Corporation (IFC) (2018a) in Fiji revealed that local farmers were unable to meet the requirements of hoteliers in terms of the consistency of supplies (of fruits and vegetables, dairy and seafood), quality (for dairy, meat and seafood) and food safety (for meat and seafood).

As demonstrated by the FAO survey, there is often a quality gap between what the hospitality industry demands and what local farmers can provide. Food tourism focuses on high-quality dining experiences, and tourism businesses therefore tend to apply high quality standards for fresh produce, meat, fish and other food items that may be purchased locally in response to visitors' expectations. However, local smallholder producers are often unable to comply with these quality parameters and are thus excluded from the tourism supply chain (Long, 2013). The quality gap may result from multiple factors, including farmers' lack of proper infrastructure or insufficient understanding of post-harvest handling techniques.

In addition, the food safety procedures implemented by local suppliers often do not meet buyers' expectations, especially for dairy, meat and seafood. In Fiji, for example, a large share of meat and seafood is imported, with hoteliers complaining that there are not enough local suppliers with official food safety certifications (IFC, 2018a). Imported items, which have been processed and packaged abroad, are often perceived as cleaner and safer.

Another recurrent issue is the inconsistency of local food supplies. One of the major concerns of the tourism sector is the scarcity of fresh raw materials, especially during the off-season (Kuang and Bhat, 2017). This scarcity is usually caused by failures in the communication with local producers or by difficulties related to agricultural production or transportation. Such difficulties may be caused, for example, by the outbreak of plant or animal diseases, water scarcity or climate change. They may increase the costs of local produce, and thereby the price of the meals offered to tourists, resulting in dissatisfaction. Buyers who struggle to fill orders – maybe even at the last minute – are discouraged from purchasing from local suppliers in the future.

At the core of these supply issues is the fact that many local producers and suppliers are simply too small, asset-poor and unorganized. The absence of economies of scale limits the access of smallholder farmers to credit, technology and markets (FAO, 2007; Rhiney, 2011), affects their ability to meet price, quantity and frequency requirements (Kelly, 2008; Rhiney, 2011), adopt the quality standards demanded by the tourism industry and guarantee consistent supplies (Brown, 2003).

Small-scale farmers usually lack both the skills and the equipment necessary to produce the large volumes required by tourism operators. They also tend to lack the skills needed to identify potential buyers, penetrate markets and develop marketing strategies to entice chefs and purchasing managers to try their products. Most farmers have little understanding of the purchasing requirements of tourism businesses, such as the need for electronic invoices or credit provision, or quality, packaging and delivery standards. These barriers are no different from those facing smallholder farmers trying to access other high-value markets with stringent rules regarding quality, traceability and other factors (FAO, 2007).

The observation that smallholder farmers find it difficult to comply with the demands of the tourism sector holds especially true for Pacific Island states, which are characterized by limited land mass, remoteness, infrastructural challenges and poor connectivity (CTA, 2017). Scheyvens and Laeis (2021) add that in the Pacific, the agriculture and fisheries sector is already facing a number of challenges of its own, including *inter alia* a decrease in the production of food for domestic consumption resulting from a focus on export-driven agriculture and competitive pressure from food imports, a preference for imported Western foods and a decline in agrobiodiversity.

Demand-side barriers

The demand-side barriers to the development of farming–tourism linkages are also manifold. Whereas many tourism actors are aware of the importance of sourcing locally, they often struggle to procure local agricultural supplies in substantial volumes. In addition, their demand is often seasonal and mirrors tourist

preferences that can be at odds with local production systems (Scheyvens and Laeis, 2021). Tourism operators who decide to source food locally often discover that a shorter supply chain does not necessarily mean a less complicated one. Indeed, working with a large number of unorganized small local farmers can bring its own set of challenges (particularly when it comes to food safety and traceability), leading to high transaction costs. The level of these costs is determined by the nature of the product (e.g. perishable or non-perishable foods, differentiated products or undifferentiated commodities) and the organizational and other capacities of local farmers (Vorley, Lundy and MacGregor, 2008). Rather than bearing the costs of working with multiple small suppliers, many chefs and purchasing managers prefer dealing with just one or two suppliers who can service most of their fresh produce requirements (FAO, 2016).

In addition to the high transaction costs, tourism businesses may need to provide farmers with advisory services, financing or other support to ensure adequate supplies. However, farmers who are giving such support may decide to sell to other competing buyers instead of honouring contracts with hotels or restaurants (extracontractual marketing or side selling).

Other demand-related constraints arise from the fact that the tourism industry is dominated by high-end hotels that often have centralized purchasing policies, whereby headquarters negotiate centrally with suppliers to simplify the negotiation process and obtain lower prices. Hotels belonging to a chain can often order only from these centrally contracted suppliers and are thus prevented from sourcing locally. Even in the case of decentralized supply policies, hotels may select their suppliers based on monthly or annual tendering systems, which are rarely smallholder-friendly (Vorley, Fearne and Ray, 2007).

A study in Fiji (IFC, 2018a) found that a key demand-side impediment is the lack of knowledge of chefs about the availability of locally grown produce, particularly in high-end, international hotels. Indeed, chefs in these hotels are typically on three- to five-year contracts, and move regularly. This means that they tend to lack a deep understanding of the availability of local fresh produce. Another reason why high-end hotels may be reluctant to source food locally is fear of non-compliance with food safety requirements and of fraud (Han *et al*., 2020), particularly in high-value supply chains (e.g. for seafood) where traceability systems are lacking. Rhiney (2011) adds that high-end, foreign-owned hotels often prefer cheaper imports over local food supplies.

CTA (2020) concurs that the main stumbling blocks that discourage the tourism industry from sourcing more food locally include local suppliers' frequent failure to meet commercial expectations, respond to travellers' preferences and ensure compliance with food safety regulations. Tourism operators often foresee a larger allowance in their cost structure for food safety testing when they source locally than when they purchase from a limited number of large suppliers.

Scheyvens and Laeis (2021) document the challenges that chefs are facing to incorporate local products into mainstream resort menus in Fiji. These challenges stem from the food procurement systems of hotels under international management, which do not favour partnering with local producers, as well as from the scarcity of skilled chefs who could cope with more creative, evolving menus. In addition, tourists generally do not consider the Pacific Islands, including Fiji, as culinary destinations, and therefore do not seek out local foods (Berno, 2011). Indeed, hotel menus in Fiji and other Pacific countries have a bias towards Western dishes, which typically require imported ingredients. There is also a "grow-your-own" trend in high-end resorts, whereby a limited range of fresh produce is grown on-site in hotel gardens, reducing the need to link with local farmers (Reno, 2011).

Marketing barriers

Marketing issues pertain to the lack of intermediary support structures that enable buyers and suppliers to come together, as well as questionable practices of food intermediaries and the lack of ancillary services such as transportation and storage (Rogerson, 2012; UNCTAD, 2014; Scheyvens and Laeis, 2021).

Indeed, the supply- and demand-side problems faced by local farmers to supply the tourism industry are compounded by the fragmentation and inefficiency of collection and distribution systems (Rogerson, 2012). These failures can result in the damaging of local fresh produce during transportation or storage, and may

have serious implications for food safety and hygiene. Another implication is that buyers do not always have a direct line of communication with local producers to explain product preferences and requirements. On top of these problems, there are marketing issues caused by COVID-19, global supply chain disruptions and interlinked crises, and the increasing occurrence of extreme weather events that affect logistics and distribution.

Barriers related to the enabling environment

Any efforts by tourism establishments to work with local farmers and fisherfolk will yield limited results if the enabling environment that governments provide is unfavourable to the development of such market linkages (FAO, 2007). Lacunae in the enabling environment, such as poor transportation, storage and communication facilities, often exacerbate the mismatch between supply and demand (UNCTAD, 2014). Other issues include the absence of extension services, underfinancing and a lack of investment in agriculture, and a preference for export-oriented agriculture to increase foreign earnings, among others (FAO, 2007; Scheyvens and Laeis, 2021).

Section 6.3 analyses problems arising from the enabling environment in more detail, while Chapter 7 provides recommendations on how to address such barriers. Chapter 8 describes a set of actions that can improve smallholder farmers' abilities to serve the tourism industry and stimulate the demand for local, high-quality food products.

6.2. FACTORS HAMPERING THE DEVELOPMENT OF AGRIFOOD TOURISM

Agrifood tourism operators in Asia and the Pacific face several challenges that hamper their ability to offer food- and agriculture-based tourism experiences, and consequently to diversify their income sources and earn additional revenues (Yang, 2012).

A lack of entrepreneurial skills and knowledge of the tourism sector is a common obstacle for individuals and enterprises seeking to launch an agrifood tourism operation (Getz, Carlsen and Morrison, 2004; Iorio and Corsale, 2010). This issue particularly affects farmers interested in running an agritourism business, who would need to learn specific business and tourism skills, and sometimes even enhance their farming skills. They may also struggle to understand the expectations of tourists, which may result in inadequate promotion activities and a mismatch between tourism offerings and travellers' expectations (Addinsall *et al.*, 2017). This lack of understanding is often exacerbated by a lack of knowledge of agroecology and modern agricultural technologies, which is required to meet the requirements of eco-conscious tourists (Li and Shen, 2012). Agritourism owners must also learn about the host of laws and regulations they must comply with, such as food safety and hygiene standards, and obtaining permits and licenses for agritourism activities.

The **lack of capital** constitutes an important barrier (Yang, 2012). Like any other business activity, agrifood tourism operations require initial investments. Agritourism farms, for example, must invest in adequate farm accommodation, build skills, organize resources and attract customers through marketing. The majority of farmers in the Asia-Pacific region are financially weak and may find that these investments are beyond their means or not commensurate with the potential returns (Lybbert and Sumner, 2012). The same applies to CBT operators and other small-scale agrifood tourism businesses.

The **additional workload** may also pose a challenge for many agrifood tourism operators, and notably agritourism and CBT operators. Managing both the farming and the tourism aspects of agritourism operations is often time-consuming. If not addressed properly, this can lead to a decrease in agricultural

TABLE 2

Factors hampering the sustainable development of agrifood tourism

Type of challenge	Examples
Lack of entrepreneurial skills and of knowledge of the tourism sector	• Lack of entrepreneurial skills, particularly business management and (digital) marketing skills, and inadequate financial literacy; • Poor understanding of tourists' expectations, which may result in inadequate tourism offerings and ineffective promotional activities; • Lack of customer service skills and language skills; • Lack of knowledge about regulations and liability risks associated with agrifood tourism operations; and • Lack of knowledge regarding food handling and hygiene.
Lack of capital	• Lack of capital for investments in tourism facilities, marketing and other goods and services required.
Additional workload	• The combination of two activities (e.g. farming and running an agritourism operation) can create an additional workload, particularly for women.
Food supply disruptions	• Agrifood tourism operators can face food supply disruptions resulting from product seasonality, shortages during peak tourist periods, etc.
Increased competition for natural resources	• Excessive, uncontrolled growth of this tourism segment can put additional pressures on agricultural and other natural resources. • Because of this increased competition over natural resources, exclusionary forces may be at play.
Youth migration to urban centres	• The migration of youths to urban areas may result in traditional farming practices (agroheritage) and food heritage being forgotten, land being abandoned and endemic species and breeds being lost.
Commoditization and de-authentication of tourism experiences	• Agrifood tourism operators may stage authenticity to conform to what they think tourists want, which may result in the "touristification" of gastronomy, agritourism, agroheritage sites, etc. • The commoditization of local traditions may eventually affect the quality of tourism experiences, with villages and agroheritage sites turned into "museums" overwhelmed by tourists.
Inability of local communities to manage tourism ventures independently	• Local communities may lack the skills necessary to manage agrifood experiences, which may lead to an overdependence on external assistance and a loss of social capital and community cohesion.

Source: authors' own elaboration.

BOX 19

Agritourism: a double-edged sword for female farmers in rural Oita, Japan

Oita is a rural area of the island of Kyushu in southwest Japan, blessed with many agricultural attractions. Hashimoto and Telfer (2011) conducted a study in this isolated area, and more specifically on the Kunisaki peninsula, where women have taken the lead in establishing on-farm agritourism centres to generate additional income. Although the work on the farm tends to be shared equally between husband and wife, domestic responsibilities and the operation of the agritourism enterprises fall mostly on women. Consequently, agritourism has not only brought blessings (e.g. new sources of income, empowerment and social cohesion) but also challenges for women, who have seen their overall workload increase dramatically. Indeed, on top of managing bookings, cooking and attending to guests, they are also expected to continue to perform their traditional roles on the farm and in the household.

Female farmers repeatedly cited the challenges of balancing the demands from family members, the farm and the agritourism business. This conflict worsens during the peak seasons for tourism and farming, which overlap in time and coincide with school and national holidays. Thus, female farmers start the day early to prepare breakfast and work in the fields, then make lunch for guests and family members, perform household chores, and entertain visitors after supper.

Many of the participants in the study were in their seventies and still working full-time as farmers. The researchers concluded that farmers in that age bracket were accustomed to the traditional gender division of labour, whereby men are the sole decision-makers on the farm, yet women perform over 60 percent of all farm work and shoulder all household chores. These gender roles are firmly rooted in Kunisaki communities, who also have a history of geographical isolation.

Some lessons can be drawn from the study of agritourism on the Kunisaki peninsula for policymakers across the region. When devising agritourism strategies, governments should take due account of the socioeconomic conditions and cultural traditions of the farming communities involved. Across Asia and the Pacific, there are aging farming communities where women bear the main responsibility for both domestic and field work, and the operation of agritourism establishments. Thus, agritourism initiatives require a well-structured, gender-sensitive public support system, together with strategies aimed at empowering female farmers through skill development and enhanced access to financing and (digital) marketing tools.

Source:
Hashimoto, A. and Telfer, D.J. 2011. Female empowerment through agriculture in rural Japan? In R.M. Torres and J.H. Momsen, eds. Tourism and agriculture: new geographies of production and rural restructuring, pp. 72–84. London, Routledge.

labour time or to poor performance in the tourism sphere, or both (Rauniyar *et al.*, 2021).[63] The extra work of running an agritourism establishment is often assumed by women, whereas male family members rarely help; this may lead to increased gender inequality (Hashimoto and Telfer, 2011) (see Box 19).

63 A possible solution comes from the Republic of Korea, where certain rural communities have founded social enterprises to manage their ecotourism businesses, which allows farmers to focus on their main farming business (M. Kang of the Global Sustainable Tourism Council, personal communication, 2021).

Kuang and Bhat (2017) argue that food tourism operations – much like agritourism farms and other types of agricultural tourism businesses – can be affected by **food shortages** during the peak tourist period. Disruptions in the supply of food to tourist destinations can also be caused by the seasonality of production or by shortages resulting from crop or livestock diseases or droughts, floods or other climate change impacts. Changes in food safety regulations or in their enforcement can also result in temporary disruptions of the tourism supply chain.

Another challenge faced by this type of tourism is **increased competition for natural resources,** which constitute the foundation of many agrifood tourism experiences (Jiao *et al.*, 2016). As agritourism develops into a large and dynamic tourism segment, investors may scramble for the most appealing locations and resources; such a spiral of uncontrolled growth may result in increased pressure on the environment (Sznajder, Przezbórska and Scrimgeour, 2009). Meanwhile, poorly managed agroheritage tourism and overtourism can degrade the same environment that these agroheritage sites try to preserve. For example, the large numbers of visitors to the subak areas in Bali, Indonesia, are negatively affecting the environment. Big portions of agricultural land have been allocated to the construction of tourism facilities, such as hotels and restaurants. Should this phenomenon continue, the subak-irrigated areas could continue to shrink, and some could even disappear (Sunarta, Nugroho and Adikampana, 2021).

The **competition for economic resources** can lead to the exclusion of small farmers. Smallholder farmers may be pushed out of the agritourism market by large-scale providers with more capital and better access to markets and pools of skilled human resources. Thus, the development of inclusive, overall beneficial farming–tourism linkages may require financial support and action from the part of governments (Sharpley and Sharpley, 1997).

The **loss of workforce, and especially youth labour,** in rural areas as a result of urban migration is among the main challenges hampering the development of agrifood tourism (see Kuang and Bhat, 2017). This is very much the case of some traditional agricultural systems recognized under the GIAHS and UNESCO programmes (Jiao *et al.*, 2016). Across the Asia–Pacific region, the ability of GIAHS and UNESCO sites to adapt to the demands of modernization has been put to the test by economic and societal changes, with traditional values fading away and youths migrating to urban areas. In many places, systemic migration from agroheritage sites to urban areas has resulted in traditional farming practices being forgotten, protected land abandoned and endemic species and breeds being lost. For example, in Japan, the aging of ume farmers is a serious concern to the government of the Minabe–Tanabe area. As there are few younger farmers taking over, the orchards risk being abandoned, which threatens the sustainability of this agroheritage site. To avert this danger, the Minabe–Tanabe Regional Association for GIAHS Promotion is trying to promote agroheritage tourism in the area (Y. Taira, personal communication, 2021).

There is a risk that the key features of agroheritage sites, such as culture and landscape, are converted into mere assets for tourism (Jiao *et al.*, 2016, Kajihara *et al.*, 2018), leading to the **commoditization and de-authentication of tourism experiences.** Indeed, instead of genuineness and tradition, visitors to rural communities may find staged authenticity if locals adapt and commodify their gastronomy and agricultural traditions to what they think tourists want. Authenticity can also be threatened when CBT projects involve private sector actors, especially in the hospitality sector (Giampiccoli, Mnguni and Dłużewska, 2020).

The risk of the loss of authenticity is especially relevant in the case of GIAHS and UNESCO's cultural landscapes. Here, agricultural traditions are not static, but must evolve to keep up with the modernization of agricultural practices – without losing their authenticity. The pressure faced by farmers to generate enough financial resources to be able to stay on their lands may lead to the "museumification" and overrunning by tourists of their villages (Wang and Marafa, 2021).

In the case of the Ifugao rice terraces, for example, there are tensions between the development of the area for tourism and the preservation of the environment and the rituals associated with rice planting. Agricultural activities on the terraces have been co-opted by the tourism industry (for example in the form of festivals), resulting in the commoditization of agricultural and religious rituals, which are now staged at the wrong times of the year, just for tourist consumption (UNESCO, 2008; Cagat, 2018). In the case of the Honghe Hani rice terraces, the high number of visitors flocking to the area has resulted in traffic problems on dangerous dirt roads (Wang and Marafa, 2021).

A community-centred approach to the development of tourism can help overcome these challenges and avoid the deterioration of the environment. Careful planning is required to create synergies between the agriculture and tourism sectors that benefit rural communities, help protect ecosystems and promote the conservation of agroheritage systems.

Local communities may face challenges in managing tourism projects independently. Many communities lack knowledge of the management of tourism activities, such as building markets and ensuring customer satisfaction. Tourism is far from an ideal entry-level sector for rural communities with little previous business experience. It is a highly competitive and demanding sector, and businesses can take years to develop; even entrepreneurs with considerable experience can fail to make a profit. In addition, the introduction of tourism in an inexperienced, rural community may disturb regular working patterns, leading to the neglect of traditional activities such as agriculture (Stronza and Gordillo, 2008).

Local communities often require external assistance to organize themselves, obtain and assert legal rights and understand their obligations in partnerships. Joint ventures between community groups and private tourism operators, which are becoming increasingly popular, may have the greatest potential for generating significant revenues for communities. They could also be more likely to succeed than fully community-run enterprises, particularly in the early stages (Kiss, 2004).

Poorly conceived CBT initiatives can result in a loss of social capital and community cohesion. Conflicts may arise between members of the community over financial and power issues. CBT projects run the risk of being monopolized by a particular group, leading to the unequal distribution of the economic and social benefits within the community. Other CBT initiatives treat the entire community as a homogenous block of people, which does not correspond with reality (Rey Bolaños, 2014).

There can also be lack of transparency and insufficient involvement of local communities in CBT initiatives. For example, Sakata and Prideaux (2013) observed how local communities on Fergusson Island, in the Milne Bay province of Papua New Guinea, initially struggled to get behind a CBT project as they felt that not enough information was filtering through to the wider community from guesthouse owners and managers (Sakata and Prideaux, 2013). Box 20 presents the example of the village of Houay Kaeng, in Lao People's Democratic Republic, to demonstrate the importance of community engagement.

BOX 20

Community-based ecotourism in the village of Houay Kaeng, Lao People's Democratic Republic

Park, Phandanouvong and Kim (2018) studied the implementation of a community-based ecotourism project in the small village of Houay Kaeng in the rural northwestern Lao province of Sayabouly. The authors report that community members who were given the opportunity to actively participate in the planning and management of the project were generally those with higher levels of education, which helped them engage with regional governments and undertake the training required as part of the approval process of community-based ecotourism initiatives. In contrast, the large so-called passive participant group primarily serviced the needs of travellers through the supply of handicrafts, the provision of sauna and massage services and the preparation of meals.

The study does not describe the characteristics of the members of the two groups in detail. It does, however, allude to the fact that when the project in Houay Kaeng was established, it was done in a way to fit in with existing social structures in the community. The success of community-based ecotourism initiatives indeed depends on their ability to work with existing leadership structures in local communities. Meanwhile, community leaders must spread the results of good leadership throughout the entire community.

Source:
Park, E., Phandanouvong, T. and Kim, S. 2018. Evaluating participation in community-based tourism: a local perspective in Laos. Current Issues in Tourism, 21(2): 128–132. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2017.1323851

6.3. ENABLING ENVIRONMENT ISSUES

Lacunae in the enabling environment are failures in the provision of infrastructure and in policy, legal, regulatory and institutional frameworks that hinder the sustainable development of agrifood tourism.

Although many requirements of the tourism industry may be met by general interventions to improve the overall business environment in a country, there are specific disabling factors that affect tourism in particular (UNWTO, 2013). These disabling factors are magnified in rural, peripheral areas that are disconnected from the main tourism circuits – which is precisely where agrifood tourism often takes place. Enabling environment issues hindering the development of agrifood tourism are described in the remainder of this chapter, whereas Chapter 7 and Chapter 8 offer examples and guidance on how these challenges can be addressed.

Infrastructure

As is the case for any tourism modality, agrifood tourism relies on various types of infrastructure, including transport infrastructure (air, port and road infrastructure), internet and communications technology (ICT) infrastructure, energy and water infrastructure, and tourism infrastructure, such as hotels. Transport and ICT connectivity are essential enablers for the tourism sector, which is both a user and a driver of their development. While East Asia boasts world-class transport and ICT infrastructure, the connectivity of agricultural and food tourism destinations across the region remains largely inadequate (WEF, 2019).

Transport infrastructure is essential to facilitate the movement of tourists to and within agricultural and food destinations, enhance visitor satisfaction and help spread the socioeconomic benefits of tourism

(OECD, 2020). The higher the quality of roads and railways, the less burdensome it is for tourists to travel to agrifood destinations. Meanwhile, aerial ropeways and lifts are critical infrastructure elements in less accessible, mountainous and terraced areas. For example, the construction of a cable car was a crucial element in the rapid development of tourism in Dazhai, in the area of the Longji terraces, China (see Chapter 5).

The Asian–Pacific region has the world's most developed air transport infrastructure and is showing the greatest improvements in ground and port infrastructure (WEF, 2019). However, there remain large variations in this regard between countries in the region. While the eastern Asia–Pacific region has an impressive transport infrastructure network, other subregions suffer from limited air travel connectivity and have underdeveloped road and rail networks, which constrains the development of agrifood tourism (WEF, 2019). Maldives, Mongolia, Papua New Guinea and Solomon Islands are among the countries in the region with the lowest road accessibility levels. Less than 20 percent of rural residents in these countries have access to paved roads within a two kilometre radius (World Bank, 2020).

The transport infrastructure in many secondary and emerging tourism destinations remains inadequate, both in terms of quantity (insufficient coverage) and quality (e.g. lack of climate proofing). This deters tourists from visiting rural areas where most forms of agrifood tourism are likely to be developed, and discourages private investors from developing tourism services in these areas. The result is the concentration of visitors in urban centres and low visitor presence in rural areas. For instance, Yangon receives more than 90 percent of Myanmar's international overnight visitors, Bangkok receives 60 percent of Thailand's visitors, and 53 percent of Cambodia's visitors congregate in Siem Reap (MTCO, 2017).

Emerging rural destinations with remarkable agrifood tourism attractions but underdeveloped transport infrastructure and tourism services risk being overwhelmed by surging tourist numbers, resulting in congestion, economic losses and environmental degradation (MTCO, 2017). Moreover, the lack of adequate transport infrastructure in these areas can also result in high shipping costs and food losses when sourcing food, and especially perishable food products (Momsen and Torres, 2011; Economic Research Institute for ASEAN and East Asia, 2019).

Energy and water infrastructure are also highly important infrastructure systems for agrifood tourism. There are still countries in Asia and the Pacific where access levels to electricity and piped water in rural areas are low, though urban rates are higher (World Bank, 2020). Power outages – frequent in many rural areas throughout the region – are a major constraint that forces hotels, restaurants and other tourism operations to use expensive generators as a backup.

ICT connectivity and readiness has become a decisive factor in the tourism arena. Consumers increasingly use ICT to organize and book their travels, and digital technologies have become powerful tools for tourism businesses to reach new markets, build a brand, engage travellers, facilitate transactions and position tourism destinations (OECD, 2020). Thus, tourism destinations and businesses that do not improve their connectivity risk being left behind (WEF, 2019).

The Asia–Pacific region has become the second most competitive region globally in terms of ICT readiness, after Europe and Eurasia (WEF, 2019). ICT readiness measures both the existence of modern hard infrastructure (i.e. mobile network coverage and the reliability of the electricity supply) and the capacity of businesses and individuals to use and provide online services. ICT readiness is a competitive element that strongly promotes the development of agrifood tourism. It has been strengthened by the rapid increase in internet services through both fixed and mobile networks. In Asia and the Pacific, the number of active mobile broadband subscriptions went up by 130 percent from 2015 to 2021, reaching 87 per 100 inhabitants in 2021 (just above the global average of 83) (International Telecommunication Union [ITU], 2023).

Despite this remarkable progress, important blind spots remain. While virtually all urban areas in the region are covered by a mobile broadband network, worrying gaps in connectivity and internet access persist in rural areas. Only 39 percent of rural dwellers in the region used the internet in 2020, compared to 74.6 percent of urban dwellers (ITU, 2023). The lack of ICT infrastructure in rural areas should be addressed as it not only hinders the development of agrifood tourism, but also constrains the formation of farming–tourism linkages (Milne and Mason, 2000).

In addition, there is a need to address the digital divide that exists within countries in Asia and the Pacific in relation to gender, age and socioeconomic status. In 2020, 53.6 percent of all women in the region used the internet, compared to 58.7 percent of all men. That same year, 71.7 percent of people aged 15 to 24 used the internet, compared to 53.2 percent of the rest of the population (ITU, 2023). These differences affect the potential participation in agrifood tourism of specific groups within the population.

The region also faces challenges regarding the development of tourism services infrastructure. WEF (2019) measures the availability of this infrastructure based on the number of hotel rooms, combined with access to services such as car rentals and automated teller machines. The availability of quality accommodation and the presence of resorts and entertainment facilities are also key contributing factors to the competitiveness of a tourism destination.

Restrooms are also an essential element of the **tourism services infrastructure**. For example, one of the many infrastructure-related investments made by the local government to develop tourism around the Qingtian GIAHS site in China was improving toilet facilities (FAO, 2012b; Bin, Yehong and Wenjun, 2021). Eco-friendly restrooms with a reduced water footprint can help protect the natural environment on which GIAHS and ecotourism sites rely (Gössling *et al.*, 2012).

Countries in the Asia–Pacific region have made considerable strides to improve their tourism services infrastructure. For example, foreign investors have invested heavily in accommodation and other tourism infrastructure in the Lao People's Democratic Republic in recent years, attracting 7 percent of greenfield foreign direct investment from 2004 to 2018 (IFC, 2021). Another country that has attracted significant foreign investment in tourism services infrastructure in recent years is Myanmar, while Cambodia, Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Viet Nam and other ASEAN members have witnessed an increasing presence of luxury hotel brands. Such investments should be leveraged to promote key tourism destinations (ASEAN, 2017).

However, most Southeast Asian and South Asian countries still require considerable improvements to meet global benchmarks for tourism services infrastructure (WEF, 2019). Bangladesh and Nepal rank in the bottom quartile for tourism services infrastructure of WEF's Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index, while countries such as Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Mongolia, the Philippines, Sri Lanka and Viet Nam continue to score below the global average (WEF, 2019). In the top quartile are countries with excellent tourist services infrastructure such as Japan, the Republic of Korea and Thailand (WEF, 2019).

Pacific Small Island Development States (SIDS) are not included in WEF's ranking. However, other studies found that the tourism services infrastructure in many Pacific SIDS is limited, and that hotels are on average smaller than those in other regions (World Bank, 2016; IFC, 2020). In 2016, there were fewer than 60 hotels in Pacific SIDS with more than 100 rooms. Fiji is an exception to this, as the country has many high-end resorts (both independent and internationally branded), as well as mid-range and budget accommodations. Meanwhile, accommodation offerings in Papua New Guinea, from resorts in the main tourist areas to community homestays, have grown (Word Bank, 2016).

The majority of sector competitiveness assessments and tourism strategies are biased towards large-scale tourism services infrastructure. However, in destinations throughout Asia and the Pacific, a high share of tourism services are provided by MSMEs (which are often family-owned), particularly in emerging and developing economies. In Fiji and Thailand, for example, MSMEs comprise more than 90 percent of firms in the hospitality sector (IFC, 2020; International Monetary Fund, 2021). The presence of MSMEs is even more evident when considering accommodation offerings related to agrifood tourism, such as agritourism and agriculture-related CBT.

In 2020, investments in accommodation infrastructure in Asia and the Pacific decreased as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, with many projects being put on hold or cancelled. The pandemic has especially affected MSMEs involved in tourism, which have less resilience and diversification options to deal with shocks owing to their size and limited access to finance compared to, for example, large international hotels (Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific [ESCAP], 2021a).

Policy frameworks

The development of agrifood tourism and farmer–tourism linkages needs to be supported by policies and programmes that aim to realize the benefits that can derive from the interface between agriculture and tourism (Torres and Momsen, 2011). This is especially important in many Asian and Pacific countries, where agriculture and tourism are major revenue generating industries with multiplier effects on the economy, and where agrifood tourism offers many opportunities to achieve a more inclusive and geographically and temporally diverse tourism sector (OECD, 2020).

Countries in the region are beginning to acknowledge that their policies towards agrifood tourism are fragmented and outdated, and lack a common vision and understanding of all the actors involved. To remedy this situation, governments may implement tailor-made policies to boost the development of agritourism, gastronomy tourism or other modalities of agrifood tourism, and foster the formation of farming–tourism linkages. Chapter 8 provides examples of such initiatives in the region.

The COVID-19 crisis has placed the imperative to stimulate domestic tourism high on the policy agenda. Policies, strategies and programmes must create tailored food and agricultural tourism experiences for local and domestic visitors, and not only focus on regional and international visitors. The pandemic has also presented an opportunity to rethink tourism policies and ensure that they deliver sustainable tourism growth, avoiding the mistakes of the pre-COVID-19 era (OECD, 2021).

Legislative frameworks

Various legislative frameworks directly or indirectly affect tourism, given the sector's complex, multidimensional nature. These frameworks include laws related to the protection of tourists, border controls, quality of services, labour conditions, the protection of environment, the conservation of historical sites and monuments, tourism industry regulations and the relationship between the various segments of the travel and tourism industry (European Commission, 2022). Governments use a wide variety of measures to ensure that tourism operators comply with these legal requirements, including licensing, certification and registration systems (OECD, 2020).

The laws that have a bearing on tourism operations in countries in Asia and the Pacific are a combination of local, national and international regulations that affect various aspects of the industry. Some countries in the region have laws specifically govern the tourism sector, such as Viet Nam (legislation passed in 2005), the Lao People's Democratic Republic (2006), Thailand (2008), Cambodia (2009), the Philippines (2009) and China (2013).[64]

Despite the considerable progress made in recent years, the lack of a clear, robust and standardized regulatory framework for the tourism sector is still considered as one of the main barriers affecting the competitiveness of the sector in ASEAN countries (ASEAN, 2015), the Pacific (ADB and Private Sector Development Initiative, 2018), China (Cao, 2015) and India (Suresh and Suryakiran, 2019), among others.

This challenge partially stems from the fact that tourism is a multifaceted sector, and that seemingly unconnected regulations (e.g. by government departments and statutory bodies) can therefore have considerable impacts on the industry. For example, regulations aimed at improving the business environment and reducing the administrative burden for MSMEs have a significant bearing on the agrifood tourism sector, which is largely made up of small businesses. As a result of this complexity, incoherent and ambiguous legal provisions may coexist with legal gaps in certain areas.

64 – Viet Nam: Law on Tourism (Law No. 44/2005/QH11) (see www.wto.org/english/thewto_e/acc_e/vnm_e/wtaccvnm43_leg_12.pdf);
– Thailand: National Tourism Policy Act (B.E. 2551, 2008) (see http://web.krisdika.go.th/data/document/ext838/838091_0001.pdf);
– Philippines: Tourism Act of 2009 (Republic Act No. 9593) (see www.tourism.gov.ph/Downloadable%20Files/Updated_RA_9593_and_IRR_(as_of_01_Nov_2020).pdf); and
– China: Tourism Law of the People's Republic of China (see https://govt.chinadaily.com.cn/s/201712/26/WS5c18b454498ee2f0291e3ff9/tourism-law.html).

In addition, regulations can be overly restrictive (which can hinder the development of a destination or subsector, e.g. agritourism) or too liberal (which affects sustainability). In both cases, inadequate regulation limits the competitiveness of the tourism sector (Roslina *et al.*, 2022).

Another challenge is that laws and regulations impacting the tourism sector need to evolve over time to respond to emerging demands resulting, for example, from the digital transformation, the development of "green" or sustainable tourism, and the emergence of new business models in the accommodation industry (e.g. the sharing economy for short-term rentals) (UNWTO, 2019g; OECD, 2020). To regulate the sharing economy for accommodation in both rural and urban areas, Japan passed its Private Lodging Business Act in 2018. The act seeks to address challenges such as noise nuisance, littering and safety and hygiene problems. It requires anyone operating a peer-to-peer accommodation rental business to notify the prefectural governor, register their business and comply with a number of requirements regarding the management of their operation (OECD, 2020).

The COVID-19 crisis revealed the absence of an international legal framework to assist international tourists in emergency situations, highlighting the heterogeneity of consumer protection rights for tourists across countries. To restore consumer confidence and support countries in their efforts to promote the recovery of the tourism sector after the pandemic, UNWTO developed the International Code for the Protection of Tourists. This code sets minimum standards for the protection of tourists in emergency situations and for the consumer rights of tourists in the post COVID-19 world (UNWTO, 2022).

It is impossible to provide a comprehensive overview of the legislative frameworks that affect tourism operations across the Asian–Pacific region in this publication, given their scope and breadth. Instead, two set of regulations will be highlighted in the following paragraphs: hygiene and safety regulations that affect food tourism, and regulations concerning the development of agritourism.

Regulations regarding hygiene and safety are of crucial importance for food tourism, which can only prosper if visitors are confident about the safety of the food offered. Agrifood tourism operators may use inferior ingredients or lack access to running water or adequate waste disposal systems, which may lead to the spread of foodborne diseases. There may also be difficulties relating to the hygienic storage, preparation and serving of cooked food, especially in hot and humid climates (Alimi, 2016). Street food is of particular concern in this respect. It is one of the most popular food experiences in many Asian destinations, and yet is regularly identified as presenting the highest risks in terms of food safety (Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019).

Food hygiene and safety regulations are crucial to the positioning of food tourism destinations. However, for various reasons, these regulations may not be adequately enforced. Authorities may not have the resources or competences necessary to exercise control and ensure compliance. In addition, the top-down enforcement of hygiene and safety regulations may be seen as an imposition of modernity to the detriment of authenticity, particularly when it comes to street food, which plays a valuable role in several Asian countries (see Chapter 3). Excessive hygiene regulations may spoil the authenticity of street food experiences: in Singapore, for example, visitors have lamented the sterility of the experience, which is attributed to overregulation (Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019). Meanwhile, authorities in Viet Nam face challenges to ensure the compliance of street food vendors with food safety standards that result from the lack of basic infrastructure and services (e.g. clean water, proper sanitation and waste disposal facilities), high costs, inconvenience and even superstition (Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019; Huynh-Van *et al.*, 2022). These examples illustrate that there may be tensions between the need to ensure the safety of food and the expectations of some tourists regarding authentic (i.e. exotic, chaotic and unregulated) food experiences (Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019).

Another legislative framework that is receiving a lot of attention in the region is that of **agritourism regulations**. These regulations may touch upon various aspects related to agritourism, including liability, zoning, funding, taxation and licensing (Sznajder, Przezbórska and Scrimgeour, 2009). Many of these regulations are complex; they differ depending on the location and the type of enterprise and activities. Roslina *et al.* (2022) identified ten different regulations that deal specifically with agritourism in Indonesia. These regulations concern *inter alia* agritourism licenses for plantations, the certification of agritourism

guides, intersectoral coordination for agritourism development and the set-up of a commission to promote agritourism.

Notwithstanding their heterogeneity, a number of aspects are typically covered by agritourism regulations. An example is land use, which is of crucial importance to the development of agritourism. For example, local authorities may impose zoning restrictions that limit the development of agritourism to certain agricultural zones or to lots whose primary purpose is agriculture, rather than permitting agritourism activities in all rural areas.

Public authorities can also require agritourism operators to prove compliance with health and safety standards, for example through food safety licences for businesses serving food to tourists. Operators may also be required to obtain permits for special events, such as licences to serve alcohol. Agritourism operations may need to comply with insurance, safety and accessibility requirements to bring the public onto their farm (University of California, 2015; Kirk Hall, 2019), provide adequate parking space or ensure that they do not create noise nuisance for neighbours (Sustainable Development Code, 2021).

Many of the regulations that have a bearing on the agritourism sector are unnecessarily complex, obscure and plagued by patchy implementation and feeble enforcement. In Samoa, for example, these regulations are considered excessive and a constraint on the development of agritourism (Pratt, Magbalot-Fernandez and Ohe, 2022). Efforts towards the mainstreaming, simplification and harmonization of agritourism regulations are underway in a number of countries in the Asia-Pacific region (see Section 8.2).

Institutional frameworks

Because of the complex and multidisciplinary nature of agrifood tourism, putting in place an institutional set-up that supports the development of the sector is not without challenges. To start with, there are as many different institutional settings as there are countries, as shown in Box 21.

BOX 21

Institutional arrangements for the development of the tourism sector

The institutional framework for the development of tourism in different countries depends on the system of government, the importance of tourism in the economy and the nature of tourism demand. The responsibility for the tourism sector may be placed with the ministry for economy or with a separate ministry for tourism. Tourism can also be assigned to a ministry responsible for related policy areas, such as culture, transportation, regional development, agriculture or innovation. Regional and local governments also play a vital role in the development and management of tourism. Regional bodies are often tasked with product development, domestic promotion and addressing the challenges of the tourism sector in their area, in addition to other roles regarding the delivery of information to local visitors, research and quality accreditation.[i]

For simplicity's sake, this section will consider a general institutional set-up for tourism that involves two types of organizations: national tourism administrations (NTAs), which foster and guide the development of tourism at country level,[ii] and destination management organizations (DMOs), which operate at the level of individual destinations.[iii]

The core functions of NTAs include international and domestic marketing, the provision of policy and strategic advice on tourism matters at national level, planning, research and development, regulation and quality assurance.[ii] These functions can be undertaken by a single national organization or distributed among two or more entities. In federal countries such as India, there can also be tourism administrations at the state level.

DMOs fulfil a similar mandate but at the destination scale. At the local and regional level, DMOs act as local tourism brokers bringing together various stakeholders (public sector bodies, tourism businesses and their associations, marketing associations, media organization, civil society and academia), mobilizing them to work together towards a collective destination vision.[iv] The Government of Japan is promoting the establishment of private sector-led DMOs that, in collaboration with local governments, contribute to tourism-related regional development. The government supports these organizations with subsidies for staff costs and training, and manages a DMO registration system, launched in 2015.[i]

The institutional framework for agrifood tourism is rather complicated, as it encompasses several sectors and all levels of government (from national to local), with different mandates and levels of autonomy applying in different countries.[v] Since agrifood tourism cuts across sectors, the participation of ministries that are traditionally not involved in tourism, including *inter alia* the ministries for agriculture and (food) industry, is vital. The involvement of local governments is also crucial to empower all actors in the agrifood tourism value chain, especially local communities, and thus strengthen the identity and safeguard the agricultural and gastronomic heritage of a destination. It is imperative to set up a strong institutional framework that brings together all these public actors.[vi] Coordinating multiple vertical and horizontal public sector entities requires clear and robust sign-off mechanisms for funding, to create shared objectives and ensure coordinated deliveries.[vii]

Another element that adds complexity to institutional frameworks for agrifood tourism is institutional leadership, which would normally fall on the shoulders of NTAs and DMOs. Indeed, when it comes to agrifood tourism, the de facto leadership may lie elsewhere, for example with the ministry for agriculture or with local governments, which may lack the required competencies in this field.

Input from and coordination with the tourism and food industries and civil society are necessary to seize opportunities and address the multifaceted challenges faced.[viii] It is therefore important to establish mechanisms for public–private collaboration in decision- and policymaking. In addition, it is equally important to engage the local community in agrifood tourism initiatives by providing information and allowing participation in consultations and debates, either individually or through associations.[vi]

Notes:

i **OECD.** 2020. OECD tourism trends and policies 2020. Paris. Cited 15 January 2023. https://doi.org/10.1787/6b47b985-en

ii **Pearce, D.G.** 2016. National tourism organization and administration. In J. Jafari, H. Xiao. eds. Encyclopedia of tourism, pp. 651–652. Cham, Switzerland, Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-01384-8_483

iii **UNWTO.** 2007. Practical guide to tourism destination management. Madrid. Cited 15 January 2023. www.e-unwto.org/doi/book/10.18111/9789284412433

iv **UNWTO.** 2019. UNWTO guidelines for institutional strengthening of destination management organizations (DMOs) – preparing DMOs for new challenges. Madrid. Cited 15 January 2023. https://doi.org/10.18111/9789284420841

v **OECD.** 2017a. Policy statement – tourism policies for sustainable and inclusive growth. Paris. Cited 15 January 2023. www.oecd.org/cfe/tourism/OECD-Policy-Statement-Tourism-Policies-for-Sustainable-and-Inclusive-Growth.pdf

vi **UNWTO.** 2019. Guidelines for the development of gastronomy tourism. Madrid. Cited 15 January 2023. www.e-unwto.org/doi/book/10.18111/9789284420957

vii **OECD.** 2017b. A review of the policy framework for tourism marketing and promotion. OECD Tourism Papers No. 2017/01. Paris. Cited 15 January 2023. https://doi.org/10.1787/096d0ace-en

viii **OECD.** 2018. Effective policy approaches for quality investment in tourism. Paris. Cited 15 January 2023. www.oecd-ilibrary.org/industry-and-services/effective-policy-approaches-for-quality-investment-in-tourism_88ea780c-en

Several researchers argue that tourism institutional frameworks in Asia and the Pacific are generally fraught with contradictory objectives, overlapping organizational mandates and weak coordination due to complicated institutional structures (Reid, Ruhanen and Davidson, 2010; Cao, 2015; ADB, 2021b; Roslina *et al.*, 2022). One of the key problems appears to be the lack of a coordinated approach to developing agrifood tourism policies and strategies, despite the use of tourism masterplans as coordination tools. Typically, the participation of government agencies that are key for agrifood tourism, such as the ministry of agriculture and local authorities, in the design and implementation of these tourism masterplans is limited (Reid, Ruhanen and Davidson, 2010). This is largely the result of a lack of understanding of the tourism sector, a silo mentality and insufficient financial and human resources. The outcome is that the roles and responsibilities of different government agencies are unclear, tourism governance is uncoordinated and disaggregated, and the tourism industry is insufficiently involved in policymaking and implementation.

Roslina *et al.* (2022) note that Indonesia has developed specific regulatory instruments to facilitate interministerial cooperation in tourism matters, including a decree on coordination between the line ministries for agriculture and tourism. However, the implementation of these mechanisms is rendered ineffective by cabinet changes, the lack of harmonized planning and ill-defined roles and responsibilities, among other factors. Another shortcoming of these regulations, according to the authors, is their bias towards the central government and disregard of the role of local authorities, the private sector and local communities.

Cao (2015) analyses the institutional framework for agritourism in China. The author argues that a much stronger political will from all levels of government and more rational and effective institutional arrangements are needed. The functions and responsibilities of government actors at various levels must be clearly defined, and adequate vertical coordination between national and subnational government entities must be ensured.

Chapter 7 and Chapter 8 explore the different types of measures that can be taken to address these issues.

6.4. POTENTIAL NEGATIVE EXTERNALITIES

Overview of potential negative externalities

The expansion of agrifood tourism can result in various negative externalities, including an overdependence on tourism (which may lead to overtourism and increased food imports), the depletion and degradation of environmental resources, and an increase in food losses and waste in the hospitality industry. Although such negative externalities can be internalized using economic instruments such as taxes and levies, it is preferable to avoid their emergence altogether. Table 3 provides an overview of the potential negative externalities of the development of agrifood tourism.

TABLE 3

Potential negative externalities of the development of agrifood tourism

Type of challenge	Examples
Overdependence on the tourism industry	• A lack of diversification can lead to increased vulnerability to economic, social and political changes in either the origin or host countries/regions. • Overdependence on tourism is often accompanied by underdevelopment within other sectors of the economy. • Possibility of economic leakage if the tourism industry is controlled by businesses outside of the host community.
Overtourism	• Overcrowding and visitor saturation may cause stresses on local infrastructure, complicate waste and natural resources management, endanger the preservation of agricultural, natural and cultural assets, and affect the perceived quality of life of the local community. • When the tourism carrying capacity of agricultural and/or culinary destinations is exceeded, the quality of visitors' experiences can decrease.
Negative impacts on the food supply in tourism destinations	• The demand for food from the tourism industry may drive up the price of high-value crops and make them unaffordable for locals. • The increased demand for food from the tourism industry may lead to an increase in food imports. • Farmers' involvement in agritourism activities may have a negative impact on agricultural output as a result of the additional work and disturbances in production processes.
Negative impacts on the environment	• The development of agrifood tourism can result in the depletion and degradation of environmental resources (land, water, air, flora and fauna) when those resources are improperly managed or overused. • The travelling associated with agrifood tourism generates greenhouse gas emissions, which drive climate change. • The development of food tourism can lead to increased food losses and waste and result in higher levels of waste in the form of non-recyclable packaging materials.

Source: authors' own elaboration.

Overdependence on the tourism industry

One key issue is reinforcing overdependence on the tourism industry. Tourism generally depends upon the spending of travellers from wealthier nations. The sources of the demand for tourism services can change due to changes in weather patterns, political events, natural disasters and a host of other variables. The COVID-19 pandemic, for example, resulted in the near halt of the global tourism industry, with effects spilling over into many sectors, including agrifood systems (ESCAP, 2021b).

Host countries' economies can become dangerously dependent on unstable tourism revenues. In addition, local food systems (and social structures in general) may be adapted to accommodate tourists' needs.

The tourism sector is frequently dominated by companies with origins outside of the host community. Such companies often rely on their own, external suppliers and bring in their own staff from outside the community. This results in economic leakage, with the money brought in by tourism leaving the local community. Furthermore, there is no guarantee that the money made from tourism is shared in an equitable way within the host community, or that is used in ways that benefit the larger group.

The branding of food tourism destinations often focuses on one dish or food, to the detriment of others. This may lead to monoculture, which constitutes an unreliable basis for any economy (Long, 2013).

Overtourism

Before the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic, many destinations in the region were concerned about overtourism and its effects on the preservation of natural, agricultural and cultural assets, local infrastructure and the local community in general (OECD, 2018a). The growing demand for culinary experiences presents tremendous opportunities for economic growth. However, tourism developers must ensure that cultural and natural assets in Asia and the Pacific are preserved in the face of growing tourist numbers. Indeed, tourism can have a negative impact on destinations that are not ready to absorb large number of visitors, for example in the form of congestion and the depletion of natural resources.

Overtourism refers to a situation whereby tourism has an excessive negative influence on the perceived quality of life of the citizens and/or the quality of visitors' experiences in a destination (or part thereof) (UNWTO, Centre of Expertise Leisure, Tourism and Hospitality of Breda University of Applied Sciences and European Tourism Futures Institute of NHL Stenden University of Applied Sciences, 2018). The tourism carrying capacity is defined by UNWTO as:

> The maximum number of people that may visit a tourist destination at the same time, without causing destruction of the physical, economic, and sociocultural environment and an unacceptable decrease in the quality of visitors' satisfaction (UNWTO, 2018, p. 3).

Tourism carrying capacity is key to efforts towards the sustainable development of food tourism.

Negative impacts on food supply chains

Tourism, rather than creating synergies with the agriculture and agro-industrial sectors, may also have negative impacts on the food supply chain in destinations. For example, local sourcing for the tourism industry may drive up the prices of crop and livestock products, and may even make them unaffordable for locals (Rodrigues and Villasante, 2016). The growth of agrifood tourism may also lead to an increase in food imports, which hinders the development of the local agriculture sector and drains the country's foreign exchange reserves (UNCTAD, 2014).

CTA (2016b) highlighted the risk that the demand for local food from tourism establishments outstrips supply in the smaller economies of the Pacific as the farm-to-table movement keeps encouraging business operators to purchase local food. Failure on the part of local producers to ensure consistent and sufficient supplies may lead to customer dissatisfaction and push hoteliers and restaurateurs to look for alternative suppliers elsewhere.

The development of agritourism may also result in a decrease in food production. Indeed, the intrusion by tourists and the additional work generated by food tourism activities may lead to a fall in agricultural output (Hashimoto and Telfer, 2011). Moreover, agritourism operations may focus on staging tourism experiences "to serve urbanite imaginations of the rural", neglecting the production of food (Montefrio and Sin, 2021, p. 1).

Potential negative impacts on the environment

The relationship between tourism and the natural environment is complex. On the one hand, a healthy environment, with abundant natural resources, diverse ecosystems and a rich biodiversity, is the natural capital of tourism – and especially agrifood tourism – destinations. On the other hand, the tourism sector uses vast quantities of resources and creates greenhouse gas emissions and pollution, both of which drive climate change. It is estimated that the tourism sector accounts for 8 percent of global greenhouse gas emissions (Lenzen *et al.*, 2018). Rapid economic growth and rising household incomes in many parts of Asia are allowing more people to travel, which has, for example, resulted in an increase in the number of flights.

Tourism can lead to the depletion and degradation of environmental resources (land, water, air, flora and fauna) if those resources are improperly managed or overused. A boom in tourism can result in the loss of natural resources, including prime agricultural land, especially in Pacific Island countries. Poorly planned development in both the agriculture and the tourism sectors can result in undue stress on natural resources such as water and cause pollution. In coastal countries, the degradation of aquatic ecosystems and the depletion of marine resources may become a growing challenge and a constraint for businesses in tourism and fisheries.

The concentration of visitors in culinary destinations, for instance during a food festival, can generate substantial amounts of plastic and other waste, which can cause pollution if not properly managed. Many food tourism operators in the region still use non-recyclable food and drink containers. It is estimated that domestic visitors to the food city of Bandung (Indonesia) generate 100 to 200 tonnes of waste every weekend (Diawati and Loupias, 2018). Of this total, about 75 percent is food and drink packaging made of plastic, including styrofoam.

In addition, food losses and waste generated by the tourism industry are causing major environmental and societal concerns in Asia and the Pacific. Indeed, while most food is lost during the production, handling, transportation and storage stages of the food supply chain, the tourism industry significantly contributes to the food waste crisis. The impacts of this wastage are numerous. They range from the wasting of energy to produce, transport and store food that is eventually lost, to the impacts on the environment of the disposal of food in landfills or the sea, or of incinerating it. In addition, the production and processing of food that not consumed results in the wastage of large amounts of water (Wang *et al.*, 2017).

Efforts to reduce food waste in the region are faced with various obstacles. First, efficient food waste management requires a behavioural change in terms of both client decisions and business procedures. Some tourists may associate food waste prevention measures with worsening service quality. In addition, holidays are sometimes synonymous with oversized portions and bountiful buffets, which increases food waste. Cultural norms that portray food waste as reflecting good hospitality further aggravate the problem (Wang *et al.*, 2017). Such conceptions may discourage tourism businesses, such as hotels and restaurants, from taking measures to prevent waste.

An additional challenge relates to the lack of specific data on food losses and waste for the tourism sector (let alone data for the agrifood tourism segment) (Berardo *et al.*, 2020). One estimate indicates that kitchens in the tourism industry typically waste between 5 to 15 percent of the food they purchase (Winnow, 2023). However, the actual volumes vary greatly depending on the type and size of business, the country and other factors. Better data would allow the establishment of a baseline and targets for waste reduction for the tourism sector. A number of digital tools powered by artificial intelligence have emerged to help business operators track and sustainably manage their food waste. An example is

Winnow, a digital food waste solution that is used by thousands of chefs in over 40 countries.[65] Measuring and tracking food waste is essential to raise awareness among staff members and eventually achieve reduction targets (Berardo *et al.*, 2020).

Overall, more action is needed to raise awareness, build evidence and knowledge and develop solutions for the problem of food and other waste. The ongoing quest for sustainability in agrifood tourism can act as a driver of change, promoting transformation in food management and consumption patterns.

6.5. THREATS

Climate change

Food and agriculture tourists seek out tourism destinations are renowned for their authenticity, offering products and experiences that are the result of a genuine and close relationship between food, land and community. However, in many destinations, this very relationship is threatened by the impacts of climate change. These impacts especially affect people in rural areas, who depend on local natural and agricultural resources for their livelihoods.

Climate change can affect the development of agrifood tourism in many ways. Extreme weather events linked to climate change, such as droughts and floods, can severely disrupt the supply of food to tourist destinations. In addition, climate change is likely to increase the incidence and intensity of natural hazards such as landslides, flooding and avalanches, which can can cause irreparable damage to agroheritage sites. For example, the great beauty of the terraced landscape of the Philippine Cordilleras is now facing a series of threats, including climate change and massive earthquakes that have damaged the terraces and altered water management systems. These issues have led to the inclusion in 2001 of the Ifugao rice terraces in the list of UNESCO World Heritage Sites in Danger.

Climate change can also alter the length and quality of the season for climate-dependent tourism activities. It can increase the incidence of vector-borne diseases, which can have a dramatic impact on tourism. Another possible impact is the intensification of economic and political instability in some tourism destinations, with the corresponding decline in visitors (Romeo *et al.*, 2021).

The multiple impacts of climate change often affect disadvantaged groups most. For instance, the islands in the Pacific are disproportionately vulnerable to extreme weather events, with rural communities often experiencing the most extreme hardships. For areas in the Asian-Pacific region where tourism is a major economic activity, any significant reduction in tourist arrivals as a result of climate-induced changes will have serious impacts on employment and aggravate poverty, especially in vulnerable communities. Consequently, vulnerable groups are often pushed to migrate to urban areas and abandon agricultural land. In extreme cases, abandoned lands are affected by erosion, which causes alterations in the landscape and increases the risks of natural disasters and the depletion of natural resources even further.

The COVID-19 pandemic

The COVID-19 pandemic has deeply affected the entire tourism industry. In 2020, international tourist arrivals took a 73 percent plunge and international tourist receipts fell by 63 percent as a result of uncertainties and COVID-19 containment measurements (UNWTO, 2023). Thailand, whose economy is heavily reliant on tourism, was hit hard by the COVID-19 containment measures and travel restrictions, which caused a cut of almost USD 1 000 in the country's real per capita income. Countries in the Pacific, which are geographically isolated and heavily dependent on tourism, were also particularly hit by the shocks of the pandemic. More women than men lost their jobs as a result of the impacts of the pandemic in Asia and the Pacific (FAO, 2021a).

65 For more information, see www.winnowsolutions.com


© Shutterstock/Namomooyim

BOX 22

Support for local restaurant workers in Fiji during the COVID-19 pandemic

Large tourism operators in Fiji had enough economic muscle to weather the storm created by the COVID-19 pandemic. However, MSMEs faced the full brunt of the crisis: they either went out of business or had to adapt their operations to survive. A small restaurant in Fiji, for example, developed an innovative strategy to stay afloat: it began growing its own vegetables on a plot of land, while also assigning some plots to its employees. In the midst of the pandemic, when the restaurant could only pay its employees for a limited number of hours, employees could use their unpaid time to work on these plots. They had the choice of consuming the produce themselves or selling it to the restaurant at market rates, which allowed them to earn money even when they were not employed (most of the produce was bought by the restaurant). In addition, employees refined their farming skills, which proved useful in their own backyard gardens, and gained awareness of demand requirements regarding quality, food safety, price and seasonality. Meanwhile, the restaurant became more conscious of the benefits of local procurement, which could encourage it to expand its network of local suppliers.

Source:
FAO and SEARCA. 2021 and 2022. Documents related to the survey and case studies. FAO internal documents.

Several governments in Asia and the Pacific have implemented initiatives to help the tourism industry recover from the impacts of the pandemic, mostly by providing financial support to tourism businesses and allocating funds to DMOs for promotion and marketing campaigns (for an example, see Box 22). The aim of these schemes is to boost tourism, strengthen employment, support local economies and improve the financial situation of tourism businesses, and especially MSMEs (UNWTO, 2020c).

The COVID-19 pandemic represents a before-and-after moment for tourism, providing an opportunity to re-evaluate tourism policies. Indeed, the pandemic has led to an increased focus on **domestic tourism**, which is set to return to pre-COVID levels faster than international travel. This bodes well for countries in the Asia–Pacific region, which accounted for over half of the estimated 9 billion domestic overnight stays that were recorded around the world in 2018 (UNWTO, 2020c). Among the largest markets for domestic tourism are China, India, Japan and the Republic of Korea – all of which are well-established agrifood tourism destinations.

More travellers are now choosing to vacation closer to home in outdoor destinations, far from congested settings, where agriculture- and food-based activities can play a key role. For example, in China, outdoor scenic, foodie and family-themed sites became the preferred destinations of tourism trips in 2020 (Skift and McKinsey and Company, 2020). Thus, many countries in the region implemented measures to develop their domestic tourism sector, focusing on outdoor and nature-based activities in rural areas, including food and agricultural tourism, rural tourism, wellness tourism, adventure tourism and ecotourism (UNWTO, 2020c). Several countries gave financial support to providers of tourism services, including food and accommodation. Stimulus schemes to encourage domestic tourism include discount vouchers and tax relief in Malaysia, discount coupons in the Republic of Korea and the 40 percent subsidization of accommodation, food and other tourism services under the We Travel Together programme in Thailand (UNWTO, 2020c).

Many countries have re-evaluated their domestic tourism policies and now prioritize agrifood tourism. Several agrifood destinations are updating their marketing and promotion strategies to better communicate what makes them so memorable and unique and thus attract more domestic travellers.

The forced pause created by the COVID-19 pandemic has also encouraged tourism business operators to rethink their products, services and strategies and introduce positive changes to support local communities and make their processes and products more environmentally friendly (Romeo *et al.*, 2021). Meanwhile, tourists are increasingly demanding transparency in health and safety protocols when travelling and at tourism destinations (UNTWO, 2020d).

The increased focus on domestic tourism, combined with the rising demand for more authentic and greener tourism experiences, have opened immense opportunities for the revitalization of rural areas through the development of agrifood tourism.

PART IV

POLICY SOLUTIONS TO ENHANCE AGRIFOOD–TOURISM LINKAGES

CHAPTER 7: Creating an enabling environment for sustainable agrifood-tourism linkages

KEY MESSAGES

- It is advisable to draw up a strategic plan to guide the development of sustainable agrifood-tourism linkages. Such a plan serves as a roadmap for the medium- and long-term development of these linkages, and should be based on a consensus regarding the overall development of the destination. The goal of the strategic plan is to provide an enabling environment for agrifood tourism and the tourism food value chain by improving infrastructure and establishing adequate policy, regulatory and institutional frameworks.
- Strategic plans for creating agrifood-tourism linkages typically include components aimed at improving product development, strengthening capacities for the management and marketing of destinations, enabling producers to ensure consistent supplies of high-quality food products to the tourism industry, promoting entrepreneurship and safeguarding natural, cultural and food heritage.
- A crucial component of these strategic plans in Asia and the Pacific regards investments to enhance digital connectivity and travel-related infrastructure, especially in rural areas.
- Another crucial component is improving the regulatory environment for agrifood tourism to improve consumer protection, simplify and make regulations less costly for small businesses, and address regulatory gaps in areas such as digital transformation, sustainability and the sharing economy.
- A final vital element of strategic plans to strengthen agrifood-tourism linkages is improving the institutional framework to ensure intersectoral (tourism, agriculture, transport, innovation, environment, etc.) cooperation at various government levels (international, national, regional and local), with the involvement of private sector representatives, civil society and academia.

This chapter provides guidance to policymakers to support the sustainable development of agrifood tourism by creating an enabling environment for agrifood tourism. It describes the typical components of strategic plans for agrifood tourism, which should allow policymakers and operators to capitalize on promising trends (see Chapter 1) and reap the potential benefits of the sector (see Chapter 5) while tackling any inhibiting factors (see Chapter 6). Chapter 8 complements the policy solutions proposed in Chapter 7 with specific measures to support food and agricultural tourism and build successful farming-tourism linkages.

7.1. STRATEGIC PLANS TO PROMOTE AGRIFOOD–TOURISM LINKAGES: RATIONALE

It is advisable to draw up a strategic plan to guide the development of agrifood–tourism linkages (UNWTO, 2019c). Such a plan serves as a roadmap for the medium- and long-term development of the sector, and should be based on a consensus regarding the overall development of the destination. A clearly laid out strategic plan is essential to allow stakeholders to understand their individual roles and responsibilities (OECD, 2017b).

The strategic plan for agrifood tourism and farmer–tourism linkages needs to be aligned with broader masterplans for the entire tourism sector. A tourism masterplan typically sets out a 10- to 15-year policy and a planning framework for tourism, and is accompanied by action plans spanning five years or less (ADB, 2012). The regular updating of tourism masterplans offers governments a good opportunity to incorporate an approach focusing on agrifood tourism, which is still relatively new in many countries across the Asia–Pacific region. In addition, the strategic plan must be aligned with the SDGs and with the UNWTO's Global Code of Ethics for Tourism (UNWTO, 2019c). This code, developed by UNWTO in 1999, constitutes a comprehensive set of principles to help maximize the sector's benefits while minimizing negative externalities on communities, the environment and cultural heritage across the globe.[66]

Having a strategic plan for the development of agrifood tourism and farmer–tourism linkages offers several benefits. A strategic plan allows the alignment of the interests of all agents involved and ensures the coordination of their actions. Furthermore, it provides guidance about the use of resources (both economic and human) and the institutional capacities and leadership needed to develop agrifood tourism in a territory (UNWTO, 2019c). It is particularly helpful when it comes to ensuring that ministries of agriculture are adequately involved in the promotion of food and agricultural tourism, thus guaranteeing a common vision and the provision of technical and policy support in key areas.

The aim of a strategic plan is to ensure that the enabling environment comprises a number of critical success factors for the development of agrifood tourism and farming–tourism linkages. These factors include *inter alia* adequate business management and marketing skills of operators in agrifood tourism destinations, a consistent supply of high-quality and safe food products, and the promotion and conservation of natural, cultural and food heritage (Ecker *et al.*, 2010).

The creation of an environment that is conducive to the sustainable development of agrifood tourism and the tourism food value chain requires a holistic perspective that covers the agriculture, tourism and related sectors at various geographical scales in a coordinated manner. Strategic plans involve the implementation of a panoply of interrelated interventions, for example to ensure adequate transport connectivity, promote investment and foster digital transformation in tourism destinations, and improve policy, regulatory and institutional frameworks to ensure that they support the development of agrifood tourism in a coordinated way (UNWTO, 2019c).

In recent years, many countries in the Asian–Pacific region have implemented measures to strengthen the enabling environment for agrifood tourism, including measures to:

- create institutional settings that ensure proper coordination among stakeholders (both public–public and public–private) (Section 7.2);
- enhance the regulatory environment for agrifood tourism (Section 7.3);
- improve infrastructure and build capacities to improve transport and digital connectivity, particularly in rural areas (Section 7.4);
- promote entrepreneurship in agrifood tourism and improve operators' access to finance and training (Section 7.5); and
- strengthen product development and destination management and marketing in agrifood tourism (Section 7.6).

66 For more information on the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism, see www.unwto.org/global-code-of-ethics-for-tourism

7.2. IMPROVING INSTITUTIONAL SETTINGS FOR AGRIFOOD TOURISM

Governments in the Asian-Pacific region have adopted a variety of institutional approaches to ensure that tourism is sustainably developed, promoted and regulated. The revision of a country's institutional set-up can be informed by strategic plans for the tourism sector in general or for agrifood tourism in particular.

There are several ways to improve the efficiency of the institutional setting for agrifood tourism, namely:

- Set up an observatory or centre of excellence for agrifood tourism (UNWTO, 2019c; OECD, 2020). Such entities are tasked with keeping track of trends, gathering and organizing information (e.g. regarding visitor numbers, origins and profiles), and monitoring and evaluating indicators of the economic, social and environmental sustainability of agrifood tourism. The information thus obtained is crucial for the formulation of dynamic, robust, evidence-based and forward-looking policies (UNWTO, 2019c).

- Set up entities dedicated to monitoring and promoting the tourism sector's economic, social and environmental sustainability. An example is the Japan Tourism Agency, which is to develop an index for sustainable tourism (OECD, 2020).

- Create mechanisms for specialized institutional support for agrifood tourism and destination management at various levels. These mechanisms should reflect the multiplicity of actors involved in policymaking for the tourism sector at various levels, as well as the growing interconnections between them (Mosedale and Albrecht, 2011). This holds especially true for specialized, high-value segments such as food- and agriculture-based tourism.

- Cooperate with other governments and with regional and global organizations to strengthen the evidence base for policymaking by improving the quality and accessibility of tourism statistics and enhancing evaluation methodologies for agrifood policies and programmes (OECD, 2017a).

- Create mechanisms for communication and collaboration between the actors involved in agrifood tourism: public-public, public-private, intersectoral and regional. The main goal of these mechanisms is to allow stakeholders to collaborate, resolve any potential conflicts and ultimately achieve a consensus, and thereby build a strong roadmap for agrifood tourism (UNWTO, 2019c). To this end, the roles and functions of key public and private stakeholders (including civil society and academia) should be clarified, and the stakeholders brought together to ensure that all their perspectives are incorporated when developing and implementing policies and strategies for food and agricultural tourism.

  Structures for communication and cooperation can take the form of interministerial committees or multistakeholder platforms or partnerships, among others. Bilateral agreements to intensify cooperation between the ministry responsible for tourism and other ministries (e.g. for agriculture) are also commonly used (OECD, 2020). For each of type of mechanism, the level of formality, the scope of the work, the seniority level of officials and the duration of the collaboration can vary. For example, cooperation between ministries can take the form of a high-level interministerial committee (focusing on strategic priorities and overseen by the ministers, prime minister or president), an interministerial working group (focusing on technical issues), a round-table working group or a task-and-finish group (focusing on specific issues) (OECD, 2020).

  Engaging with the private sector is key to the successful positioning of agrifood tourism destinations and their sustainable development (OECD, 2021). Mechanisms for public-private collaboration should involve actors from all sectors pertaining to agrifood tourism, including farmers and tourism operators, to ensure that all aspects of the industry are taken into account in policymaking. OECD (2021) and ADB (2021b) advocate the creation of public-private partnership committees or other intersectoral public-private coordination mechanisms to develop and implement policies and strategies for the agrifood tourism sector. In Asia and the Pacific, such mechanisms could be used to improve the marketing of destinations and encourage data sharing and joint monitoring and evaluation of the various variables that are relevant to agrifood tourism. They could also ensure that investments to improve management and marketing strategies, adopt better technologies and develop human capacities in the agrifood tourism sector are undertaken in a concerted manner (ADB, 2021b).

At the regional level, there are a number of existing frameworks for cooperation on tourism that could contribute to the sustainable development of agricultural and food tourism. These include tourism working groups set up by ASEAN or in the Greater Mekong Subregion, the Ayeyawady-Chao Phraya-Mekong Economic Cooperation Strategy, the Bay of Bengal Initiative for Multi-Sectoral Technical and Economic Cooperation, the Indonesia–Malaysia–Thailand Growth Triangle and the Tourism Working Group of the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation, among others (ADB, 2021c). Collaboration under the ASEAN umbrella has produced the ASEAN tourism standards, which are recommendations aimed at promoting the standardization of tourism services across ASEAN countries, subject to national laws and regulations. Tourism operations that meet the requirements of the standards can obtain the ASEAN Tourism Standard certification and use its logo. The standards set requirement for green hotels, food and beverage services, homestays, ecotourism and heritage tourism, amongst others (ASEAN, 2018).

7.3. IMPROVING THE REGULATORY FRAMEWORK FOR AGRIFOOD TOURISM

Governments in the region have come to understand the importance of enhancing the regulatory framework for agrifood tourism to improve consumer protection, simplify and make regulations less costly for small businesses, and address regulatory gaps in areas such as digital transformation, sustainability and the sharing economy.

A very active area of involvement regards the regulation and certification of agritourism (Torres and Momsen, 2011). Lawmakers can formulate a range of sector-specific regulations to improve the legal framework for agritourism. In some countries, such as the Philippines, agritourism farms are subject to an accreditation system to ensure compliance with minimum standards for the operation of tourism facilities and services (Philippines, Department of Tourism and Department of Agriculture, 2020) (see Box 23).

BOX 23

The legal framework for farm tourism in the Philippines

The Government of the Philippines, recognizing the potential of farm and gastronomy tourism to boost local development, has enacted the Farm Tourism Development Act of 2016, which supports agritourism as a farm diversification strategy to increase incomes in rural communities.[i] To ensure the quality of farm tourism products and services, the Department of Tourism accredits establishments that comply with a set of minimum standards formulated by the agency.

As part of the efforts to revive the Philippines' tourism industry after the COVID-19 pandemic, the Department of Tourism and FAO signed an agreement formalizing the two agencies' partnership and commitment to promote the development of farm tourism in the country. The alliance will focus on three areas: (i) enhancing coherence between tourism and agriculture programming in the country; (ii) providing technical support for capacity building, research and development, marketing and technological development to promote farm tourism; and (iii) conducting pilot

activities on selected farm tourism sites. Over a period of three years, the Department of Tourism and FAO will consolidate, develop and detail their cooperation and evaluate the effectiveness of their efforts towards the promotion of sustainable agriculture practices in farm tourism.[ii]

Notes:

[i] **Yamagishi, K., Gantalao, C. and Ocampo,** L. 2021. The future of farm tourism in the Philippines: challenges, strategies and insights. Journal of Tourism Futures, Vol. ahead-of-print. https://doi.org/10.1108/JTF-06-2020-0101

[ii] **FAO.** 2020. DOT, FAO sign partnership pact to promote farm tourism, agriculture. In: FAO in the Philippines. Rome. Cited 26 January 2023. www.fao.org/philippines/news/detail/fr/c/1294312

7.4. PRODUCT DEVELOPMENT AND DESTINATION MANAGEMENT AND MARKETING IN AGRIFOOD TOURISM

Policymakers across the Asian-Pacific region have implemented measures to actively:

- **enhance product development.** Effective marketing, promotion and branding strategies are essential to the development of agrifood tourism, with a range of approaches used across the region. For these approaches to succeed, the tourism product offerings at the destination must be aligned with customers' demands through appropriate product development (see Box 24).
- build the **culinary identity of tourism destinations** as the basis for the marketing of agrifood tourism experiences (see Box 24). Singapore and Malaysia, for example, have used the rise of modern Asian cuisine as a marketing tool (Scarpato, 2002), while China, Hong Kong SAR is providing fully integrated and authentic epicurean experiences to foodie travellers and has become known as a foodie hotspot (Kivela and Crotts, 2005; Okumus, Okumus and McKercher, 2007). Meanwhile, the Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy of Indonesia has promoted food tourism in Bali in an effort to counter mass tourism and increase the demand for foods from the island and other regions of the country (Pickel-Chevalier and Ketut, 2016).
- build the culinary identify of a country by investing in **gastrodiplomacy.** By using their cuisine as a tool for diplomacy, tourism promotion and nation branding, Japan, the Republic of Korea and Thailand have been able to heighten awareness of the distinctness of their food culture, thereby boosting food exports (Rockower, 2012; Zhang, 2015; Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019; Kururatchaikul, 2014; Ichijo and Ranta, 2016; Suntikul and Tang, 2014; Varanyanond, 2013).
- build a solid **social media presence**. The case of Japan is particularly noteworthy in this respect, as shown in Box 24.

Despite the investments undertaken by many countries towards the promotion of agrifood tourism, there is still room for improvement. Most importantly, sophisticated market research should be undertaken to identify the most efficient strategies to promote food tourism experiences. Today, such research is barely conducted in the Asia-Pacific region.

BOX 24

Product development, destination management and marketing in agrifood tourism in Asia

Product development in agrifood tourism[i]

Product development is key for the development of successful tourism businesses and destinations alike. Agrifood tourism operators need to know what potential visitors are looking for and fine-tune their products and services to meet these demands. This requires market research, product development and marketing.

Even when the characteristics of tourism demand are well understood, it can still be difficult to translate these characteristics into attractive tourism products and services. For unique culinary or agricultural attractions (such as GIAHS or a UNESCO heritage sites), the product development strategy can follow a flagship product approach, building on the uniqueness of the attraction or its "wow" factor.

DMOs should work to ensure that destinations have an attractive portfolio of connected tourism product offerings (linking, for example, sites, trails and events) and prepare an investment plan to this end. They should provide support to ensure that this portfolio responds to consumers' demands, while respecting the natural and social environment (guaranteeing, for example, decent work opportunities). DMOs generally provide support based on an action plan and marketing strategy, which should be developed and implemented through a consultative process with stakeholders (including tourism operators, the host community and civil society) to ensure their buy-in and engagement.

Building the reputation of George Town (Malaysia) as a culinary destination[ii]

George Town, the capital of the State of Penang in Malaysia, has become domestically and internationally known as a food tourism destination, and is especially famous for its street food. The municipal council initially focused on preserving heritage buildings in order to promote George Town as a cultural tourism destination. Thanks to these efforts, the city was included in UNESCO's World Heritage List in 2008, which contributed significantly to the development of local tourism.

The influx of visitors served as a catalyst for the development of food tourism. George Town built its culinary reputation on its many strengths, from its vibrant food scene to the different cuisines found within the city, exotic spice shops and affordable and unique street food. The government of the State of Penang has developed a street food map that shows where visitors can find local heritage dishes, while Penang tourism officials are promoting local food tourism resources to both international and national tourists through social media and other channels. Multiple operators now offer food tours, and George Town even has a food museum that features realistic models of traditional Malaysian dishes and presents interesting facts about Malaysian cuisine. As a result, George Town has become known as the culinary capital of Malaysia.

The use of gastrodiplomacy to promote food tourism in Thailand[iii]

Thailand is widely acclaimed as a pioneer of gastrodiplomacy. In 2002, the Thai Government launched the Thai Kitchen to the World campaign with the goal of boosting the country's food exports by increasing the number of Thai restaurants globally and thus stimulating the demand for Thai food products. A key element of the campaign was the Thai Select certification programme of the Ministry of Commerce, which introduced quality standards for Thai restaurants overseas and encourages them to use ingredients imported from Thailand. To qualify for the certification, restaurants have to serve specific Thai dishes and adhere to standards for staff attire and restaurant decoration inspired by traditional Thai culture.

In 2015, the Discover Thainess campaign followed. This campaign highlighted food as one of the seven essential attributes of "Thainess", and explicitly used the uniqueness of Thai food to promote tourism. Part of these efforts was the Amazing Thai Taste campaign, which mainly promoted seasonal Thai fruits and six Thai dishes. The goal of this campaign was to ensure that most tourists arriving in Thailand would already be familiar with Thai cuisine from what they had experienced in Thai restaurants in their home countries.

Once its national brand identity was well established, Thailand focused on promoting regional foods as an opportunity to learn about the local way of living, in line with the country's emphasis on CBT development. The strategy was further developed under Thailand's National Tourism Plan (2017–2021), which drew attention to the importance of promoting regional cuisines in developing gastronomy tourism.

Thailand has been a pioneer in the exploitation of a unique and distinctive national cuisine as a key attribute of tourism through gastrodiplomacy. Over the years, the country has successfully built a strong and identifiable Thai culinary tourism brand, with Thai cuisine promoting and shaping tourism in Thailand.

Using social media to promote food tourism in Japan

According to a recent survey, eating Japanese food was listed as the main activity international visitors planned before visiting Japan.[iv] This did not come about by chance. Indeed, the perception of Japanese food has been influenced over time by the Japanese Government, which has aligned official marketing campaigns for Japanese food and beverages with targeted promotion on social media and through smartphone applications.[v] As part of this strategy, the Japanese Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries runs an official website titled Taste of Japan, in collaboration with the Japan Food Product Overseas Promotion Center. This website provides information related to Japanese dishes and ingredients, and includes a search function to find Japanese restaurants and grocery stores that handle Japanese foods around the world.[vi]

Notes:

i **Romeo, R., Russo, L., Parisi, F., Notarianni, M., Manuelli, S. and Carvao, S.** 2021. Mountain tourism – towards a more sustainable path. Rome, FAO and Madrid, UNWTO. Cited 17 January 2023. www.fao.org/3/cb7884en/cb7884en.pdf

ii **Pladdet, A.** 2019. The role of authenticity in food tourism development in two historic cities in Malaysia. A comparative study between George Town, Penang and Ipoh, Perak. Amsterdam, the Netherlands, Wageningen University and Research. Master thesis.

iii **Park, E., Kim, S. and Yeoman, I.** 2019. Food tourism in Asia. Singapore, Springer.

iv **Japan Tourism Agency.** 2020. White Paper on tourism in Japan, 2020 (summary). Tokyo. Cited 17 January 2023. www.mlit.go.jp/kankocho/en/siryou/content/001375676.pdf

v **WFTA.** 2021b. Making sense of Peru's gourmet positioning. In: World Food Travel Association. Portland, USA. Cited 17 January 2023. www.worldfoodtravel.org/the-power-of-food-tourism-the-case-of-peru

vi Visit the Taste of Japan website at https://tasteofjapan.maff.go.jp/en/

7.5. IMPROVING TRANSPORT AND DIGITAL CONNECTIVITY

Improving transport infrastructure

The majority of Asia-Pacific nations have significantly improved their transport infrastructure, in terms of both quantity and the quality, in recent years (ASEAN, 2017; WEF, 2019). Efforts to upgrade air transport infrastructure in gateway cities, build transnational highways and expand access to public utilities in major urban areas have been particularly significant (ASEAN, 2017; ADB, 2021a). In the Greater Mekong Subregion, for example, improved road networks now allow travel to peripheral rural destinations. Countries are also investing significantly to improve their rail infrastructure. A compelling example is the railway linking China and the Lao People's Democratic Republic. This railway line – part of the China–Singapore regional rail network – is expected to carry about four million passengers per year after its completion (ADB, 2021a). A surge in the number of international and domestic tourists is expected in all the destinations served by the railway.

To boost tourism in rural areas, major rail and road networks must be developed, and feeder roads, electricity networks and communication services must be improved. Such investments allow tourists to reach these areas, farmers to sell their products beyond their local markets, and members of farming families to commute to off-farm jobs.

The development of the tourism sector in rural areas not only depends on, but can also act as a driver towards improvements in infrastructure such as airports, roads, water and energy supply networks, mobile phone networks and medical facilities, which are enjoyed by tourists and locals alike. Agrifood tourism – and agritourism and CBT in particular – can result in the improvement of all these types of infrastructure, and especially of the roads that connect rural destinations to major gateways. Improvements to these roads grant tourists easier access to agritourism destinations, while also facilitating the access of agricultural producers to markets by reducing the costs of transportation and limiting food losses.

Improvements in infrastructure are most needed in secondary, rural destinations, which is where agricultural tourism experiences and some food tourism services are most likely to develop. The development and maintenance of infrastructure in these areas is often hindered by centralized planning, as well as by funding and capacity constraints (MTCO, 2017).

Governments can play a key role in improving the coverage, sustainability and overall competitiveness of transportation infrastructure, which not only benefits the tourism sector but also facilitates the production and supply of food. For this reason, a number of countries (e.g. Japan) have placed the responsibilities for tourism and transportation with the same ministry; such an approach facilitates the creation of synergies between the two sectors (OECD, 2020).

Developing adequate infrastructure for agrifood tourism requires the involvement of all stakeholders, including all levels of government, the private sector, local communities and non-governmental organizations (Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019). Ideally, these stakeholders participate in the design and implementation of a tourism master plan for a country or region.

Strengthening digital connectivity and using ICT and digital platforms to promote agrifood tourism

Improving the digital connectivity of rural destinations is key to ensuring market access for local tourism businesses and creating positive digital experiences for travellers. The COVID-19 pandemic has highlighted the need to invest in the development of digital infrastructure to keep up with the evident shift of consumer preferences towards the digital economy. For example, a recent survey shows that accommodation structures with a strong web presence have higher levels of occupancy (ADB, 2021a). At the same time, the pandemic has created opportunities to use digital platforms to innovate the tourism industry.

Several countries in Asia and the Pacific have made significant efforts to address bottlenecks in ICT readiness. In the Pacific, broadband infrastructure has largely been expanded as a result of effective partnerships between governments, regional and international organizations such as the Asia–Pacific Telecommunity, ITU and the World Bank, and private telecommunication operators (ESCAP, 2018). The participation of private telecommunication operators has been particularly instrumental in the quick expansion of mobile broadband networks in Fiji, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, Tonga and Vanuatu.

Many countries in the region have sought to address shortcomings in ICT infrastructure based on wide-ranging digital masterplans. Such masterplans seek to set comprehensive and sequential frameworks for developing ICT infrastructure for the entire economy, and not just for specific sectors such as tourism. These masterplans often start with ensuring the provision of basic infrastructure, for example by enhancing broadband coverage and affordability in underserved areas. Malaysia, for example, has been prioritizing the expansion of broadband coverage in underserved rural areas since 2015. Meanwhile, Cambodia has set targets for the digital economy for 2023, such as expanding broadband coverage to 100 percent in urban areas and 70 percent in rural areas (World Bank, 2019).

Once the provision of basic ICT infrastructure is guaranteed, governments should shift their focus to the implementation of supporting strategies, such as strengthening digital skills, encouraging entrepreneurship, promoting digital payments and improving consumer safety (World Bank, 2019).

Digital literacy is a particularly important element of efforts to digitalize the broader economy, and tourism in particular. MSMEs in agrifood tourism must be able to find digitally literate workers in rural and disadvantaged communities. To tackle the digital gap and reduce the economic impact of the COVID-19 pandemic, the Asia Foundation is implementing the Go Digital ASEAN initiative in rural and isolated areas across the ASEAN region, which aims at equipping MSMEs and the workforce with digital skills and tools.[67] The project will reach up to 200 000 rural micro-enterprises and individuals across the region in targeted sectors such as agriculture and tourism. Sixty percent of the target beneficiaries are women, and 40 percent are youths (aged between 15 to 35). In this same spirit, FAO has launched the Digital Village Initiative, which promotes the digitalization of services in rural areas. The improvements in digital connectivity that are expected from this initiative can facilitate the development and marketing of agrifood tourism experiences.[68]

Digital literacy efforts need to go hand in hand with data governance policies that promote trust and encourage tourists and agrifood tourism operators to participate in the digital economy by ensuring data privacy, cybersecurity and consumer protection (World Bank, 2019).

Institutions and businesses active in the tourism sector should step up the promotion of destinations and develop ways to engage with travellers on digital platforms. Globally, around 80 percent of travellers carry out online research prior to their trips (Oxford Economics and PATA, 2018). A survey among more than 20 000 travellers worldwide found Indian tourists to be the most digitally savvy, followed closely by Indonesian and Chinese travellers (Travelport, 2019). Digital technologies have become very important in marketing strategies, not only to promote destinations but also to evaluate the quality of travellers' experiences, for example by monitoring post-travel reviews in online media.

Existing online tourism portals for Asia and the Pacific are not widely used and offer only limited information. Efforts should therefore be undertaken to establish a more attractive online presence of destinations and better market their unique values. Governments could rely on content providers, including bloggers and influencers, to market their destinations on digital platforms. This strategy may prove particularly effective for certain niche markets, such as food- and agriculture-based tourism.

The Indonesian Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy has developed a digital dashboard to monitor the tourism reputation of the country and key destinations on social media on a daily basis. This reputation is benchmarked against that of nearby competitors, while the number and distribution of tourists is monitored

67 For more information on the Go Digital ASEAN campaign, see https://asiafoundation.org/emerging-issues/go-digital-asean/
68 For more information on the Digital Village Initiative, see www.fao.org/platforms/digital-village-initiative/en

through mobile positioning systems. This information allows decision-makers to better understand visitor flows and perceptions, respond to issues as they arise and make informed marketing decisions (Ollivaud and Haxton, 2019). Indonesia is also improving its tourism branding and marketing through innovative digital solutions, ranging from demand pricing to manage tourism flows to the combination of machine learning and big data techniques to identify relevant target markets and precision-target promotional messages (OECD, 2020).

The example of Indonesia shows that governments and private agrifood tourism operators should use big data technology to monitor tourism flows and develop evidence-based policies for agrifood tourism. Indeed, the analysis of big data can help understand travellers' behaviour and expectations. Key indicators include data regarding visitor flows, tourism infrastructure, carrying capacity, health and safety aspects, housing, transportation and mobility, the management of natural and cultural resources, social dynamics and community engagement. This information can be used to craft personalized tourism experiences, monitor impacts, boost destinations' competitiveness and increase sustainability. In addition to Indonesia, Japan, Singapore and Thailand have also been using big data (obtained in collaboration with online travel agents, telecommunication companies and financial services providers) to improve their tourism marketing strategies and target specific customers (ADB and UNWTO, 2021).

While the growing importance of social media presents multiple opportunities for the marketing and management of tourism destinations, a boom in visitor numbers caused by a destination's sudden rise in popularity on one or more platforms can also create problems. Innovative uses of technology may provide solutions to help manage growing visitor flows and mitigate their negative impacts (OECD, 2020).

7.6. PROMOTING ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN THE AGRIFOOD TOURISM SECTOR

Worldwide, nearly 80 percent of travel and tourism businesses are MSMEs (UNWTO, 2020a). They generate about 80 percent of tourism jobs globally, nearly half which are in hotels and restaurants with fewer than ten employees (Asia–Pacific Economic Cooperation, 2017). MSMEs are key drivers of structural change and important contributors to sustainable tourism development and poverty alleviation (UNWTO, 2013). They play an important role in economically empowering the poor, women, youth and members of ethnic groups. Furthermore, MSME owners have personal contacts with travellers and are more adaptable because of the limited size of their operations. Thus, they can respond rapidly to customers' needs and demands and offer unique, personalized agrifood tourism experiences (Kaiwa, 2017). Small business owners can also act as an interface between the local community, visitors and international operators (Shaw and Williams, 2002; ADBI, 2020).

Despite their strengths, MSMEs engaged in tourism face a number of challenges, including a lack of access to markets, capital and skilled labour. These challenges make it difficult for them to expand their operations, access innovations, participate in the digitalization of the economy and take advantage of international networking opportunities (UNWTO, 2018). This holds especially true for MSMEs involved in agrifood tourism, which are generally located in remote areas with inadequate infrastructure and less access to training and finance. The challenges faced by MSMEs involved in tourism have been exacerbated by the disruptions caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. Many countries in the region have therefore implemented measures to help tourism MSMEs recover from the impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic, and are devising tailor-made recovery strategies (ADB, 2021b; TTG Asia, 2022).

Several countries in the region are implementing interventions to support MSMEs involved in tourism (including agrifood tourism), often with support from donors (e.g. international finance institutions) (see Box 25).

BOX 25

Support programmes for MSMEs active in agrifood tourism in Asia

An interesting example of a programme to support agrifood tourism MSMEs is the Mekong Innovations in Sustainable Tourism programme, launched in 2017 by the Asian Development Bank (ADB) and the Mekong Tourism Coordinating Office (MTCO) to support the development of travel start-ups in the Greater Mekong Subregion. It aims at helping local MSMEs develop personalized travel and hospitality experiences, improving customer experiences in travel and hospitality, providing better payment models throughout the travel value chain, fostering automation in hotels and resorts, formulating solutions for overdevelopment and overtourism, improving access to booking platforms, promoting multimodal transportation planning and booking, enhancing collaboration between destinations in the region, etc. The programme has two tracks, one for social enterprises and one for technology ventures in the travel industry; the operations it has generated have been recognized as among the top start-ups in tourism in the region, and some have attracted investment and partnerships through the programme.[i]

An example of the type of enterprises supported by the Mekong Innovations in Sustainable Tourism programme is Laos Buffalo Dairy, a social enterprise based in the Lao People's Democratic Republic that won the special runner-up prize for the social enterprise category in 2019. The company has developed an innovative agritourism business, whereby it rents calving buffaloes from local farmers around Luang Prabang. The animals are kept at the enterprises' facilities where they are fed and milked and receive veterinary care (vaccinations) for a period of approximately six months, and then returned to their owners, until they are ready to calve again and the process starts anew. The company processes the milk in its cheese-making facility and sells the products (yogurt, mozzarella, ricotta, ice cream and cheesecake) directly to tourists who visit the dairy facility, the interactive minifarm, the training centre and the cafe.[ii]

Another interesting initiative for MSME development in the region is the SWITCH-Asia programme funded by the European Union.[iii] The programme provides MSMEs with opportunities to try out new sustainability approaches. From 2007 to 2020, it supported 80 000 Asian MSMEs in various sectors (including tourism), which were able to gain access to an international network of sustainable tourism experts. In Bhutan, SWITCH-Asia's actions focused on reducing the imbalance between touristic hotspots and marginalized rural districts. To this end, the programme helps MSMEs producing agricultural handicrafts and other products or providing homestays to make use of their unique environmental, cultural, culinary and ethnic characteristics and stories to create authentic visitor experiences. The initiative provides MSMEs with technical assistance and support for innovation in various areas, including better design, higher quality, better technologies, energy efficiency, eco-friendly materials, the rediscovery of traditional knowledge and skills, and waste management. It also promotes the direct selling of food and other products to improve the resilience of the tourism industry.

Finally, the International Labour Organization has partnered with ASEAN to develop and implement the Small Business Competitiveness programme, which provides a set of low-cost tools for ASEAN countries to develop and build the capacities of MSMEs in the tourism sector, and especially those in rural areas. The programme has developed training guides for destination management bodies, aspiring tourism entrepreneurs, restaurateurs, food vendors and providers of homestays.[iv]

Notes:

i For more information on the Mekong Innovations in Sustainable Tourism initiative, see https://mist.asia/tourism-innovation/

ii For more information on Laos Buffalo Dairy, visit www.laosbuffalodairy.com/

iii For more information on SWITCH-Asia, see www.switch-asia.eu/

iv For more information on the Small Business Competitiveness programme, see https://learninghub.ilo.org/program/Small_Business_Competitiveness_Programme_SBC

CHAPTER 8: Specific support measures to promote sustainable agrifood–tourism linkages

KEY MESSAGES

- In addition to the crosscutting measures discussed in earlier chapters (such as strengthening digitalization and promoting entrepreneurship), plans to develop the agrifood tourism sector may include specific measures to promote agrifood tourism and create backward linkages from tourism operators to local smallholder farmers.
- Several countries, especially in the Pacific, have adopted specific measures to develop backward linkages between the tourism industry and local smallholder farmers. Meanwhile, many Asian–Pacific countries are implementing measures to promote the development of food- and agriculture-based tourism, for example by undertaking capacity building and providing subsidies.
- A number of countries in the region are working to fully seize the opportunities presented by GIAHS- or UNESCO-recognized agroheritage sites.

8.1. MEASURES TO FOSTER LINKAGES BETWEEN THE TOURISM AND AGRIFOOD SECTORS

As discussed in Chapter 2, the FAO survey in Asia and the Pacific showed that one in four hotels and restaurants in the region import the bulk of their food and beverages, while one in two source their food supplies primarily through market vendors. Only one-fifth of tourism operators engage directly with local producers.

Stimulating the development of direct links between smallholder farmers and tourism operators could have an important positive impact on the livelihood of farmers and the local economy, and contribute to the preservation of local culinary and agricultural heritage. Policies relating to both tourism and agriculture should therefore aim to strengthen these links; policymakers should communicate the benefits of these policies to all public and private stakeholders and encourage information sharing and collaboration.

To promote the development of agrifood tourism, policies for the tourism and agriculture sectors should be aligned and include measures aimed at promoting import substitution (Torres and Momsen, 2011). An interesting example of this approach is Fiji's Tourism Development Plan (2021), which was formulated by the country's Ministry of Commerce, Trade, Tourism and Transport to foster *inter alia* sustainable farming–tourism linkages (see Box 26).

BOX 26

The Fijian Tourism Development Plan and farming–tourism linkages

The Fijian Tourism Development Plan specifically supports the development of linkages between the tourism and the agriculture and aquaculture sectors. A key intervention to generate synergies between agriculture and tourism in the plan is the development of a recognition and reward scheme for operators who prioritize locally grown produce. This intervention is accompanied by the promotion of (organic) products grown or crafted in Fiji under the Fijian Made – Buy Fijian campaign, which aims at encouraging the local consumption of locally produced, designed and packaged products.

Another intervention foreseen by the plan is the development of a food safety guide for MSMEs supplying the tourism industry (including food vendors). The development of the guide will be a concerted effort by the Fijian Ministry of Commerce, Trade, Tourism and Transport, the Ministry of Health and Medical Services, and the Fiji Hotel and Tourism Association. Once the guide is finalized, awareness raising and training efforts will be undertaken jointly by the key ministries involved.

A further innovative intervention included in the plan is a programme to train chefs on how to better use local produce and cook traditional and contemporary Fijian dishes. This initiative is being developed by the Ministry of Commerce, Trade, Tourism and Transport and the Ministry of Agriculture, in partnership with local celebrity chef Colin Chung.

Source:
IFC. 2018b. From the farm to the tourist's table: a study of fresh produce demand from Fiji's hotels and resorts. Washington, DC. Cited 19 January 2023. https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/30942

Many governments, donors and non-governmental organizations in Asia and the Pacific have implemented programmes to strengthen the links between the farming and tourism sectors. These programmes generally take a two-pronged approach combining market intelligence and the building of linkages, with support provided to organized farmers. The identification of the best model to link farmers and tourism operators often entails a process of trial and error for both donors and buyers (CTA, 2016a). Without assistance, it is unlikely that smallholder farmers develop the capacities necessary to supply the tourism industry, or that tourism operators are sufficiently motivated to engage in long-term arrangements with local farmers.

Based on the systematic review of the numerous initiatives across the region to strengthen the supply of local agrifood products to the tourism sector, a series of good practices can be identified. These practices are discussed in the remainder of this section.

Conducting food demand and supply assessments

A food demand assessment must be conducted to identify those food requirements of the tourism sector that can be met locally. This assessment should be followed by an in-depth analysis of the specific supply chains, to determine the financial and technical feasibility of increasing the production of local foods at a competitive price. Next, a series of interventions to support the formation of farming–tourism links can be devised, including the provision of technical assistance to farmers, the development of infrastructure and reviewing import duties on selected food items.

A recent initiative in Vanuatu is a good example of this approach. The hotels and restaurants on this small Pacific island spend around USD 15.6 million per year on fresh food, of which 54 percent is imported. To help Vanuatu's farmers gear their production towards the tourism market, FAO, together with the European Union and Australian Aid, funded research into Vanuatu's agricultural value chains to identify those agrifood products that can be successfully grown domestically. Fruits and vegetables, beef and coconut were identified as priorities and incorporated in Vanuatu's National Indicative Plan 2014–2020. In addition, the assessment recommended crosscutting interventions to improve farmers' access to markets, including improving transport infrastructure and post-harvest storage facilities, and providing funding for smallholders to invest in farm equipment, packaging and storage (European Union, 2017).

Another example comes from the Indian state of Kerala. In 2007, the Government of Kerala launched the Responsible Tourism Initiative, aimed at fostering good working relations between local farmers and hotels. The initiative builds on the criteria of the Global Sustainable Tourism Council (GSTC), which promote the local purchasing of food and other goods and services, whenever available and of adequate quality (GSTC, 2016). The initiative started with an assessment of the daily requirements of hotels, resorts and other tourism establishments and the mapping of local supply chains, to identify areas where farmers and broader local communities could engage with tourism businesses. This was followed by the implementation of a sensitization programme on responsible tourism for the local community and the tourism industry.[69] Lemma (2014) reports that the initiative succeeded in encouraging hotels to engage in partnerships with local farmers and suppliers to source food, while also creating links between artisans and hotels for the supply of locally produced souvenirs. Lemma adds that the initiative led to an increase in local food production and a stabilization of crop prices.

Creating or strengthening farmer organizations

High transaction costs lie at the core of the difficulties related to building links between farmers and tourism operators. Strengthening "linking organizations", which work with smallholders on one end and with hotels and restaurants on the other, can help reduce these costs (FAO, 2007). Examples of linking organizations include agricultural cooperatives and producer associations, as well as specialized suppliers.

69 For more information on Kerala's Responsible Tourism Initiative, see www.unwto.org/asia/responsible-tourism-initiative-kerala

Producer organizations and agricultural cooperatives are linking organizations par excellence. These organizations can play an important role, either as agents for tourism operators or as the prime movers of an inclusive business model (CTA, 2016a). Box 27 provides examples of the role played by these organizations.

BOX 27

The role of producer organizations in linking farmers to the tourism industry

Through collective action, producer organizations can help overcome the diseconomies of scale facing individual smallholders farmers, thereby improving these farmers' abilities to engage in marketing arrangements with tourism operators.[i]

A case in point is the Addu Meedhoo Cooperative Society (AMCS) in the Maldives. AMCS is a marketing cooperative founded in 2010 with support from the Ministry of Fisheries, Marine Resources and Agriculture of Maldives, the International Fund for Agricultural Development and tourism resorts. AMCS acts as an intermediary between farmers and high-end buyers, such as Shangri-La's Villingili Resort and Spa.[ii] A five-star resort operating in a country with a limited agrifood system, Villingili Resort and Spa imports a large share of its food requirements, but seeks to buy more produce locally. AMCS provides 10 to 15 percent of the hotel's requirements of fruits and vegetables. The cooperative coordinates 50 local farming households that grow over 25 different agricultural crops for the resort on the nearby island of Meedhoo.[iii] As part of its actions towards CSR, Villingili Resort and Spa has actively supported AMCS, for example by financing the acquisition of greenhouses and providing technical assistance in areas such as food safety and water management. In 2015, these efforts were rewarded with the World Responsible Tourism Award for best hotel for local sourcing.[iv]

Another interesting case is NorminVeggies, or the Northern Mindanao Vegetable Producers' Association, in the Philippines. To supply the tourism industry and other dynamic markets, NorminVeggies decided to form clusters of vegetable farmers and set up a marketing corporation. The farmer clusters were formed based on the capacities, interest and financial means of the farmers, and were managed by lead farmers who would train and coach their peers. The clusters encompass a mix of small-scale farmers and independent farmers with more financial resources. While the larger, independent farmers produced capital-intensive vegetables such as salad vegetables, small farmers specialized in less capital-intensive crops such as cabbages, carrots and sweet peas. Thus, the association managed to produce a wide assortment of high-quality vegetables in the quantities required by hotels, restaurants and supermarkets. NorminVeggies also set up a corporation called Normincorp, responsible for developing market linkages and organizing logistics, for example by running a consolidation centre and ensuring traceability. Farmers pay Normincorp a fee for its marketing services and for the use of the consolidation centre. Normincorp managed to engage with tourism operators looking for large quantities of various high-quality vegetables, for which they pay 10 to 20 percent more than the spot rates on the wet market.[v]

The experience of NorminVeggies demonstrates the importance of full-time business management for farmer organizations seeking to engage directly with modern, dynamic actors such as tourism operators.[vi] Thanks to the professionalism of Normincorp, the farmers of NorminVeggies have been able to successfully supply vegetables to hotels and high-end restaurants, as well as supermarket consolidators and wholesalers.

Notes:

i **FAO.** 2007. Approaches to linking producers to markets: a review of experiences to date. Agricultural Management, Marketing and Finance Occasional Paper No. 13. Rome. Cited 23 January 2023. www.fao.org/3/a1123e/a1123e00.pdf

ii **Lemma, F.A.** 2014. Tourism for poverty reduction in south Asia. What works and where are the gaps? London, Overseas Development Institute. Cited 19 January 2023. https://partnerplatform.org/_/gy8bjfyl

iii **AMCS (Addu Meedhoo Cooperative Society).** 2021. About us. In: AMCS. Addu City, Maldives. Cited 19 January 2023. http://amcs. mv/about-us/

iv **IFC.** N.d. Shangri-La's Villingili Resort and Spa, Maldives. Creating jobs in a nation of atolls. Washington, DC. Cited 19 January 2023. www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/7a40eef8-57ee-4b82-afc4-9d0d00cba193/Flyer_Shangri-La_final.pdf?MOD=AJPERES&CVID=lgg1oCi

v **Conception, S.B., Digal, L. and Uy, J.C.** 2007. Keys to inclusion of small farmers in the dynamic vegetable market: the case of NorminVeggies in the Philippines. Regoverning Markets Innovative Practice Series. London, International Institute for Environment and Development. Cited 23 January 2023. https://pubs.iied.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/migrate/G03259.pdf

vi **CTA.** 2016a. Including small-scale farmers in profitable value chains. Review of case studies on factors influencing successful inclusion of small farmers in modern value chains in ACP countries. Wageningen, the Netherlands. Cited 19 January 2023. https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/132686125.pdf

Because of the high transactions costs of dealing with individual farmers, efforts to link farmers to tourism operators almost invariably involve the organizing of farmers into formal or informal groups. The formation of farmer groups is typically accompanied by a strong element of capacity building, both in terms of production and in terms of agribusiness management skills (for example in business planning, market research and financial literacy). Ministries of agriculture often support the development of farmer groups in an effort to create a more level playing field for smallholder farmers. In addition to improving the market bargaining power of farmers, these groups can provide joint access to crop data, quality inputs, training (e.g. in growing and harvesting techniques) and financing (for example to upgrade production equipment). Some groups also provide marketing and other services, such as transportation and export certification. Full-time business management has been found to be crucial for farmer organizations seeking to engage directly with the tourism industry and other dynamic buyers (CTA, 2016a).

CTA (2016a) warns about the perils of setting up producer groups without investing in the consolidation of collective action through training, the building of trust and constant communication with buyers. Unless such investments are made, producer groups may have a short lifespan. Hence, it is preferable to work with established producer groups, rather than setting up new ones. Meanwhile, FAO (2007) cautions that while most smallholders are aware of the potential benefits of collective action, this awareness is often insufficient to overcome their reluctance about working with each other.

There are several examples of donor-led interventions in Asia and the Pacific that aim at strengthening the capacities of producer groups to engage with the tourism sector, as illustrated in Box 28.

BOX 28

Donor-led initiatives to link producer groups to the tourism industry in Asia and the Pacific

An example of donor-led interventions aimed at enabling farmer groups to engage with tourism operators is a project in Fiji, funded by the Australian Centre for International Agricultural Research in the early 2010s. The project helped smallholder farmers sell organic PGS-certified tomatoes and kava (a crop of the Pacific Islands) to two major luxury resorts in Fiji (of the Shangri-La and InterContinental brands). Formal PGS groups were set up, where the farmers themselves guaranteed their adherence to organic standards, rather than depending on expensive, third-party certification. The groups allowed the farmers to strengthen their negotiating position and offered a platform for building skills and sharing new ideas and

technologies. Another success factor was the signing of a written contract between the farmer groups and the resorts, whereby the farmers agreed to provide a constant supply of produce at a fixed price, while the resorts agreed to pay this price even when they could get cheaper imported produce. The result was a win-win partnership that succeeded in raising the incomes of farmers and reduced imports of tomatoes by 20 percent.[i]

The PGS approach was picked up years later by the Farm to Table project, funded by UNDP. This project encouraged youths in targeted communities in Fiji and Vanuatu to take up organic farming and directly supply restaurants and hotels with an interest in organic food and the farm-to-table philosophy.[ii] Through public-private partnerships within the agriculture and tourism sectors, the project enabled youths to take up organic farming by providing training, building a processing facility and helping PGS groups obtain organic certification. The project supported the creation of five PGS groups in Fiji, composed of 330 vegetable farmers who were linked to FRIEND, a social enterprise operating a farm-to-table organic restaurant and supplying a range of Fijian food products to resorts, restaurants and shops.[ii, iii]

Another example is the project implemented in the Lao People's Democratic Republic by the Swiss State Secretariat for Economic Affairs, together with several United Nations agencies.[iv] The project, which ran from 2011 to 2014, helped farmers supply safe, (non-certified) organic vegetables to hotel and restaurants. It linked producer groups growing pesticide-free salad vegetables to four- and five-star hotels and quality restaurants in Luang Prabang.[v, vi] The project improved farmers' capacities for the clean production of high-quality vegetables, thus allowing them to meet the requirements of tourism operators. A critical success factor was the creation of a producer association (Luang Prabang Organic Agriculture Association) that grouped organic producers from several districts, strengthening their bargaining power. In 2015, the association built an organic farming and collection centre (the Central Farm or C-Farm), which serves as a learning centre for organic farming techniques and practices, provides seedlings and compost to members, and collects, packages and markets products from its members to hotels and restaurants in Luang Prabang. The centre also manages a cold storage facility where farmers can store their unsold produce. Since 2017, the C-Farm generates sufficient revenue to cover its operation costs.[vi]

Notes:

i **CTA.** 2017. Transforming food systems in the Pacific. Stories from the field. Wageningen, the Netherlands. Cited 19 January 2023. https://publications.cta.int/media/publications/downloads/2005_PD F_2OSOh5K.pdf

ii **UNDP.** 2019. Final project evaluation. Farm to table projects – Fiji and Vanuatu. New York, USA. Cited 31 January 2023. https://erc.undp.org/evaluation/documents/download/12569

iii **CTA.** 2016b. Chefs for development: the role of chefs in linking agriculture to tourism in the South Pacific. Wageningen, the Netherlands. Cited 31 January 2023. https://brusselsbriefings.files.wordpress.com/2016/07/chefs-for-development_-pacific.pdf

iv United Nations Industrial Development Organization, United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, International Trade Centre, International Labour Organization and United Nations Office for Project Services.

v **Manalili, N.M.** 2013. Trends, patterns and trajectories in brokering small scale farmer engagement with private enterprises in selected countries of Southeast Asia. Paper presented at the "Regional Learning Session on Sustainable and Inclusive Marketing Arrangements Towards Increasing Farmers' Market Power", 9-11 May 2013, Quezon City, Philippines, Asian Farmers Association for Rural Development. http://asianfarmers.org/afaresearches0876dlsj/2013-09privateenterprises.pdf

vi **UNCTAD.** 2017. UN Trade Cluster Programme. Highlights from Lao PDR. Opening tourism sector opportunities for Lao food products and skills. Geneva. Cited 31 January 2023. https://unctad.org/system/files/official-document/unceb2017d3_SECO_LA_en.pdf

Supporting intermediary suppliers linking farmers and tourism operators

While there are tourism operators who source directly from smallholder farmers, either by choice or for want of an alternative, the general practice seems to be for these companies to buy either from large farms or from specialized intermediary traders who can ensure the quality, quantity and regularity of supplies. These intermediary traders act as links between actors in the tourism industry, such as hotel chefs or purchasing officers, and agricultural producers, and are therefore key to the development of farming–tourism linkages (FAO, 2016).

While there is a general trend towards shorter food supply chains, bypassing intermediaries can actually make tourism operators' activities more complex, and even lead to the failure of attempts to source locally. Indeed, the majority of tourism establishments do not have the staff needed to carry out the specialized and time-consuming work of organizing farmers into groups, nor to provide extension services to farmers (CTA, 2016a).

Rather than "creaming off profits [...] while contributing little" (CTA, 2016a, p. 36), intermediary traders contribute to the supply chain with financial and other inputs (e.g. vehicles), as well as expertise. For example, intermediary traders can promote product innovation and improvements in quality and grading. These operators often handle a wide range of products, which lessens seasonality and thus operational risks. For these reasons, specialized suppliers are emerging in Asia and the Pacific to act as intermediaries between businesses requiring high-quality local foods (such as tourism operations and supermarkets) and smallholder farmers (Vorley, Fearne and Ray, 2007). The success of these suppliers is based largely on their ability to respond to the tourism industry's need for consistent supplies of high-quality, locally sourced foods, and communicate this need to farmers (FAO, 2016). In addition, specialized intermediaries often have ample experience in food safety testing and ensuring traceability – factors that are key to the reputation of hotels and restaurants.

Bali Fresh, in Indonesia, is a case in point (FAO, 2007). Bali Fresh is a specialized supplier that has developed a partnership with 100 female farmers to supply high-value vegetables (e.g. gherkins, cherry tomatoes and capsicums) to hotels, restaurants and supermarkets in Bali. A similar example is Joe's Farm, a company supplying vegetables to hotels, resorts and restaurants in Fiji (Martyn and Caniogo, 2016). The company complements its own hydroponic production of fresh produce with products sourced from smallholders, who receive training and assistance in transportation, storage and distribution through contract farming schemes.

In order for such intermediary suppliers to successfully link small agrifood producers to hotels and restaurants, an enabling environment, and often initiatives by governments and donors, are required.

Encouraging tourism operators to buy locally

Tourism operators can be encouraged to increase their local sourcing by offering them concessional loans or subsidies, as well as by creating PPPs with tourism companies, which commit to developing the supply chains they may source from (for example by training or providing technology to farmers, to enable them to comply with public and private standards regarding quality, quantity and safety).

Creating digital marketplaces that connect farmers with hoteliers and restaurateurs

Digital marketplaces, where farmers and tourism operators can link directly, can reduce the transaction costs involved in direct sourcing (Pingali *et al.*, 2019; Gálvez, 2022). An inspiring example of how digital solutions can be used to connect farmers with hotels, resorts and restaurants is the Women in Business Development Inc. in Samoa.[70] In 2012, this local non-governmental organization started implementing a programme (funded by UNDP) aimed at enabling small farmers to supply fresh organic produce, including indigenous crops such as taro, to high-end hotels and restaurants (CTA, 2017). In 2018, the programme launched a digital application that links more than 1 300 small-scale farmers with hotels, restaurateurs and other buyers looking for locally grown organic ingredients (Gálvez and Mihara, 2021). The app was developed in partnership with the Pacific-based agritech SkyEye,[71] with financial support from CTA.

A large share of agritech funding in India and other countries in the region goes to start-ups that link farmers to hotels, restaurants and retailers (FAO, 2021b). Examples from India include Ninjacart, which digitally connects 4 500 horticulture farmers to about 9 500 hotels, restaurants and retailers in seven Indian cities.[72] The reduction in transaction costs resulting from the use of the digital platform allows producers to earn 20 percent more on average, while buyers have access to reliable supplies of very fresh, traceable, high-quality produce. Similar online platforms include KrishHub, which directly connects over 200 vegetable farmers with hotels, restaurants and retail stores in Bangalore, or FarmPal, in Puno (Gálvez, 2022).

Encouraging chefs to use local products in their menus

Chefs are gatekeepers who decide what is offered on the menus of tourism establishments. They can be agents of change and promote improvements in local value chains to meet tourists' requirements (CTA, 2016b). Many chefs are moving away from the idea that tourists prefer familiar food to local cuisine. By making local food part of the tourism experience, chefs can become champions of local sourcing from smallholders. Younger cooks should be encouraged to use local ingredients, not only to prepare traditional local dishes but also to create exciting new recipes.

Active engagement with chefs is instrumental for farmers to understand and appreciate what type of products are required. Meanwhile, chefs may need additional training to understand how to best use local products in their kitchens. Associations of chefs (such as those created in Fiji, Malaysia, Nepal, Pakistan and Samoa) allow chefs to exchange knowledge on how to resolve the challenges associated with sourcing from local smallholders. In addition, these associations can be a vehicle to promote farm-to-table business models that encourage hotels and restaurants to use more local foods, and to organize food festivals and farmers' markets (CTA, 2016b).

CTA (2017) showcases initiatives in the Pacific to link local farmers to chefs invested in farm-to-table movements, as well as to train chefs in local cuisine so they can prepare dishes based on local products. A report by FAO, also focusing on the Pacific, highlighted the key role played by celebrity chefs (with support from the South Pacific Tourism Organization and national tourist authorities) in the promotion of menus with locally sourced foods in hotels and restaurants (FAO, 2016). A pioneer in this field is chef Robert Oliver (co-author of the cookbook Me'a Kai: the food and flavours of the South Pacific), who has been at the forefront of encouraging the use of local produce by tourism operators in South Pacific Island nations (FAO, 2016).

70 For more information on the Women in Business Development Inc., see www.womeninbusiness.ws/farm-to-table.html
71 For more information, visit SkyEye's website at https://skyeyepacific.com/
72 Data for September 2020. For more information, see Ninjacart's website at https://ninjacart.in/

Developing an exit strategy

The technical and financial assistance provided by governments, non-governmental organizations and donors can be instrumental in strengthening farming–tourism linkages. However, these linkages often break up once the assistance comes to an end. Indeed, farmers may lack the resources and skills to engage with tourism operators independently, while the latter may find that the activities that were hitherto undertaken by the project are too costly.

Therefore, governments or donors should provide support through public–private partnerships with farmers and tourism operators, and focus on the development of cost-effective interventions. Such interventions provide a business case for the private partners to continue implementation, and may encourage replication or scaling up.

8.2. MEASURES TO FOSTER THE DEVELOPMENT OF FOOD TOURISM

To date, the bulk of government interventions related to food supply chains for the tourism industry in Asia and the Pacific have focused on the end user stage, disregarding the fact that supplying the tourism sector requires engaging with farmers and other suppliers and distributors at different nodes of the value chain (Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019). Therefore, it is essential to work towards wider stakeholder engagement to create sustainable value chains in agrifood tourism.

Promoting a value chain approach in agrifood tourism destinations

Current linkages between local agricultural producers and tourism operators remain limited in many countries in the Asian–Pacific region. This situation results from *inter alia* a lack of efficiency in the entire supply chain, inadequate storage facilities, low productivity and inefficient communication between suppliers and buyers (e.g. regarding food safety standards).

Investments in the agriculture sector are crucial to overcome these challenges. In order to enable farmers to comply with the requirements of the tourism industry in terms of quantity and quality, both infrastructure and institutions should be improved. Value chain programmes with investments in irrigation systems, cold chain infrastructure, shipping facilities, etc. can help farmers and other suppliers meet demands for high-value food products at the local, regional and international level. In addition, value chain programmes should provide extension services to build the capacities of farmer groups in terms of food safety, certification, etc.

Integrated value chain programmes should focus on specific value chains that offer great potential for development. The selection of those value chains should be based on a review of current trends in tourism consumption, an analysis of the potential to develop rural tourism in production and processing areas, and studies into environmental sustainability.

To render investments towards the improvement of value chains possible, governments should attract and channel private (foreign direct) investments, invest public funds and improve the overall investment climate.

Ensuring compliance with food safety and hygiene standards

Ensuring the safety of food is indispensable to the sustainable development of agrifood tourism. Huynh-Van *et al*. (2022) provide a compass for governments to ensure that food operators adhere to food safety and hygiene standards. The authors encourage authorities to accompany regulations with incentives (e.g. subsidies or microcredit programmes to buy adequate equipment, food safety compliance awards, etc.) and impose sanctions on violations of food safety standards. In addition, authorities should invest in training and education programmes, and raise awareness about food safety in the media. For any intervention, it is important to engage all stakeholders – from vendors to customers, local authorities and

the civil society – to ensure that all voices are heard, measures are adequate and all actors buy into them from the onset.

The COVID-19 pandemic has highlighted the importance of hygiene and safety protocols for workers in the tourism sector and its supply chains. Several countries have now issued hygiene and safety guidelines, while in February 2022, ASEAN issued its Guidelines on hygiene and safety for professionals and the communities in the tourism industry, providing standard practices for the protection of tourists and employees from COVID-19 and other communicable diseases. These guidelines include specific practices for different sectors, including accommodation, community-based tourism and restaurants.[73]

Improving the quality of food supplies

An essential element of the development of value chains in agrifood tourism is ensuring food quality. Without high-quality food products, it is very difficult to improve tourists' food experiences. Governments in Asia and the Pacific should therefore aim to improve the quality of agricultural output by providing better extension services in production and post-harvest handling, upgrading infrastructure such as aggregation facilities, improving farmers' access to better inputs and strengthening their abilities to comply with food quality standards. In addition, governments should develop supporting policies, for example to improve food labelling (e.g. through the denomination of origin), encourage consumers to seek out local products, etc.

A comprehensive value chain approach focusing on the creation of backward linkages from tourism operators to farmers and other food suppliers is crucial to improve the quality of food products. Indeed, tourism operators can provide useful feedback and support to their suppliers regarding compliance with quality and safety standards. The resulting improvements in food quality and safety are crucial contributors to the sustainable development of food tourism.

Another proven way to stimulate improvements in the quality of foods is to foster compliance with food quality schemes. These are official schemes that help differentiate and protect food products with desirable and distinctive quality attributes, both intrinsic (taste, smell, texture and appearance) and extrinsic (i.e. belonging to, but not part of the food). Examples of schemes that highlight extrinsic attributes are organic certification, GIs and halal certification. Capitalizing on local food products with specific quality attributes that are appreciated by consumers is an effective tool to position tourism destinations in the globalized world (Rinaldi, 2017). The resulting capture of economic value stimulates broader rural development and poverty alleviation (Hoang *et al.*, 2020).

The state of Sikkim in India has positioned itself as the first 100 percent organic state in the world, and has embedded this approach into its tourism strategy (see also Chapter 3). Sikkim's tourism sector has already reaped major benefits from the state's organic image: between 2014 and 2017, the number of tourists grew by over 50 percent (Heindorf, 2019). Likewise, Nepal's Tourism Vision 2020 identifies the certification of organic products as a critical intervention to attract tourists seeking authentic local products, while protecting their health and safeguarding natural resources (Nepal, Ministry of Tourism and Civil Aviation, 2009).

Effective systems for the registration and protection of GIs can potentially promote the development of highly lucrative and inclusive value chains (FAO, 2019b). GIs have the potential to open up new markets for origin-linked, high-quality products at national and international levels. Countries such as China, India, Indonesia, Japan and Thailand have already accumulated significant experience in the development of GI systems and the promotion of GI products.

Local producers can reap several competitive advantages from their participation in GI systems, including the differentiation of their products based on territorial specificities, as well as the aggregation of market power and economies of scale resulting from the formation of GI groups (Rinaldi, 2017; Hoang *et al.*, 2020; Blakeney, 2021). In addition, the promotion of GI products, which are often produced using traditional,

73 The guidelines can be found on ASEAN's website at https://asean.org/our-communities/economic-community/asean-tourism-sector/key-documents/

endemic or locally adapted varieties and breeds, can help prevent the disappearance of traditional landscapes and genetic resources (FAO, 2010).

Agrifood tourism can both capitalize on and boost the potential of GIs to facilitate regional branding and tourism coordination (Pamukçu *et al.*, 2021; World Intellectual Property Organization [WIPO] and UNWTO, 2021). GI products can help travel destinations attract agrifood tourists who appreciate the quality and authenticity of local foods (FAO, 2019b), as well as strengthen the gastronomic identity of the region from which they originate (Pamukçu *et al.*, 2021). Indeed, food tourism destinations can be developed around protected products that are unique to a certain area. Box 29 provides an example from Cambodia of how GIs can be used as a tool to develop tourism and revive local economies.

BOX 29

The use of geographical indications to promote agrifood tourism in Cambodia

A particularly fine variety of pepper has been grown in the Cambodian province of Kampot since the tenth century, using ancient knowledge and expertise. Traditionally, the pepper was consumed locally; however, in 2010 the Cambodian Government accorded GI protection to Kampot pepper, transforming it into a premium product with export potential. As a result, investments were made to build the image of the product on the international market, and both output and exports grew. Kampot pepper is now sold in shops, supermarkets and hotels, as well as online, and has gained wide recognition at domestic, regional and international levels. As production and export capacities expanded, so did opportunities to develop tourism and create new jobs for the local community. Indeed, the province of Kampot has become a major agrifood tourist destination where visitors can visit the traditional plantations and discover ancient recipes passed down over the centuries.

Source:
WIPO and UNWTO. 2021. Boosting tourism development through intellectual property. Geneva, WIPO and Madrid, UNWTO. Cited 25 January 2023. www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284422395

GI and GIAHS schemes can be combined to enhance the visibility of both the product and the territory (FAO, 2020). GIAHS designations can significantly enhance the attractiveness and reputation of GI products, particularly in terms of the sustainability of local, adapted and traditional agricultural systems, as well as the preservation of knowledge, cultures and landscapes. Meanwhile, the promotion of GI products linked to GIAHS areas can add to the culinary attractiveness of these sites.

Certified halal food (permitted foods as prescribed in the Qur'an) can be used as part of a food tourism strategy in certain countries, especially in view of the rapid growth of the world's Muslim population. Halal food is widely perceived as safe, hygienic and of high quality in countries such as Indonesia and Malaysia, including by non-Muslims. Indonesia offers a wide choice of halal foods, with 688 000 halal food products, produced by over 55 000 halal-certified companies (Ma'rifah *et al.*, 2019).

Halal certification can be used as a tool to gain a competitive edge and strengthen a destination's reputation in a specific segment of the tourism market. Malaysia was among the first countries to implement a certification system for halal foods, which is now one of the country's primary assets to attract Muslim tourists. Meanwhile, the Thai Ministry of Tourism and Sports and the Halal Standard Institute of Thailand have launched the Halal Food Standard Certification for food shops, restaurants and hotels in major cities. A digital app lists mosques, halal restaurants and hotels, and other useful facilities for Muslim visitors. In this case, the certification mark serves a dual purpose: providing a framework of standards for products to conform to, and strengthening the destination's reputation in a specific segment of the tourism market (WIPO and UNWTO, 2021).

8.3. MEASURES TO FOSTER THE DEVELOPMENT OF AGRITOURISM

Several governments in Asia and the Pacific are supporting and regulating the development of agritourism to revitalize rural areas, increase farmers' incomes and add value to local agricultural products. Public support measures such as subsidies or training not only fuel the growth of the agritourism market, but also influence the type and size of agritourism businesses, their role in agrifood value chains and their interaction with rural territories (Torres and Momsen, 2011). For more information on relevant regulations, see Section 7.3.

Certain Asian-Pacific countries started supporting the development of the agritourism sector as early as the 1980s. For example, in 1984 the Government of the Republic of Korea set up a pilot project involving 12 agritourism communities under the Special Act on Farm and Fishery Villages Development. This project was followed by a series of government-led agritourism projects, exploring various angles and models. These include the Homestay Village project launched in 1991, and projects based on the concept of green tourism such as the Green Rural Experiencing Villages and the Rural Traditional Theme Villages projects in the early 2000s (Choo and Park, 2020; OECD, 2009). Although many of the farmers who were supported by these projects saw their income increase (e.g. through farmstays and the on-farm sale of agricultural products) (OECD, 2009), the financial viability of their operations often remained questionable (Choo, Ahn and Petrick, 2016).

The Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs (MAFRA) of the Republic of Korea is presently implementing a programme titled Support to Promote Rural Tourism, which fosters rural tourism in general, and agritourism in particular.[74] Under this programme, MAFRA builds the capacities of operators of agritourism farms (e.g. in safety and hygiene) and offers them subsidized insurance. Other tools are also used, for example programmes to develop tour contents. Moreover, MAFRA manages a grading system for agritourism establishments and provides marketing support through an official website,[75] as well as through cooperation with agencies in and outside of the Republic of Korea that develop agritourism experiences for domestic and foreign travellers. MAFRA also supports the incorporation of field trips to agritourism farms in the curricula of elementary and middle schools.

China first introduced the concepts of agritourism and agritainment in 1998 and launched official promotion activities in 2006 (Yang, 2012). In 2009, the China National Tourism Administration rolled out the National Rural Tourism Development Programme, which specified a diverse range of policies related to finance and banking, land use, taxation, the environment, technology and consumption aimed at fostering the development of agritourism and other forms of rural tourism (UNWTO and Huzhou City, 2017). According to Su (2011), strong government support in terms of both policies and financial incentives facilitated the rapid diversification of farms into agritourism and nurtured the nongjiale movement. Meanwhile, the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs of China selected the Doumen district in Guangdong Province as pilot site for its agritourism programme, whereby governments at the municipal, district and township levels can provide matching funds to reward nongjiale farms and other enterprises engaged in rural revitalization. The pilot programme offers a 10 percent matching fund to nongjiale projects with a capital input of at least CNY 50 000 that foresee the development of guesthouses, farmstays, experiential farming and restaurants specializing in local cuisine (Kan, 2021).[76]

Similarly, the Thai Government started promoting agritourism in the mid-1990s as a means to promote economic development in rural areas. However, it was not until 1997, when the Sufficient Economy Policy was introduced, that early forms of agritourism began to emerge. The Department of Agricultural Extension, in cooperation with the Tourism Authority of Thailand, launched a small agritourism project (worth USD 4 million) in the 2000s to develop and promote agritourism destinations in several parts of the country (Srisomyong, 2010). In 2012, more than 400 villages were being promoted as agritourism destinations (Na Songkhla, 2012). Over time, the initial focus of the Thai Government on agritourism per se shifted towards

74 For detailed information regarding the Support to Promote Rural Tourism programme, see www.mafra.go.kr/english/1431/subview.do
75 This website can be visited at www.welchon.com/web/index.do
76 See Yasunaga and Inoue (2020) for further information on government support to the agritourism sector in China.

sustainable tourism, creative tourism and tourism for community development, particularly in rural areas. This shift has redefined rural areas as not just sites of production but also of tourist consumption and of multipurpose activities for visitors to the area. This has given new sociocultural and economic value to the resources in rural areas, notably as tourism products (Berno *et al.*, 2020). Today, the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives of Thailand works closely with the Ministry of Tourism and Sports to promote agritourism in the domestic market (Wipatayotin, 2016).

Over a decade ago, Japan started viewing rural areas as sites for tourism, in the form of agritourism or farmstays, in light of the decline of agricultural production and the rapidly aging and shrinking farming population (Torres and Momsen, 2011). Today, the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries of Japan, together with the Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism and local governments across the country promote the development of agritourism (Yasunaga and Inoue, 2020; Japan National Tourism Organization, 2020). Efforts to promote farmstays include the Discover the Treasures of Farming, Mountain and Fishing Villages campaign, and the Food and Agriculture at Scenic Sites campaign launched in 2016 to promote sites with scenic landscapes where visitors can taste local specialties, for example on agritourism farms (Japan, Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism, 2016).

In India, the promotion of agritourism involves several stakeholders such as state governments, the Ministry of Agriculture and Farmers' Welfare, the Ministry of Tourism, line departments of state and central governments, the tourism and travel industry, and farmers (Chatterjee and Prasad, 2019). For further information on public efforts to stimulate the development of agritourism in India, see Box 30.

BOX 30

Public support for the development of agritourism in India

In September 2020, the Government of the State of Maharashtra formally adopted its Agritourism Policy, which acknowledges the potential of agritourism to foster sustainable rural development, farm income diversification an alternative employment in rural areas.[i] As at May 2021, agritourism centres in Maharashtra had generated an average increase of 25 percent in the income of the farmers involved, and created thousands of jobs for women and youth in rural areas.[ii] The policy helps individual farmers, agricultural cooperatives, agricultural research centres and universities set up agritourism establishments and qualify for loans and tax benefits. It also includes activities to raise awareness and build the capacities of farming communities, with the support of officials from taluka (a subdivision of a district) and district officers of the Department of Agriculture. The policy further aims to promote the creation of backward and forward linkages with self-help groups, farmers' markets, rural artisans, home chefs and other stakeholders.

Taking a leaf out of Maharashtra's book, the Government of Andhra Pradesh has recognized the potential of agritourism in its Tourism Policy 2020–2025, which spells out plans for the positioning and promotion of tourism destinations (e.g. listing farmstays on the website of the tourism authority), the building of skills and the development of PPPs.[iii]

In many parts of India, government agencies are focusing on the educational role that agritourism can play, for example by involving schoolchildren or students of agriculture or tourism at technical colleges and universities in on-farm activities. The Government of Maharashtra has made rural excursions, including to agritourism establishments, a compulsory part of the curriculum of middle and secondary schools. The motivation behind this decision is twofold. First, the government is keen on promoting agritourism; second, it seeks to encourage students to connect with different cultures and traditions, using agritourism as an educational tool. Thus, all schools in Maharashtra have to arrange field trips to sites in rural areas with a historical, cultural or geographical significance, including agritourism establishments where students can learn about farm life and food production and processing.[iv]

The rising number of agritourism establishments across the state provides various options for learning trips for students. These destinations showcase the customs of the region and offer a chance to interact with locals and learn more about their food and agricultural and cultural heritage. Such experiences can complement knowledge provided in textbooks and act as a catalyst for youngsters' interest in agriculture, nutrition and food culture.

Notes:

i **FAO.** 2019a. Agri Tourism Development Corporation Agri Tourism India. In: Family Farming Knowledge Platform. Rome. Cited 26 January 2023. www.fao.org/family-farming/network/network-detail/en/c/177631/

ii **Bhardwaj, T.** 2021. Agri-tourism has positively impacted farmers' lives, socially and economically: Valsa Nair, Maharashtra Tourism. In: Financial Express. Noida, India. Cited 26 January 2023. www.financialexpress.com/lifestyle/travel-tourism/agri-tourism-has-positively-impacted-farmers-lives-socially-economically-valsa-nair-maharashtra-tourism/2252401/

iii **India, Andhra Pradesh.** 2020. Government of Andhra Pradesh Tourism Policy 2020–2025. Amaravati, India. Cited 26 January 2023. https://aptourism.gov.in/media-data/documents/6-1170c3b0fe3613982afab1600627a35d60ebba2d.pdf

iv **Pednekar, P.** 2017. Maharashtra government directs schools to take students on tours to rural areas. In: Hindustan Times. Delhi Cited 26 January 2023. www.hindustantimes.com/mumbai-news/maharashtra-government-directs-schools-to-take-students-on-tours-to-rural-areas/story-QsSs6LlBGdgMwZ7zojnMvJ.html

8.4. MEASURES TO FOSTER THE DEVELOPMENT OF AGROHERITAGE TOURISM

While achieving GIAHS or UNESCO recognition can be a key factor to improve the marketability of agroheritage tourism destinations, it is far from being the only precondition. A series of good practices for seizing the opportunities offered by agroheritage tourism are detailed in this section.

First of all, an integrated plan is needed for the development of tourism in agroheritage destinations. This plan should focus on the involvement of local communities to ensure sustainability and authenticity and overcome the impacts of overtourism (Jaafar *et al.*, 2014).

Storytelling can be instrumental in communicating to tourists the importance of preserving the natural heritage of these sites, interwoven with captivating historical and human dimensions that have co-evolved over many centuries (Gkoltsiou, Athanasiadou and Paraskevopoulou, 2021). The narrative may be driven by seasonal variations in scenery that enhance the tourism experience (aesthetical and sensory components) or by unique ethnical, musical or food heritage, or a combination thereof.

For example, agroheritage tourism experiences related to the Dong rice–fish–duck system in Guizhou, China, are offered along with cultural tours built around the Grand Song of this ethnic group. The Dong's Grand Song is a multipart song that is performed without instruments or a leader. It was included in China's national list of Intangible Cultural Heritage in 2006, and in UNESCO's list of Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity in 2009.[77] The Dong people organize several music festivals a year, including the Mid-Autumn Singing Festival (which was originally a livestock festival) in mid-August. The integration of agriculture and music is nothing new in this part of the world, as beautifully expressed by a popular saying among the Dong people: "Rice nourishes the body and songs nourish the soul." This interplay enhances the value and attractiveness of the GIAHS site and helps strengthen the livelihoods of local communities (FAO, 2019c).

Shaping stories to attract tourists must be followed by efforts to develop adequate tourist products around agroheritage sites. Many agroheritage sites have the possibility to develop diverse tourism experiences combining heritage-related activities with agrifood tourism and CBT. Indeed, tourists visiting

77 For more information on the Dong's Grand Song, see UNESCO's website at https://ich.unesco.org/en/RL/grand-song-of-the-dong-ethnic-group-00202

an agroheritage site also want to taste the local cuisine, which thus constitutes an element that can be incorporated in the marketing strategy for the agroheritage destination (Raji *et al*, 2020).

For example, China has developed a series of tourism experiences that capitalize on the reputation of GIAHS and UNESCO sites. Such experiences may take the form of agroheritage tourism, ethnic tourism, ecotourism and cultural tourism (and combinations thereof), with the agricultural landscape constituting the central tourist attraction (Su *et al*., 2019, 2020). Much of this product development process may happen organically, as shown in Box 31.

BOX 31

The development of GIAHS-related tourism products: evidence from China

The Dong rice–fish–duck GIAHS site

Some of the villagers in the Dong rice–fish–duck GIAHS site opened restaurants, hotels, shops and cafes to cater to tourists. Others became tourist guides, taking visitors to the rice–fish–duck fields and explaining how the system functions, or sing in choirs and pose for photos in traditional attire. Many villagers offer homestays in their traditional wooden houses, combined with walking tours to the rice–fish–duck fields where tourists can learn about agriculture practices and take photos of the scenery.[i] Additional income is generated by selling handicrafts (such as silver items and ethnic accessories) and foods produced by the local communities. Meanwhile, ethnic dancing and singing performances (for which local residents charge an entry fee) have won wide acclaim.[ii]

Some travel agencies located outside the province of Guizhou now offer itineraries that include visits to the Dong GIAHS site. For example, tour operators from Hangzhou (in the province of Zhejiang) offer Hangzhou–Congjiang routes, combining the rice–fish–duck fields in Congjiang County, performances of the Grand Song of the Dong in the village of Xiaohuang, the village of Basha of the Miao (famed for being China's last tribe of gunmen) and the traditional herbal and medicine baths of the Yao people.[iii] In 2016, an international half marathon was held in the Congjiang Jiabang terraced fields under the theme ''tourism+sports+folk customs''. The event attracted a large number of marathon enthusiasts, who became familiar with the charms of the terraced fields in Congjiang County and tasted characteristic local delicacies.[iv]

Similarly, tourist visiting the Longji rice terraces in Longsheng County can join hiking tours of the scenic spots and take photographs from viewing platforms.[v] This can be combined with a homestay, a visit to ethnic communities or cooking classes, for example to learn how to cook rice in a bamboo tube.[vi] The traditional villages through which these routes pass to reach viewing platforms at upper levels have become hubs for tourism services, providing food and homestays.[vii] There are currently over 400 city hotels and 300 residential and rural hotels in the area, totalling more than 23 000 beds.[viii] For example, the village of Dazhai has 187 hotels and restaurants that are mainly run by local enterprises that employ local people.[ix]

Different development trajectories in three GIAHS sites in Qingtian County, China

Whether or not local communities are able to capture the benefits of tourism largely depends on the strategy adopted to develop the agroheritage destination. Jiao *et al*. (2016) analyses the different tourism trajectories of three villages with rice–fish production in Qingtian County, Zhejiang Province, China.[i] Qingtian's system of fish farming in wet rice fields, which dates back over two thousand years to the Han dynasty, was recognized as a GIAHS in 2005. The

system's strength lies in the ecological symbiosis between rice and fish. Rice provides shade and food for fish, and in return, the fish provide fertilizer, soften the soil, disturb the water, eat larvae and weed, and regulate microclimatic conditions in the paddy field.[ii] The three villages included in the study, Longxian, Xiaozhoushan and Rengzhuan, all have rice–fish production as the central component of their farming system – however, they took different paths after their recognition as GIAHS.

On entering the village of Longxian, tourists are greeted by picture-perfect rice–fish terraces up on the hillside on one side of the village. These terraces can be easily accessed by following paths that culminate in a boardwalk and viewing platform built with GIAHS funds.[i] Back in the village, tourists can eat traditional dishes with red carp in various old-style restaurants and buy dried fish in small shops to take home. As a result of to the GIAHS designation, the price of fish produced in Longxian has increased fourfold, bringing prosperity to the village.[i]

Xiaozhoushan has chosen a different tourism route. To avoid the abandonment of the village, village leaders placed rice fields under a cooperative arrangement using village labour and created new attractions in addition to the rice–fish terraces, such as auspicious symbols in fields (created by sowing rapeseed), overnight homestays, a village hotel and a hiking trail to waterfalls. Thousands of tourists now flock to Xiaozhoushan every year to hike and see the auspicious patterns in the terraced fields.[x]

Renzhuang, rather than investing in tourism, decided to strengthen the local rice–fish system through technological innovation. This community has now a fish hatchery and an agricultural research station where new rice–fish cultivation techniques are being tested. The Agriculture Bureau of Qingtian County and researchers from Zhejiang University are spearheading these efforts by fusing traditional knowledge with integrated pest management methods and promoting the use of improved rice varieties, new companion crops and edible animal species in the rice paddies.[xi]

Notes:

i **China Global Television Network.** 2021. Live: rice terrace awakening in SW China's Guizhou [video]. Cited 9 December 2021. www.youtube.com/watch?v=duPAyaXWs7M

ii **Li, Y.J., Yu, H., Chen, T., Hu, J. and Cui, H.Y.** 2016. Livelihood changes and evolution of upland ethnic communities driven by tourism: a case study in Guizhou Province, southwest China. Journal of Mountain Science, 13(7): 1313–1332.

iii **World Tourism Alliance (WTA).** 2021. WTA best practices of rural revitalization through tourism. Xianghu, China. Cited 26 January 2023. www.wta-web.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/10/WTA-Best-Practices-of-Rural-Revitalization-through-Toursim-2021.pdf

iv Center of International Cooperation Service of the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs of China, personal communication, 2022.

v Longsheng County has been awarded two AAAA and five AAA awards for scenic spots, according to a quality rating system for scenic spots developed by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism of China, whereby AAAAA is the highest rating. Center of International Cooperation Service of the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs of China, personal communication, 2022.

vi **Mekong Tourism Coordinating Office (MTCO).** 2018a. Case study. Longji Rice Terraces. Guangxi, PR China. Bangkok. Cited 27 January 2023. www.destinationmekong.com/2020/06/04/case-study-longji-rice-terraces

vii **Wang, Z. and Graburn, N.** 2020. Tourism and cultural landscapes in Southern China's highlands. Via, 17. https://doi.org/10.4000/viatourism.5491

viii Center of International Cooperation Service of the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs, China, personal communication, 2022.

ix **Zhu, G., Li, X. and Zhang, Y.** 2021. Multi-stakeholder involvement mechanism in tourism management for maintaining terraced landscape in important agricultural heritage systems (IAHS) sites: a case study of Dazhai Village in Longji Terraces, China. Land, 10(11): 1146. https://doi.org/10.3390/land1011114

x **Jiao, W., Fuller, A.M., Xu, S., Min, Q. and Wu, M.** 2016. Socio-ecological adaptation of agricultural heritage systems in modern China: three cases in Qingtian County, Zhejiang Province. Sustainability, 8: 1260. https://doi.org/10.3390/su8121260

xi **FAO.** 2018b. Globally Important Agricultural Heritage Systems. Combining agricultural biodiversity, resilient ecosystems, traditional farming practices and cultural identity. Rome. Cited 27 January 2023. www.fao.org/3/i9187en/I9187EN.pdf

As is the case for any tourism product, marketing and promotion are key to the success of agroheritage sites. Box 32 focuses on the efforts made to promote two GIAHS destinations: the Tanabe–Minabe ume site in Japan and the Longji rice terraces in Longsheng County, Guangxi Province (China). Whereas many of the promotional activities described in the box regarding the Longji rice terraces predate their designation as a GIAHS site, they still provide a good example of what can be achieved with strategic promotion campaigns.

BOX 32

Tourism promotion: examples from GIAHS sites in Japan and China

The Minabe–Tanabe ume system, Japan

The Tanabe City Kumano Tourism Bureau, established in 2010, is responsible for the development and promotion of tourism in the region.[i] Tourists can make reservations online, on a platform that is owned and operated by the local community.[ii] The ume GIAHS site is an integral part of the region's tourist appeal, and is included in tour packages. The Tanabe City Kumano Tourism Bureau promotes tourism in the region through international and domestic media and travel agencies. It also organizes seminars for tourism operators (tour organizers, providers of transportation, hoteliers, etc.) with a view to improving the quality of their services.[iii]

In recent years, the towns of Tanabe and Minabe have made great efforts to attract young tourists. Elementary, junior high and high schools are encouraged to visit the ume site on school trips. The almost 3 000 children who visit the site each year gain knowledge about the area's agricultural heritage by participating in ume harvesting, charcoal making and other tasks.[iii]

Additional initiatives to promote tourism in the region include the following:

- promotional activities in larger cities such as Tokyo and Osaka undertaken by the Minabe–Tanabe Regional Association for GIAHS Promotion (which also organized a study tour to the Nishi-Awa Steep Slope Land Agriculture System – another GIAHS site in Japan – to see how they market their site;[iii]
- advertising by tour companies, focusing on the flowering season;
- promotion of ume and other local specialities by a farmer group from Minabe (Collaboration Kitchen) (e.g. by organizing an ume pickling workshop at Kobe Women's University); and
- visits to processing facilities organized by the Ume Cooperative, where consumers learn about the processing methods for umeboshi (pickled ume fruits) and ume juice.[iv]

In addition to these initiatives, post on social media platforms by visitors describing their tour experiences also contribute to the promotion of the GIAHS site.

Longji rice terraces, Longsheng County, Guangxi, China[v]

The Longji rice terraces are considered one of the most famous scenic areas in China, offering over 300 tour days a year.[vi] They attract over 1.2 million tourists a year,[vii] generating over USD 730 million in tourism revenues.[viii] Many of these tourists are photographers and painters, as well as backpackers and tour group tourists from China and overseas.

The media play a very important role in promoting the Longji rice terraces as heritage systems. The photos posted by visitors on different social media platforms and blogs are particularly effective at attracting visitors to the site. In addition, the Longji rice terraces have been widely advertised online by international travel websites such as Tripadvisor and Lonely Planet,[ix, x] as well as by local and national tourism authorities.[xi] For example, the authorities of Longsheng County advertise, in collaboration with a tourism company, the Longji rice terraces on social media. They have also partnered with media and other agencies to carry out a number of marketing activities, such as photography competitions, a film and a television series, and the filming of the traditional agricultural activities and rituals.[xii] For example, the Longji terraces have been given a special coverage in programmes of China Central Television such as Native Soil, Service for You, and Synthesis Skill Bulletin. The Government of Longsheng has actively promoted the site in Shanghai, Guangdong, Chongqing, Beijing and other large and medium-sized Chinese cities, and contributed to exchanges, seminars and reports at all levels. It has carefully planned and organized several festivals such as the Dragon Tour, the Winter Tour, the Dong Festival in the provinces of Guangxi, Hunan and Guizhou, the Dragon Ridge Terraced Fields Mountain Race, etc. These efforts have boosted the popularity of the site in China and abroad.[xiii]

Notes:

i The bureau's website, providing ample tourism information, can be accessed at www.tb-kumano.jp/en/

ii The Kumano Travel platform can be accessed at www.kumano-travel.com/en/about

iii Y. Taira, Minabe-Tanabe Regional Association for GIAHS Promotion, personal communication, 2021.

iv **Minabe-Tanabe Regional Association for GIAHS Promotion.** 2021. Globally Important Agricultural Heritage Systems (GIAHS) application. Minabe-Tanabe ume system. Rome, FAO. Cited 28 January 2023. www.fao.org/3/bp806e/bp806e.pdf

v Center of International Cooperation Service of the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs, China, personal communication, 2022.

vi **Wang, Z. and Graburn, N.** 2020. Tourism and cultural landscapes in Southern China's highlands. Via, 17. https://doi.org/10.4000/viatourism.5491

vii **Zhu, G., Li, X. and Zhang, Y.** 2021. Multi-stakeholder involvement mechanism in tourism management for maintaining terraced landscape in important agricultural heritage systems (IAHS) sites: a case study of Dazhai Village in Longji Terraces, China. Land, 10(11): 1146. https://doi.org/10.3390/land1011114

viii **Mekong Tourism Coordinating Office (MTCO).** 2018a. Case study. Longji Rice Terraces. Guangxi, PR China. Bangkok. Cited 27 January 2023. www.destinationmekong.com/2020/06/04/case-study-longji-rice-terraces

ix **Lonely Planet.** 2023. Rice terraces. In: China. Fort Mill, USA. Cited 17 December 2021. www.lonelyplanet.com/china/longji-rice-terraces/attractions/rice-terraces/a/poi-sig/1239286/1323551

x **Tripadvisor.** 2023. Longji Mountain. In: China. Needham, USA. Cited 17 Dcember 2021. www.tripadvisor.com/Attraction_Review-g1159371-d2003190-Reviews-Longji_Mountain-Longsheng_County_Guangxi.html

xi **Visit Guilin.** 2023. Longji rice terraces. In: Longsheng attractions. Guilin, China. Cited 20 December 2021. https://visitguilin.org/things-to-do/longsheng-attractions/longji-rice-terraces/

xii **People's Government of Longsheng County, Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region, China.** Annex 2. Rice terraces systems in subtropical China: Longsheng Longji Terraces. Rome, FAO. Cited 28 January 2023. www.fao.org/3/bp832e/bp832e.pdf

xiii Center of International Cooperation Service of the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs, China, personal communication, 2022.

Another crucial step in the promotion of agroheritage tourism is to integrate the agroheritage tourism offering in the broader tourism landscape. In the case of the Dong's rice-fish-duck system, the groundwork was undertaken prior to obtaining GIAHS status. In 2009, and with financial support from the World Bank, Guizhou Province started improving the region's tourist infrastructure (including roads to villages in the area of the Dong's rice-fish-duck system and to the rice-fish-duck fields) and connecting the various tourist attractions in the region. Moreover, instruments were developed to protect and manage local intangible cultural heritage such as the Dong Song, Miao embroidery, batik making, and paper making in the village of Shiqiao. Itineraries combining walking tours in the rice-fish-duck fields and visits to cultural heritage attractions provide an all-encompassing experience for tourists (World Tourism Alliance [WTA], 2021).

Similarly, the Government of Longsheng County has been investing in the development of tourism connected to the Longji rice terraces as a means to reduce poverty since 1993 (see also Box 32) (MTCO, 2017; Wang and Graburn, 2020). It developed plans to simultaneously protect the natural and agricultural resources of the Longji rice terraces, preserve traditional farming methods and promote agriculture-based leisure activities. A state-owned tourism company manages tourism development and promotion in Longji. This company sets strict rules to prevent local villagers from replacing rice with other crops in a selected core zone (Wang and Graburn, 2020). Public investments were critical to the development of tourism in Longsheng too. As the government started paying more attention to the conservation of the region's agricultural heritage, it invested heavily in the maintenance of the terraces and irrigation facilities, the conservation of traditional rice varieties, the development of tourism infrastructure, the promotion of folk arts, the development of ecological products and scientific research. For example, the completion of a highway between the village of Dazhai and the town of Longji, as well as of a cableway to the terraces, has boosted the development of tourism in Dazhai (Zhu, Li and Zhang, 2021).

Cooperation between local authorities, enterprises and villagers has contributed to the sustainable development of agroheritage tourism in the area of the Longji rice terraces (Zhang, Cheng and Hu, 2019). For example, a private–public partnership between the Guilin municipality and Airbnb focused on developing tourism in the village of Jinjiang. The partnership resulted in the restructuring of a number of homes in the villages, which are now listed on the Airbnb platform (Airbnb, 2018).

The Government of Longsheng County is currently aiming to position the entire county as one big scenic area, rich in ethnic and ecological tourism resources. Its plans foresee the construction of key tourism facilities, including a tourist information centre and a museum to showcase the ecological and cultural value of the terraces. In addition, the county is working to integrate villages of four ethnic groups (Miao, Yao, Dong and Zhuang) in its tourism offer, and plans to invest in hot springs resorts in the villages of Pengzuping, Xijiangping, Daping Tang and Huaping. The agriculture heritage site is further valorized through the promotion of local GI products, including Longji pepper, Longsheng Phoenix chicken meat, Longsheng Jade-green duck meat and Longji tea. These products are marketed mostly in southwestern China and contribute to the promotion of the Longji area across the country (Center of International Cooperation Service of the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs, China, personal communication, 2022).

8.5. CONCLUSIONS

Over the past decade, the food and tourism industries in Asia and the Pacific have undergone rapid and radical change. Agrifood tourism has gained popularity in the region because of the political, economic, cultural, social and environmental promises it holds (Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2019). Indeed, this subsector has the potential to uplift rural communities, create employment and contribute to thriving and inclusive agrifood systems.

For this potential to materialize, a whole-of-government approach to the sustainable development of agrifood tourism is required. Such an approach considers the trade-offs and complementarities between various policy areas, including entrepreneurship, innovation and digitalization, local development, the environment, culture, security, education and the wider economic policy (OECD, 2017a). It involves a shift from scattered projects to regional or national solutions that are fully incorporated into tourism and rural development policies and programmes. Based on this whole-of-government approach, governments should develop strategic plans dedicated to agrifood tourism, to guide the sector's development. Such strategic plans provide the consistency and certainty the tourism industry requires, and create a framework for sustainable and inclusive growth.

The two final chapters of this report have provided a non-exhaustive list of potential interventions, investments and policy measures in support of agrifood tourism. The measures range from product development to destination management and marketing, building small agrifood tourism operators' digital and business skills, or targeted solutions to foster agritourism, among others. The choice of measures will vary depending on policymakers' objectives, the level of economic development of the destination, and the

state of agrifood tourism attractions and institutions. When adequately designed, combined and adapted to the specific conditions of a country or destination, the measures listed can help create an enabling environment for agrifood tourism.

A vital measure is the development of backward linkages from tourism operators to smallholder farmers. The modalities for the development of these links are numerous, from subsidies and incentives to the creation of digital marketplace platforms, the formation and strengthening of producer organizations and involving chefs to promote local produce. National governments, non-governmental organizations and donors can play a major role in the development of farming–tourism links by providing technical assistance and/or funding. Meanwhile, collaboration with the private sector is crucial to create viable and scalable business models that can thrive even after the public support ends. Cooperation between tourism operators and agrifood actors enables the flow of feedback and support regarding quality and safety requirements, and can improve the quality of supplies to hotels and restaurants.

Any measures to develop the agrifood tourism sector need to be backed up with interventions aimed at strengthening the value chain by improving capacities and infrastructure. Of crucial importance here is the improvement of the transportation and digital connectivity of rural areas. Another essential intervention to develop agrifood tourism in Asia and the Pacific is the creation of adequate institutional frameworks at local, domestic and international levels, with effective intersectoral, multilevel coordination mechanisms.

Governments in the region also need to improve the regulatory environment for agrifood tourism in order to protect consumers and tourism workers, safeguard the environment and the different types of heritage, make compliance easier and less costly for small tourism businesses, and address existing regulatory gaps in areas such as digital transformation, sustainable tourism and the sharing economy (Dredge and Jenkins, 2007; Reid, Ruhanen and Davidson, 2010).

This publication has provided many examples of solutions that countries in Asia and the Pacific have implemented to promote agrifood tourism. However, care should be taken when applying these examples to other countries and destinations, always noting the specific context of each destination in terms of opportunities and challenges. For example, measures to support the development of backward tourism linkages are placed high on the policy agenda in the Pacific Islands, whereas Southeast Asian nations focus primarily on supporting the development of food tourism products that capitalize on their culinary reputation. Meanwhile, developed economies with rich culinary and agricultural heritages can afford supporting the whole range of food tourism experiences, including agritourism and GIAHS sites.

Policymakers in the region must conduct regular assessments to minimize the negative impact of tourism activities on agrifood systems and the environment. They should ensure the effective management of both resources and waste, and define clear practices to manage the carrying capacity of agricultural destinations.

Finally, the COVID-19 pandemic has created a clear division between before and after in the development of tourism, including agrifood tourism. Indeed, the crisis has triggered a shift towards domestic tourism, and especially towards agrifood tourism experiences. This shift presents an opportunity for countries in Asia and the Pacific to recover from the socioeconomic impacts of the pandemic and rethink their tourism sector to foster more sustainable tourism modalities – such as agrifood tourism.

REFERENCES

Aaltojärvi, I., Kontukoski, M. and Hopia, A. 2018. Framing the local food experience: a case study of a a Finnish pop-up restaurant. *British Food Journal*, 120(1): 133–145. **https://doi.org/10.1108/BFJ-12-2016-0613**

Acharya, B.P. P. and Halpenny, E.A. 2013. Homestays as an alternative tourism product for sustainable community development: A a case study of women-managed tourism product in rural Nepal. *Tourism Planning and Development*, 10(4), 367–387.

ActionAid Vietnam. 2019. 3-days training course on ''First Aid Emergency Skills'' in Nam Dam village, Quan Ba district, Ha Giang province. In: *News*. Hanoi. Cited 30 May 2022. **https://vietnam.actionaid.org/vi/news/2019/3-days-training-course-first-aid-emergency-skills-nam-dam-village-quan-ba-district-ha**

ADB (Asian Development Bank). 2011. *Greater Mekong Subregion: tourism sector assessment, strategy, and road map. p*. Metro Manila, Philippines. Cited 1 February 2023. **www.adb.org/sites/default/files/institutional-document/33310/files/gms-tourism-assessment.pdf**

ADB. 2017. *Tourism sector assessment, strategy, and road map for Cambodia, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar, and Viet Nam (2016–2018)*. Metro Manila, Philippines. Cited 1 February 2023. **www.adb.org/sites/default/files/institutional-document/227186/clmv-tourism-sector-assessment.pdf**

ADB. 2018. *Strategy for promoting safe and environment-friendly agro-based value chains in the Greater Mekong Subregion and Siem Reap action plan, 2018–2022*. Metro Manila, Philippines. Cited 1 February 2023. **http://dx.doi.org/10.22617/TCS189305-2**

ADB. 2020a. *Reviving tourism amid the COVID-19 pandemic*. ADB Briefs 150. Metro Manila, Philippines. Cited 1 February 2023. **www.adb.org/sites/default/files/publication/633726/reviving-tourism-amid-covid-19-pandemic.pdf**

ADB. 2020b. *Analysis of the global and Asian wellness tourism sector*. Metro Manila, Philippines. Cited 1 February 2023. **www.adb.org/sites/default/files/institutional-document/633886/adou2020bp-global-asian-wellness-tourism.pdf**

ADB. 2020c. *Mongolia: Sustainable Tourism Development Project (RRP MON 50013). Project administration manual*. Metro Manila, Philippines. Cited 1 February 2023. **www.adb.org/sites/default/files/project-documents/50013/50013-002-pam-en_1.pdf**

ADB. 2021a. *Developing agriculture and tourism for inclusive growth in the Lao People's Democratic Republic*. Metro Manila, Philippines. Cited 1 February 2023. **www.adb.org/sites/default/files/publication/732411/agriculture-tourism-inclusive-growth-lao-pdr.pdf**

ADB. 2021b. *Sustainable tourism after COVID-19. Insights and recommendations for Asia and the Pacific*. Metro Manila, Philippines. Cited 1 February 2023. **www.adb.org/sites/default/files/publication/761511/sustainable-tourism-after-covid-19.pdf**

ADB. 2021c. *The Greater Mekong Subregion Economic Cooperation Program Strategic Framework 2030*. Metro Manila, Philippines. Cited 9 February 2023. **www.adb.org/sites/default/files/institutional-document/678631/gms-economic-cooperation-strategic-framework-2030.pdf**

ADB and ADBI (Asian Development Bank Institute). 2013. *Low-carbon green growth in Asia: policies and practices*. Metro Manila, Philippines, ADB and Tokyo, ADBI. Cited 1 February 2023. **www.adb.org/sites/default/files/publication/31225/20130628book-low-carbongreen-growthasia.pdf**

ADB and PSDI (Private Sector Development Initiative). 2018. *Tourism as a driver of growth in the Pacific: A pathway to growth and prosperity for Pacific Island countries*. Issues in Pacific Development No. 2. Metro Manila, Philippines, Asian Development Bank. Cited 1 February 2023. **www.adb.org/sites/default/files/publication/430171/tourism-growth-pacific.pdf**

ADB and UNWTO (World Tourism Organization). 2021. *Big data for better tourism policy, management, and sustainable recovery from COVID-19*. City of Mandaluyon, Philippines, ADB and Madrid, UNWTO. Cited 17 January 2023. **http://dx.doi.org/10.22617/SPR210438-2**

ADBI (Asian Development Bank Institute). 2020. *Tourism and SME development: performance of tourism SMEs in coastal tourist destinations in southern Sri Lanka*. ADBI Working Paper Series No. 1164. Tokyo, Asian Development Bank Institute. Cited 1 February 2023. **www.adb.org/publications/tourism-sme-development-southern-sri-lanka**

Addinsall, C., Scherrer, P., Weiler, B. and Glencross, K. 2017. An ecologically and socially inclusive model of agritourism to support smallholder livelihoods in the south Pacific. *Asia and Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 22(3): 301–315. **https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2016.1250793**

Addinsall, C., Weiler, B., Scherrer, P. P. and Glencross, K. 2016. Agroecological tourism: bridging conservation, food security and tourism goals to enhance smallholders' livelihoods on South Pentecost, Vanuatu. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 25(8): 1100–1116. **https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2016.1254221**

Agyeiwaah, E., Mensah, E.A. 2017. The role of global south volunteer NGOS in home-stay arrangements in Ghana: the parallel of Simmel's mediator hypothesis? *Anatolia*, 28(1), 93–95. **https://doi.org/10.1080/13032917.2016.1253024**

Airbnb. 2018. Airbnb and Guilin municipal government work to empower rural communities. In: *News*. San Francisco, USA. Cited 28 January 2023. **https://news.airbnb.com/airbnb-and-guilin-municipal-government-work-to-empower-rural-communities/**

Alampay, R.B.A., ed. 2005. *Sustainable tourism. Challenges for the Philippines.* Makati City, Philippines, Philippine APEC Study Center Network and the Philippine Institute for Development Studies.

Alimi, B.A. 2016. Risk factors in street food practices in developing countries: a review. *Food Science and Human Wellness,* 5(3): 141–146. **http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.fshw.2016.05.001**

Allied Market Research. 2020. Culinary tourism market. In: *Latest reports*. Pune, India. Cited 22 November 2022. **www.alliedmarketresearch.com/culinary-tourism-market-A06326**

Allied Market Research. 2021a. Agritourism market expected to reach $62,982.6 million by 2027–Allied Market Research. In: *Press Release*. Pune, India. Cited 17 November 2022. **www.alliedmarketresearch.com/press-release/agritourism-market.html**

Allied Market Research. 2021b. Agritourism market. In: *Latest reports*. Pune, India. Cited 20 December 2022. **https://www.alliedmarketresearch.com/agritourism-market-A09097**

AMCS (Addu Meedhoo Cooperative Society). 2021. About us. In: *AMCS*. Addu City, Maldives. Cited 19 January 2023. **http://amcs.mv/about-us/**

Amir, A.F., Ghapar, A.A., Jamal, S.A. and Ahmad, K.N. 2015. Sustainable tourism development: a study on community resilience for rural tourism in Malaysia. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences,* 168: 116–122. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.10.217**

Amir, S., Osman, M.O., Bachok, S., Ibrahim, M., and Zen, I. 2017. Community-based tourism in Melaka a UNESCO world heritage area: a a success in food and beverage sector? *Planning Malaysia Journal,* 15(1): 89–108.

Amrutha, C., Meena, S., Sakhitha, S. and Rao, S. 2021. Gastronomical concepts in Ayurveda: an overview. *Journal of Pharmaceutical and Scientific Innovation,* 10 0(2): pp. 38–42. **https://doi.org/10.38-42.10.7897/2277-4572.102202**

Andersson, T., Mossberg, L. and Therkelsen, A. 2017. Food and tourism synergies: perspectives on consumption, production and destination development. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism,* 17(1): 1–8. **https://doi.org/10.1080/15022250.2016.1275290**

ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations). 2015. *ASEAN Tourism Strategic Plan 2016–2025*. Jakarta. Cited 19 January 2023. **https://asean.org/wp-content/uploads/2012/05/ATSP-2016-2025.pdf**

ASEAN. 2016. *Asean Homestay Standard*. Jakarta. Cited 30 May 2022. **www.asean.org/wp-content/uploads/2012/05/ASEAN-Homestay-Standard.pdf**

ASEAN. 2017. *Tourism Marketing Strategy 2017–2020*. Jakarta. Cited 19 January 2023. **https://asean.org/wp-content/uploads/2012/05/ASEAN_Tourism_Marketing_Strategy_2017-2020.pdf**

ASEAN. 2018. *ASEAN Tourism Standards 2018–2020*. Jakarta. Cited 19 January 2023. **https://asean.org/wp-content/uploads/2012/05/19037_ATF2018_Directory_610118.pdf**

ASEAN. 2020. *Go Digital ASEAN: digital skills to address the economic impact of COVID-19. Project fact sheet.* Jakarta. Cited 19 January 2023. **https://asiafoundation.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/06/Factsheet-Go-Digital-ASEAN-as-of-19-June-2020.pdf**

ASEAN. 2022. *ASEAN Tourism Marketing Strategy (ATMS) 2021–2025*. Jakarta. Cited 19 January 2023. **https://asean.org/wp-content/uploads/2022/01/ATMS-2021-2025.pdf**

Ashley, C., De Brine, P., Lehr, A. and Wilde, H. 2007. *The role of the tourism sector in expanding economic opportunity.* Corporate Social Responsibility Initiative Report No. 23. Cambridge, USA, Harvard University, Kennedy School of Government. Cited 27 September 2021. **https://docs.igihe.com/IMG/pdf/report_23_eo_tourism_final.pdf**

Ashley, C. and Haysom, G. 2008. The development impacts of tourism supply chains: increasing impact on poverty and decreasing our ignorance. *In* A. Spenceley, ed. *Responsible tourism: critical issues for conservation and development*, pp. 129–156. London, Earthscan.

Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC). 2017. *Developing the tourism workforce of the future in the APEC region*. Singapore. Cited 1 February 2023. **www.apec.org/publications/2017/04/developing-the-tourism-workforce-of-the-future-in-the-apec-region**

Asiedu, A.B. and Gbedema, T.K. 2011. The nexus between agriculture and tourism in Ghana: a a case of underexploited development potential. *In* R.M. Torres and J.H. Momsen, eds. *Tourism and agriculture: new geographies of production and rural restructuring*, pp. p. 28–46. London, Routledge.

Avieli, N. 2012. *Rice talks: food and community in a Vietnamese town*. Bloomington, USA, Indiana University Press.

Avieli, N. 2013. What is "local food?" Dynamic culinary heritage in the World Heritage Site of Hoi An, Vietnam. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, 8(2–3): 120–132. **https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2013.767812**

Baker, D.McA. 2013. Understanding the economic impact of tourism in the Asian Pacific Region using the Tourism Satellite Account (TSA). *International Journal of Business and Social Science,* 4(3): 15–22. **https://ijbssnet.com/journals/Vol_4_No_3_March_2013/2.pdf**

Balderas-Cejudo, A., Patterson, I. and Leeson, G.W. 2021. Gastronomic tourism and the senior foodies market. *Gastronomy and Food Science*, 2021: pp. 193–204. **https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-820057-5.00010-8**

Bansil, P.D.D, Capellan, S.A.R, Castillo, R.C., Quezon, C.D. and Sarmiento, D.M.B. 2015. Local community assessment on the economic, environmental and social aspects of ecotourism in Lobo, Philippines. *Asia Pacific Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, 3(4): 132–139.

Barbieri, C., Xu, S., Gil-Arroyo, C., and Rich, S. R. 2016. Agritourism, farm visit, or...? A branding assessment for recreation on farms. *Journal of Travel Research*, 55(8): 1094–1108. **https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287515605930**

Barone, M. and Pellerito, A. 2020. The street food culture in Europe. *In* M. Barone and A. Pellerito, *Sicilian street foods and chemistry*, pp. 1–19. Cham, Switzerland, Springer. **https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-55736-2_1**

Bell, C. 2015. Tourists infiltrating authentic domestic space at Balinese home cooking schools. *Tourist Studies*, 15(1): 86–15. **https://doi.org/10.1177/1468797614550958**

Berardo, I., Campos, K., Ordoñez, R., Saravia, F., Sullivan, N. and Williner, F. 2020. *Fighting food waste in the tourism sector. Challenges and opportunities for Latin America, the Caribbean, and beyond.* Washington, DC, Inter-American Development Bank. **www.idbinvest.org/en/publications/fighting-food-waste-tourism-sector-challenges-and-opportunities-latin-americawww.idbinvest.org/en/publications/fighting-food-waste-tourism-sector-challenges-and-opportunities-latin-america**

Berno, T. 2006. Bridging sustainable agriculture and sustainable tourism to enhance sustainability. *In* G.M. Mudacuma, D. Mebratu and M.S. Haque, eds. *Sustainable development policy and administration*, pp. 208–223. Abingdon, UK, Taylor and Francis. **https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315087535-9**

Berno, T. 2011. Sustainability on a plate: linking agriculture and food in the Fiji Islands tourism industry. *In* R.M. Torres and J.H. Momsen, eds. *Tourism and agriculture: new geographies of production and rural restructuring*, pp. 87–103. London, Routledge.

Berno, T., Maltezakis, G. and Laurin, U. 2014. The special role of agriculture in food tourism. *In* E. Wolf and W. Lange-Faria, eds. *Have fork will travel: handbook for food tourism*, pp. 105–114. Portland, USA, World Food Travel Association.

Berno, T., Wisansing, J. and Dentice, G. 2020. Creative agritourism for development. Putting the culture into agriculture in Thailand. *In* C. Dolezal, A. Trupp and H.T. Bui, eds. *Tourism and development in Southeast Asia*, pp. 197–213. London, Routledge. **https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429264191**

Bessière, J. 1998. Local development and heritage: traditional food and cuisine as tourist attractions in rural areas. *Sociologia Ruralis*, 38(1): 21–34.

Bessière, J. 2001. The role of rural gastronomy in tourism. *In* L. Roberts and D. Hall, eds. *Rural tourism and recreation: principles to practice*, pp. 115–118. Wallingford, UK, CABI International.

Bhardwaj, T. 2021. Agri-tourism has positively impacted farmers' lives, socially and economically: Valsa Nair, Maharashtra Tourism. In: *Financial Express*. Noida, India. Cited 26 January 2023. **www.financialexpress.com/lifestyle/travel-tourism/agri-tourism-has-positively-impacted-farmers-lives-socially-economically-valsa-nair-maharashtra-tourism/2252401/**

Bhatta, K. and Ohe, Y. 2019. Farmers' willingness to establish community-based agritourism: evidence from Phikuri village, Nepal. *International Journal of Tourism Sciences*, 19(2): 1–17, **https://doi.org/10.1080/15980634.2019.1621536**

Bhatta, K. 2020. What is agritourism in Nepal? *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Education*, 10: 170–178, **https://doi.org/10.3126/jthe.v10i0.28766**

Bibi, P., Goater, T. and Addinsall, C. 2020. *Agritourism experiences: a situation analysis*. Sippy Downs, Australia, Pacific Agribusiness Research in Development Initiative 2. Cited 1 February 2023. **https://pacificfarmers.com/wp-content/uploads/2022/07/PARDI2-Agritourism-ExperiencesHighResWEB-18Aug2020.pdf**

Bin, W., Yehong, S. and Wenjun, J. 2021. Ecological benefit evaluation of agricultural heritage system conservation. A case study of the Qingtian rice-fish culture system. *Journal of Resources and Ecology*, 12(4): 489–497. **https://doi.org/10.5814/j.issn.1674-764x.2021.04.007**

Björk, P.P. and Kauppinen-Räisänen, H. 2016. Local food: a source for destination attraction. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 28(1): 177–194. **https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-05-2014-0214**

Blair, M., Armstrong, R. and Murphy, M. 2003. *The 360 degree brand in Asia: creating more effective marketing communications*. Singapore, John Wiley and Sons.

Blakeney, M. 2021. The role of geographical indications in agricultural sustainability and economic development. *Annals of Agricultural and Crop Sciences*, 6(1): 1069. **https://austinpublishinggroup.com/agriculture-crop-sciences/fulltext/aacs-v6-id1069.php**

Bonanno, A., Sekine, K. and Feuer, H.N. 2019. *Geographical indication and global agrifood. Development and democratization*. London, Routledge. **https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429470905**

Boniface, P. P. 2003. *Tasting tourism: travelling for food and drink*. London, Routledge. **https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315241777**

Bordelon, B. M. 2016. To travel or not to travel: exploring food allergy policy in the tourism and hospitality industry. Paper presented at the 2016 Travel and Tourism Research Association International Conference, 14–16 June 2016, Vail, USA. **https://scholarworks.umass.edu/ttra/2016/Academic_Papers_Visual/12**

Boyera, S. 2016. *Tourism-led agribusiness in the South Pacific countries*. CTA Working Paper 16/07. Wageningen, the Netherlands, Technical Centre for Agricultural and Rural Cooperation. Cited 1 February 2023. **https://cgspace.cgiar.org/bitstream/handle/10568/89997/1899_PDF.pdf**

Boyne, S., Hall, D. and Williams, F. 2003. Policy, support and promotion for food-related tourism initiatives. A marketing approach to regional development. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 14(3/4): 131–154. **https://doi.org/10.1300/J073v14n03_08**

Bramwell, B. and Lane, B. 2011. Critical research on the governance of tourism and sustainability. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 19(4–5): 411–421. **https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2011.580586**

Bright, D. and Seville, D. 2010. *Think big go small. Adapting business models to incorporate smallholders into supply chains*. Briefings for Business No 6. Oxford, UK, Oxfam International. Cited 1 February 2023. **https://policy-practice.oxfam.org/resources/think-big-go-small-adapting-business-models-to-incorporate-smallholders-into-su-114051/**

Briones, D.M., Cueto, R.M., Ocampo, R., Aballa, J. and Festijo, B. 2013. Lucban specialty foods as culinary attraction in Quezon Province, Philippines. *International Journal in Management and Social Science*, 1(3): 7–14. **https://research.lpubatangas.edu.ph/wp-content/uploads/2014/05/IJMSS-LUCBAN-SPECIALTY-FOODS-AS-CULINARY-ATTRACTION.pdf**

Broadway, M. J. 2017. "Putting place on a plate" along the West Cork food trail. *Tourism Geographies*, 19(3): 467–482. **https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2016.1276615**

Brown, B. 2003. *Strengthening of the tourism sector through the development of linkages with the agricultural sector in St Kitts and Nevis. Paper prepared for the Inter-American Institute for Cooperation on Agriculture*. Basseterre, Saint Kitts and Nevis.

Brown, V. 1996. Heritage, tourism and rural regeneration: the heritage regions programme in Canada. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 4(3): 174–182.

Buckley, R. 2011. Tourism and environment. *Annual Review of Environment and Resources*, 36: 397–416. **https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-environ-041210-132637**

Budiasa, I.W. and Ambarawati, I.A.A. 2014. Community based agro-tourism as an innovative integrated farming system development model towards sustainable agriculture and tourism in Bali. *Journal of International Society for Southeast Asian Agricultural Sciences*, 20: 29–40.

Byrd, E.T. 2007. Stakeholders in sustainable tourism development and their roles: Applying stakeholder theory to sustainable tourism development. *Tourism Review*, 62(2): 6–13. **https://doi.org/10.1108/16605370780000309**

Cagat, K. 2018. Mixed views on the Philippines' Ifugao Rice Terraces: "good" versus "beautiful" in the management of a UNESCO World Heritage site. *Journal of Southeast Asian Studies*, 49: 84–104. **https://doi.org/10.1017/S0022463417000704**

Cambridge University Press. 2023. Hospitality industry. In: *Cambridge Dictionary*. Cambridge, UK. Cited 6 February 2023. **https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/hospitality-industry**

Campbell, J., DiPietro, R.B. and Remar, D. 2014. Local foods in a university setting: price consciousness, product involvement, price/quality inference and consumer's willingness-to-pay. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 42: 39–49. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2014.05.014**

Cao, X. 2015. Challenges and potential improvements in the policy and regulatory framework for sustainable tourism planning in China: the case of Shanxi Province. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 23(3): 455–476. **https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2014.957207**

Cayla, J. and Eckhardt, G.M. 2007. Asian brands without borders: regional opportunities and challenges. *International Marketing Review*, 24(4): 444–456. **https://doi.org/10.1108/02651330710761017**

Chang, R.C.Y., Kivela, J. and Mak, A.H.N. 2010. Food preferences of Chinese tourists. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 37(4): 989–1011. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2010.03.007**

Chang, W. and Yuan, J. 2011. A taste of tourism: visitors' motivations to attend a food festival. *Event Management*, 15(1): 13–23. **https://doi.org/10.3727/152599511X12990855575024**

Chatterjee, S. and Prasad, D.M.V. 2019. The evolution of agri-tourism practices in India: some success stories. *Madridge Journal of Agriculture and Environmental Sciences*, 1(1): 19–25. **https://doi.org/10.18689/mjaes-1000104**

Chen, E. 2022. Asia's Finest Farm-to-Table Dining Experiences. In: *BBC travel*. London. Cited 10 December 2022. **https://www.bbc.com/storyworks/travel/the-insiders-guide-to-luxury-living/asias-finest-farm-to-table-dining-experiences**

Chen, S.C. 2011. Residents' perceptions of the impact of major annual tourism events in Macao: cluster analysis. *Journal of Convention and Event Tourism*, 12(2), 106–128. **https://doi.org/10.1080/15470148.2011.569877**

Chen, T.P., Lee, K.Y., Kabre, P.M. and Hsieh, C.M. 2020. Impacts of educational agritourism on students' future career intentions: evidence from agricultural exchange programs. *Sustainability*, 12(22): 9507. **https://doi.org/10.3390/su12229507**

Cheung, S.C.H. 2013. From foodways to intangible heritage: a case study of Chinese culinary resource, retail and recipe in Hong Kong. *International Journal of Heritage Studies*, 19(4): 353–364. **https://doi.org/10.1080/13527258.2011.654237**

China Global Television Network. 2021. Live: rice terrace awakening in SW China's Guizhou [video]. Cited 9 December 2021. **www.youtube.com/watch?v=duPAyaXWs7M**

China, Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs. 2021. Research Report on Poverty Reduction and Income Increase from Dynamic Conservation of Globally Important Agricultural Heritage Systems (GIAHS) in China. **www.cicos.agri.cn/gzdt/202107/P020210713438939009943.pdf**

China, People's Government of Longsheng County. *Annex 2. Rice terraces systems in subtropical China: Longsheng Longji Terraces*. Rome, FAO. Cited 28 January 2023. **www.fao.org/3/bp832e/bp832e.pdf**

Choenkwan, S., Promkhambut, A., Hayao, F. and Rambo, A.T. 2016. Does agrotourism benefit mountain farmers? A case study in Phu Ruea District, Northeast Thailand. *Mountain Research and Development*, 36(2): 162–172. **http://dx.doi.org/10.1659/MRD-JOURNAL-D-15-00111.1**

Choi, H.C. and Sirakaya, E. 2006. Sustainability indicators for managing community tourism. *Tourism Management*, 27(6): 1274–1289. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2005.05.018**

Choo, H., Ahn, J. and Petrick, J.F. 2016. An integrated model of festival revisit intentions: theory of planned behaviour and festival quality/satisfaction. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 28(4): 818–838. **https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-09-2014-0448**

Choo, H. and Jamal, T. 2009. Tourism on organic farms in South Korea: a new form of ecotourism? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(4): 431–454. **https://doi.org/10.1080/09669580802713440**

Choo, H. and Park, D.B. 2020. The role of agritourism farms' characteristics on the performance: a case study of agritourism farm in South Korea. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, 23(3): 464–477. **https://doi.org/10.1080/15256480.2020.1769520**

Chwe, M.S.Y. 1998. Culture, circles and commercials: publicity, common knowledge and social coordination. *Rationality and Society*, 10 (1): 47–75. **https://doi.org/10.1177/104346398010001002**

Clarke, J. 1997. A framework of approaches to sustainable tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 5(3): 224–233. **https://doi.org/10.1080/09669589708667287**

Clayton, A. and Karagiannis, N. 2008. Sustainable tourism in the Caribbean: alternative policy considerations. *Tourism and Hospitality Planning and Development*, 5(3): 185–201. **https://doi.org/10.1080/14790530802550344**

Community Homestay Network. 2022. *Community experiences Nepal*. Kathmandu. Cited 17 December 2022. **www.communityhomestay.com**

Cohen, E. and Avieli, N. 2004. Food in tourism: attraction and impediment. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(4): 755–778. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2004.02.003**

Conception, S.B., Digal, L. and Uy, J.C. 2007. *Keys to inclusion of small farmers in the dynamic vegetable market: the case of NorminVeggies in the Philippines*. Regoverning Markets Innovative Practice Series. London, International Institute for Environment and Development. Cited 23 January 2023. **https://pubs.iied.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/migrate/G03259.pdf**

Cooper, C. and Hall, C.M., eds. 2020. *Current issues in Asian tourism*. New York, USA, Routledge. **www.routledge.com/Current-Issues-in-Asian-Tourism/Cooper-Hall/p/book/9780367729271**

CTA (Technical Centre for Agricultural and Rural Cooperation). 2016a. *Including small-scale farmers in profitable value chains. Review of case studies on factors influencing successful inclusion of small farmers in modern value chains in ACP countries*. Wageningen, the Netherlands. Cited 19 January 2023. **https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/132686125.pdf**

CTA. 2016b. *Chefs for development: the role of chefs in linking agriculture to tourism in the South Pacific*. Wageningen, the Netherlands. Cited 31 January 2023. **https://brusselsbriefings.files.wordpress.com/2016/07/chefs-for-development_-pacific.pdf**

CTA. 2017. *Transforming food systems in the Pacific. Stories from the field*. Wageningen, the Netherlands. Cited 19 January 2023. **https://publications.cta.int/media/publications/downloads/2005_PDF_2OSOh5K.pdf**

CTA. 2020. *Promoting agritourism development across ACP Small Island developing states and Africa. Project completion report*. Wageningen, the Netherlands. Cited 19 January 2023. **https://cgspace.cgiar.org/bitstream/handle/10568/110488/h5-agritourism-completion-report.pdf**

Daigaku, H. and Nohguchi, R. 2019. A study on the genealogy and current status of farmstays in Japan. *Journal of Rural Planning Association* [special issue], 38: 298–306. **https://doi.org/10.2750/arp.38.298**

Diawati, P. and Loupias, H.H. 2018. The negative impact of rapid growth of culinary tourism in Bandung City: implementation of innovative and eco-friendly model are imperative. Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference on Tourism, Gastronomy, and Tourist Destination (ICTGTD 2018). *Advances in Economics, Business and Management Research*, 52. **https://doi.org/10.2991/ictgtd-18.2018.44**

Di Domenico, M. and Miller, G. 2007. Are plastic cows the future for farming? Implications of an alternative diversification model. *In* J. Tribe and D. Airey, eds. *Developments in Tourism Research*, pp. 21–32). Oxford, UK, Elsevier. **https://doi.org/10.4324/9780080551685**

Dolezal, C., Trupp, A. and Bui, H.T., eds. 2020. *Tourism and development in Southeast Asia*. New York, USA, Routledge. **www.routledge.com/Tourism-and-Development-in-Southeast-Asia/Dolezal-Trupp-Bui/p/book/9780367209254**

Dredge, D. and Jenkins, J. 2007. *Tourism policy and planning*. Milton, Australia, John Wiley and Sons.

Dulnuan, E. 2014. The Ifugao rice terraces tourism: status, problems and concerns. *IAMURE International Journal of Ecology and Conservation*, 10(1).

Ecker, S., Clarke, R., Cartwright, S., Kancans, R., Please, P. and Binks, B. 2010. *Drivers of regional agritourism and food tourism in Australia*. Canberra, Australian Bureau of Agricultural and Resource

Economics – Bureau of Rural Sciences. **www.awe.gov.au/sites/default/files/abares/documents/agritourism-2010-report-11a.pdf#page=47&zoom=100,0,792**

ECLAC (Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean). 2007. *Caribbean tourism and agriculture: linking to enhance development and competitiveness*. Port of Spain. **www.cepal.org/sites/default/files/publication/files/5056/S0700131_en.pdf**

Ellis, A., Park, E., Kim, S. and Yeoman, I. 2018. What is food tourism? *Tourism Management*, 68: 250–263. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2018.03.025**

Environmentally and Socially Responsible Tourism Capacity Development Programme and World Wildlife Fund Vietnam. 2013. *Vietnam community based tourism handbook: a market-based approach.* Hanoi. **https://vietnamtourism.gov.vn/esrt/FileDownload59.pdf**

ERIA (Economic Research Institute for ASEAN and East Asia). 2019. *The cold chain for agrifood products in ASEAN.* ERIA Research Project Report 2018, No. 11. Jakarta. **www.eria.org/publications/the-cold-chain-for-agri-food-products-in-asean/**

ESCAP (Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific). 2017. *Artificial Intelligence and broadband divide: state of ICT connectivity in Asia and the Pacific*. Bangkok. **www.unescap.org/sites/default/d8files/knowledge-products/StateofICT2017_16Jan2018.pdf**

ESCAP. 2018. *Broadband connectivity in Pacific Island Countries*. Bangkok. **https://hdl.handle.net/20.500.12870/1315**

ESCAP. 2021a. *Rethinking MSME finance in Asia and the Pacific: a post-crisis policy agenda.* Bangkok. **www.unescap.org/sites/default/d8files/knowledge-products/Rethinking%20MSME%20Finance%20in%20Asia%20and%20the%20Pacific_FINAL.pdf**

ESCAP. 2021b. *Beyond the pandemic: building back better from crises in Asia and the Pacific*. Bangkok. **www.unescap.org/kp/2021/beyond-pandemic-building-back-better-crises-asia-and-pacific**

Erfurt-Cooper, P. and Cooper, M. 2009. *Health and wellness tourism: spas and hot springs.* Bristol, UK, Channel View Publications.

Euromonitor International. 2012. *Diversity in global street food culture presents challenges and opportunities*. London.

Euromonitor International. 2017. *Megatrend analysis: putting the consumer at the heart of business.* London. **https://go.euromonitor.com/white-paper-2017-megatrend-analysis.html**

European Commission. 2022. The regulation of tourism activity in Europe. In: *Tourism.* Brussels. Cited 15 January 2023. **https://single-market-economy.ec.europa.eu/sectors/tourism/business-portal/understanding-legislation/regulation-tourism-activity-europe_en**

European CSA Research Group. 2015. *European CSA Declaration*. Ostrava, Czechia. Cited 7 February 2023. **https://urgenci.net/wp-content/uploads/2016/09/European-CSA-Declaration_final-1.pdf**

European Parliament. 2021. Definition of pesca-tourism in EU texts. In: *Parliamentary questions.* Brussels. Cited 6 February 2023. **www.europarl.europa.eu/doceo/document/P-9-2021-000727_EN.html**

European Union. 2017. Linking farmers and tourists to solve development challenges in SIDS. In: *Capacity4dev*. Brussels. Cited 19 January 2023. **https://europa.eu/capacity4dev/waqsp/articles/linking-farmers-tourists-solve-development-challenges-sids**

Everett, S. 2016. *Food and drink tourism: principles and practices.* London. Sage Publishing.

Everett, S. and Aitchison, C. 2008. The role of food tourism in sustaining regional identity: a case study of Cornwall, South West England. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism,* 16(2): 150–167. **https://doi.org/10.2167/jost696.0**

Everett, S. and Slocum, S.L. 2013. Food and tourism: an effective partnership? A UK-based review. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 21(6): 789–809. **https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2012.741601**

Fakfare, P., Cho, G., Hwang, H. and Manosuthi, N. 2021. Examining the sensory impressions, value perception, and behavioral responses of tourists: the case of floating markets in Thailand. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing,* 38(7): 666–681. **https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2021.1985042**

Fakfare, P. and Wattanacharoensil, W. 2020. Impacts of community market development on the residents' well-being and satisfaction. *Tourism Review*, 76(5): 1123–1140. **https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-02-2020-0071**

FAO. N.d. *Globally Important Agricultural Heritage Systems (GIAHS) application. Minabe–Tanabe ume system*. Rome. Cited 15 December 2022. **www.fao.org/3/bp806e/bp806e.pdf**

FAO. 1989. *The state of food and agriculture 1989. World and regional reviews. Sustainable development and natural resource management*. Rome. **www.fao.org/3/a-t0162e.pdf**

FAO. 2003. *Committee on Agriculture, Seventeenth Session, Rome, 31 March-4 April 2003. Enhancing support for sustainable rural livelihoods. Item 7 of the Provisional Agenda*. Rome. Cited 2 February 2023. **www.fao.org/3/Y8349e/Y8349e.htm**

FAO. 2007. *Approaches to linking producers to markets: a review of experiences to date.* Agricultural Management, Marketing and Finance Occasional Paper No. 13. Rome. Cited 23 January 2023. **www.fao.org/3/a1123e/a1123e00.pdf**

FAO. 2009. *Good hygienic practices in the preparation and sale of street food in Africa. Tools for training*. Rome. **www.fao.org/3/a0740e/a0740e00.pdf**

FAO. 2010. *Linking people, places and products. A guide for promoting quality linked to geographical origin and sustainable geographical indications*. Rome. **www.fao.org/3/i1760e/i1760e.pdf**

FAO. 2011. *Selling street and snack foods*. FAO Diversification Booklet 18. Rome. **www.fao.org/3/i2474e/i2474e.pdf**

FAO. 2012a. *Report on a scoping mission in Samoa and Tonga. Agriculture and tourism linkages in Pacific Island Countries*. Rome. **www.fao.org/3/an476e/an476e.pdf**

FAO. 2012b. *Globally Important Agricultural Heritage Systems. The rice–fish culture system in China*. Rome. **www.fao.org/3/ap203e/ap203e.pdf**

FAO. 2014. *Developing sustainable food value chains. Guiding principles.* Rome. **www.fao.org/3/i3953e/i3953e.pdf**

FAO. 2016. *Pacific agriculture and tourism policy toolkit. Policy measures to promote linkages and drive inclusive growth in Pacific Island Countries.* Apia. **www.fao.org/3/a-i5972e.pdf**

FAO. 2018a. Rice terraces in southern mountainous and hilly areas, China. In: *GIAHS around the world*. Rome. Cited 15 December 2022. **https://www.fao.org/giahs/giahsaroundtheworld/designated-sites/asia-and-the-pacific/rice-terraces-systems-in-subtropical-china/detailed-information/en/**

FAO. 2018b. *Globally Important Agricultural Heritage Systems. Combining agricultural biodiversity, resilient ecosystems, traditional farming practices and cultural identity.* Rome. **www.fao.org/3/i9187en/I9187EN.pdf**

FAO. 2018c. *Sustainable food systems. Concept and framework*. Rome. **www.fao.org/3/ca2079en/CA2079EN.pdf**

FAO. 2019a. Agri Tourism Development Corporation Agri Tourism India. In: *Family Farming Knowledge Platform*. Rome. Cited 12 December 2022. **www.fao.org/family-farming/network/network-detail/en/c/177631/**

FAO. 2019b. *Geographical indications for sustainable food systems. Preserving and promoting agricultural and food heritage.* Rome. **www.fao.org/3/ca5693en/ca5693en.pdf**

FAO. 2019c. *Mountain agriculture. Opportunities for harnessing Zero Hunger in Asia*. Bangkok. **www.fao.org/3/ca5561en/ca5561en.pdf**

FAO. 2020a. *Globally Important Agricultural Heritage Systems, Geographical Indications and Slow Food Presidia. Technical note.* Rome. **www.fao.org/3/cb1854en/cb1854en.pdf**

FAO. 2020b. DOT, FAO sign partnership pact to promote farm tourism, agriculture. In: *FAO in the Philippines*. Rome. Cited 26 January 2023. **www.fao.org/philippines/news/detail/fr/c/1294312**

FAO. 2021a. *COVID-19 pandemic impacts on Asia and the Pacific. A regional review of socioeconomic, agrifood and nutrition impacts and policy responses*. Bangkok. **www.fao.org/3/cb8594en/cb8594en.pdf**

FAO. 2021b. Practices. In: *Agroecology Knowledge Hub*. Rome. Cited 2 February 2023. **www.fao.org/agroecology/knowledge/practices/en/**

FAO. 2022a. Dong's rice fish duck system, China. In: *GIAHS around the world*. Rome. Cited 15 December 2022. **www.fao.org/giahs/giahsaroundtheworld/designated-sites/asia-and-the-pacific/dongs-rice-fish-duck-system/detailed-information/en/**

FAO. 2022b. Final report of the project "Agro-Ecotourism Development Support for Ca Mau, Viet Nam". FAO internal document. Hanoi.

FAO. 2023. GIAHS. Globally Important Agricultural Heritage Systems. In: *FAO*. Rome. Cited 6 February 2023. **www.fao.org/giahs/en/**

FAO and Caribbean Development Bank. 2019. *Study on the state of agriculture in the Caribbean.* Rome, FAO. **https://doi.org/10.4060/CA4726EN**

FAO, IFAD (International Fund for Agricultural Development), UNICEF (United Nations Children's Fund), WFP (World Food Programme) and WHO (World Health Organization). 2020. *The state of food security and nutrition in the world 2020. Transforming food systems for affordable healthy diets*. Rome. **https://doi.org/10.4060/ca9692en**

Fauzel, S. 2020. FDI and tourism futures: a dynamic investigation for a panel of small island economies. *Journal of Tourism Futures*, 7(1). **www.emerald.com/insight/content/doi/10.1108/JTF-05-2018-0026/full/html**

Fortune Business Insights. 2020. Agritourism market size, share and COVID-19 impact analysis, by type (direct-market, education and experience, and event and recreation), and regional forecast, 2020–2027. In: *Agriculture equipment and machinery*. Pune, India. Cited 12 December 2022. **www.fortunebusinessinsights.com/agritourism-market-103297**

Frey, J.B. and Berkes, F. 2014. Can partnerships and community-based conservation reverse the decline of coral reef social-ecological systems? *International Journal of the Commons*, 8(1): 26–46.

Frost, W. and Laing, J. 2013. Communicating persuasive messages through slow food festivals. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 19(1): 67–74.

Frost, W., Laing, J., Best, G., Williams, K., Strickland, P. and Lade, C. 2016. *Gastronomy, tourism and the media.* Bristol, UK, Channel View Publications.

Fuentes-Moraleda, L., Lafuente-Ibáñez, C., Muñoz-Mazón, A. and Villace, T. 2019. Willingness to pay more to stay at a boutique hotel with an environmental management system. A preliminary study in Spain. *Sustainability*, 11(18): 5134. **https://doi.org/10.3390/su11185134**

Fusté-Forné, F. 2015. Cheese tourism in a world heritage site: Vall de Boí (Catalan Pyrenees). *European Journal of Tourism Research*, 11: 87–101.

Gabrielli, P. 2020. How to use Instagram to sell your food in 2020. In: *Meero*. Paris. Cited 1 December 2022. **www.meero.com/en/news/food/475/1822-how-to-use-instagram-to-sell-your-food-in-2020-en**

Gálvez, E. 2022. *Scaling up inclusive innovation in agrifood value chains in Asia and the Pacific.* Bangkok, FAO. **https://doi.org/10.4060/cb8306en**

Gálvez Nogales, E. and Mihara, K. 2021. Gender, women and youth: implications for innovation and digitalization in the Pacific. Paper presented at the [virtual] SIDS Solution Forum 2021, 30–31 August. Bangkok, FAO. **www.fao.org/3/cb5760en/cb5760en.pdf**

Gao, J., Barbieri, C. and Valdivia, C. 2013. Agricultural landscape preferences: implications for agritourism development. *Journal of Travel Research*, 53(3): 366–379. **https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287513496471**

Gao, J. and Wu, B. 2017. Revitalizing traditional villages through rural tourism: a case study of Yuanjia Village, Shaanxi Province, China. *Tourism Management*, 63: 223–233. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2017.04.003**

Gao, S., Huang, S. and Huang, Y. 2009. Rural tourism development in China. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 11(5): 439–450. **https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.712**

Gascón, J. 2015. Pro-poor tourism as a strategy to fight rural poverty: a critique. *Journal of Agrarian Change*, 15(4): 499–518. **https://doi.org/10.1111/joac.12087**

GEF Small Grants Programme. N.d. Contributing to conserve herbal gen and improve livelihood of Dao ethnic minority through developing herbal bath service for community-tourism in Quan Ba commune, Quan Ba district. In: *Projects*. New York, USA. Cited 30 May 2022. **https://sgp.undp.org/spacial-itemid-projects-landing-page/spacial-itemid-project-search-results/spacial-itemid-project-detailpage.html?view=projectdetail&id=23763**

George, B., Nedelea, A. and Antony, M. 2007. The business of community based tourism: a multi-stakeholder approach. *Tourism Issues*, 3: 1–19.

Getz, D., Carlsen, J. and Morrison, A. 2004. *The family business in tourism and hospitality*. Wallingford, UK, CABI International. **https://doi.org/10.1079/9780851998084.0000**

Getz, D., Robinson, R., Andersson, T. and Vujicic, S. 2014. *Foodies and food tourism*. Oxford, UK, Goodfellow Publishers.

Giampiccoli, A. and Kalis, J. 2012. Tourism, food, and culture: community-based tourism, local food, and community development in Mpondoland. *Culture, Agriculture, Food and Environment*, 34(2): 101–123.

Giampiccoli A., Mnguni M. and Dłużewska A. 2020. Local food, community-based tourism and well-being: connecting tourists and hosts, *Czasopismo Geograficzne*, 91(1–2): 249–268.

Gibson, D. 2018. Agriculture and tourism linkages and the potential for import substitution. Presentation presented at the workshop "Linking agriculture and tourism in Fiji", 26 February 2018, Fiji, **http://pafpnet.spc.int/images/jevents/5a93c2d11d0fd3.99909680.pdf**

Gil Arroyo, C., Barbieri, C. and Rozier Rich, S. 2013. Defining agritourism: a comparative study of stakeholders' perceptions in Missouri and North Carolina. *Tourism Management*, 37: 39–47. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.12.007**

Gkoltsiou, A., Athanasiadou, E. and Paraskevopoulou, A. 2021. Agricultural heritage landscapes of Greece: three case studies and strategic steps towards their acknowledgement, conservation and management. *Sustainability*, 13(11): 5955. **https://doi.org/10.3390/su13115955**

Global Blue and Roland Berger. 2018. *Millennials: the generation reshaping travel and shopping habits*. Eysins, Switzerland, Global Blue and Paris, Roland Berger. **www.rolandberger.com/publications/publication_pdf/millennials_the_generation_reshaping_travel_and_shopping_habits_.pdf**

Gomes, E., Abrantes, P., Banos, A., Rocha, J., and Buxton, M. 2019. Farming under urban pressure: farmers' land use and land cover change intentions. *Applied Geography*, 102: 58–70. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apgeog.2018.12.009**

Gómez, J.M., Ruiz, M. and Melé, P.M. 2018. 2018. Vegetarian restaurants as a determining factor of the vegetarian tourist's destination choice. *European Journal of Family Business*, 8(1): 69–79.

Gössling, S. and Hall, C. 2013. *Sustainable culinary systems. Local foods, innovation, and tourism and hospitality*. London, Routledge.

Gössling, S., Peeters, P., Hall, C.M., Ceron, J-P., Dubois, G., Lehmann, L.V. and Scott, D. 2012. Tourism and water use: supply, demand, and security. An international review. *Tourism Management*, 33(1): 1–15. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2011.03.015**

GSMA. 2020. *The Mobile Economy Asia Pacific 2019*. London. **https://data.gsmaintelligence.com/api-web/v2/research-file-download?id=44564519&file=2768-260619-ME-AP.pdf**

GSTC (Global Sustainable Tourism Council Criteria). 2016. *GSTC industry criteria with suggested performance indicators for hotels and accommodations*. Washington, DC. Cited 19 January 2023. **www.gstcouncil.org/wp-content/uploads/GSTC-Industry-Criteria-for-Hotels-with-indicators-Dec-2016.pdf**

Guo, Z. and Sun, L. 2016. The planning, development and management of tourism: the case of Dangjia, an ancient village in China. *Tourism Management*, 56: 52–62. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.03.017**

Guruge, M.C.B. 2020. Conceptual review on gastronomy tourism. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, 10(2): 319–325. **http://dx.doi.org/10.29322/IJSRP.10.02.2020.p9844**

Gursoy, D., Jurowski, C. and 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., Kim, K. and Uysal, M. 2004. Perceived impacts of festivals and special events by organizers: an extension and validation. *Tourism Management*, 25(2): 171–181. **https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(03)00092-X**

GWI (Global Wellness Institute). 2018. *Asia-Pacific wellness tourism economy*. Miami, USA. **https://globalwellnessinstitute.org/industry-research/asia-pacific-wellness-tourism/**

Ha, V.T. and Mohanty, P.P. 2021. Exploring the level of tourist satisfaction in agritourism: a reflection of Tra Que Village, Vietnam. *Journal of Gastronomy and Tourism*, 5(2): 107–116. **https://doi.org/10.3727/216929721X16105303036481**

Hall, C.M. 2005. Rural wine and food tourism cluster and network development. *In* D. Hall, I. Kirkpatrick and M. Mitchell, eds. *Rural tourism and sustainable business,* pp. 149–164. Bristol, UK, Channel View Publications.

Hall, C.M. and Gössling, S. 2016. *Food tourism and regional development. Networks, products and trajectories*. London, Routledge.

Hall, C.M. and Jenkins, J. 1998. Rural tourism and recreation policy dimensions. *In* R. Butler, C.M. Hall and J. Jenkins, eds. Tourism and recreation in rural areas, pp. 19–42. Chichester, UK, John Wiley.

Hall, C.M. and Page, S.J. 2014. *The geography of tourism and recreation: environment, place and space*. London, Routledge.

Hall, C.M. and Page, S.J. 2016. *The Routledge handbook of tourism in Asia*. London, Routledge.

Hall, C.M. and Mitchell, R. 2001. Wine and food tourism. *In* N. Douglas and R. Derrett, eds. *Special interest tourism: context and cases*, pp. 307–329. Brisbane, Australia, John Wiley.

Hall, C.M. and Sharples, L. 2003. The consumption of experiences or the experience of consumption? An introduction to the tourism of taste. *In* C.M. Hall, L. Sharples, R. Mitchell, E. Park, N. Macionis and B. Cambourne, eds. *Food tourism around the world*, pp. 1–24. London, Routledge.

Hall, C.M. and Sharples, L. 2008. *Food and wine festivals and events around the world: development, management and markets*. Oxford, UK, Butterworth Heinemann.

Hall, P.K. and Wood, A. 2020. *Ten legal issues for farmstay operators*. Factsheet Series: 2020. Fayetteville, USA, National Agricultural Law Center. Cited 2 February 2023. **https://nationalaglawcenter.org/wp-content/uploads//assets/articles/hall_farmstay.pdf**

Hamilpurkar, S. 2012. Agri tourism in Karnataka: issues, constraints and possibilities. *International Journal of Research in Commerce, Economics and Management*, 2(7): 106–111.

Hampton, M.P. and Jeyacheya, J. 2013. *Tourism and inclusive growth in small island developing states*. London, Commonwealth Secretariat.

Hampton, M.P., Jeyacheya, J. and Long, P.H. 2018. Can tourism promote inclusive growth? Supply chains, ownership and employment in Ha Long Bay, Vietnam. *The Journal of Development Studies*, 54(2): 359–376. **https://doi.org/10.1080/00220388.2017.1296572**

Han, G., Akhmedov, A., Li, H., Yu, J. and Hunter, W.C. 2020. An interpretive study on sustainability in the link between agriculture and tourism: tourist-stakeholder satisfaction in Tiantangzhai, China. *Sustainability*, 12(2): 571. **https://doi.org/10.3390/su12020571**

Harrison, D. 2008. Pro-poor tourism: a critique. *Third World Quarterly*, 29(5): 851–868. **https://doi.org/10.1080/01436590802105983**

Harvey, E.C. 2010. *Strategic Plan for Regional Development (SPRD). Background study. Regional agrotourism policy*. Georgetown, Caribbean Community. **https://caricom.org/documents/9838-eharvey_agrotourism_study_final.pdf**

Hashimoto, A. and Telfer, D.J. 2008. From saké to sea urchin: food and drink festivals and regional identity in Japan. *In* C.M. Hall and L. Sharples, eds. *Food and wine festivals and events around the world: development, management and markets*, pp. 249–278. Oxford, UK, Butterworth Heinemann.

Hashimoto, A. and Telfer, D.J. 2011. Female empowerment through agriculture in rural Japan? *In* R.M. Torres and J.H. Momsen, eds. *Tourism and agriculture: new geographies of production and rural restructuring*, pp. p. 72–84. London, Routledge.

Hashimoto, A. and Telfer, D.J. 2015. Culinary trails. *In* D.J. Timothy, ed. *Heritage cuisines. Traditions, identities and tourism*, pp. 144–159. London, Routledge.

Hau, P.X. and Tuan, V.A. 2017. The development of rural tourism in Vietnam: objectives, practical experiences and challenges. *Van Hien University Journal of Science*, 5(2): 189–212.

Heindorf, I. 2019. Sikkim's state policy on organic farming and Sikkim Organic Mission, India. In: *Panorama*. Cited 25 January 2023. **https://panorama.solutions/en/solution/sikkims-state-policy-organic-farming-and-sikkim-organic-mission-india**

Henderson, J.C. 2004. Food as a tourism resource: a view from Singapore. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 29(3): 69–74. **https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2004.11081459**

Henderson, J.C. 2016. Foodservice in Singapore: retaining a place for hawkers? *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, 19(3): 272–286. **https://doi.org/10.1080/15378020.2016.1175900**

Henderson, J.C. 2021. Street food and gastronomic tourism. *In* S.K. Dixit, ed. *The Routledge handbook of gastronomic tourism*, pp. 431–440. New York, USA, Routledge.

Hieu, V. and Yen, H. 2019. Analysing economic contribution of tourism: insights from selected Southeast Asian countries. *Management*, 23(2): 223–237. **https://sciendo.com/downloadpdf/journals/manment/23/2/article-p223.pdf**

Higgins-Desbiolles, F. 2020. Socialising tourism for social and ecological justice after COVID-19. *Tourism Geographies*, 22(3): 610–623. **https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2020.1757748**

Hjalager, A. and Richards, G. 2002. *Tourism and gastronomy*. London, Routledge.

Hoang, G., Le, H.T.T, Nguyen, A.H. and Dao, Q.M.T. 2020. The impact of geographical indications on sustainable rural development: a case study of the Vietnamese Cao Phong Orange. *Sustainability*, 12(11): 4711. **https://doi.org/10.3390/su12114711**

Horng, J.S. and Tsai, C.T. 2012. Culinary tourism strategic development: an Asia-Pacific perspective. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 14(1): 40–55.

Hrelia, S. 2015. Food, tourism and health: a possible sinergy? *Almatourism – Journal of Tourism, Culture and Territorial Development*, 6(11): 1–10. **https://doi.org/10.6092/issn.2036-5195/5290**

Hummel, J., Gujadhur, T. and Ritsma, N. 2012. Evolution of tourism approaches for poverty reduction impact in SNV Asia: cases from Lao PDR, Bhutan and Vietnam. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 18(4): 369–384. **https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2012.658417**

Huynh-Van, B., Vuong-Thao, V., Huynh-Thi-Thanh, T., Dang-Xuan, S., Huyhn-Van, T., Tran-To, L., Nguyen-Thi-Thao, N. *et al.* 2022. Factors associated with food safety compliance among street food vendors in Can Tho City, Vietnam: implications for intervention activity design and implementation. *BMC Public Health* 22: 94. **https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-022-12497-2**

Ichijo, A. and Ranta, R. 2016. *Food, national identity and nationalism: from everyday to global politics*. London, Palgrave Macmillan.

IFC (International Finance Corporation). 2016. *Case study. A hotel is not just a place to sleep. IFC investments in high-quality hotels: promoting jobs, business infrastructure, tax revenues, and local supply chains*. Washington, DC. **www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/2e1ff2b5-4863-4bf6-b84b-e4dfd88df4c7/Tourism_FINAL_web.pdf?MOD=AJPERES&CVID=lfJk9wF**

IFC. 2018a. *From the farm to the tourist's table: a study of fresh produce demand from Fiji's hotels and resorts*. Washington, DC. Cited 19 January 2023. **https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/30942**

IFC. 2018b. *Assessment of the economic impact of cruise tourism in Fiji*. Washington, DC. **www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/region__ext_content/ifc_external_corporate_site/east+asia+and+the+pacific/resources/cruise+tourism+in+fiji+assessment**

IFC. 2020. *Fiji COVID-19 business survey: tourism focus. Impacts, responses and recommendations*. Washington, DC. **www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/4fc358f9-5b07-4580-a28c-8d24bfaf9c63/Fiji+COVID-19+Business+Survey+Results+-+Tourism+Focus+Final.pdf?MOD=AJPERES&CVID=ndnpJrE**

IFC. 2021. *Investment reform map for Lao PDR. A foundation for a new investment policy and promotion strategy. Lao PDR Investment Climate Reform Project*. Washington, DC. **www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/f936df8b-8bcb-4cfd-99b8-840844d4ebb5/Lao+IRM+Report-FINAL.pdf?MOD=AJPERES&CVID=nuOEnGF**

IFC. N.d. *Shangri-La's Villingili Resort and Spa, Maldives. Creating jobs in a nation of atolls*. Washington, DC. Cited 19 January 2023. **www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/7a40eef8-57ee-4b82-afc4-9d0d00cba193/Flyer_Shangri-La_final.pdf?MOD=AJPERES&CVID=lgg1oCi**

ILO (International Labour Organization). 2010. Developments and challenges in the hospitality and tourism sector. Sectoral Activities Programme. Issues paper for discussion at the Global Dialogue Forum for the Hotels, Catering, Tourism Sector, 23–24 November 2010, Geneva, Switzerland. **www.ilo.org/sector/Resources/publications/WCMS_162202/lang--en/index.htm**

ILO. 2020a. *Thematic brief: COVID-19 and employment in the tourism sector: impact and response in Asia and the Pacific*. Geneva, Switzerland. **www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/documents/briefingnote/wcms_742664.pdf**

ILO. 2020b. *Experiences of ASEAN migrant workers during COVID-19: rights at work, migration and quarantine during the pandemic, and re-migration plans*. Geneva, Switzerland. **www.ilo.org/asia/publications/issue-briefs/WCMS_746881/lang--en/index.htm**

IMF (International Monetary Fund). 2020. *Regional economic outlook. Asia and Pacific. Navigating the pandemic: a multispeed recovery in Asia*. Washington, DC. **www.imf.org/en/Publications/REO/APAC/Issues/2020/10/21/regional-economic-outlook-apd**

IMF. 2021. *Tourism in the post-pandemic world: economic challenges and opportunities for Asia-Pacific and the Western Hemisphere*. Washington, DC. **https://doi.org/10.5089/9781513561905.087**

India, Andhra Pradesh. 2020. *Government of Andhra Pradesh Tourism Policy 2020–2025*. Amaravati, India. Cited 26 January 2023. **https://aptourism.gov.in/media-data/documents/6-1170c3b0fe3613982afab1600627a35d60ebba2d.pdf**

India, Kerala, Department of Tourism. 2022. Responsible Tourism Mission. In: *Kerala tourism*. Thiruvananthapuram, India. Cited 17 December 2022. **www.keralatourism.org/responsible-tourism**

India, Ministry of Tourism. 2015. Market research and statistics. In: *Ministry of Tourism*. Delhi. Cited 14 September 2021. **https://tourism.gov.in/market-research-and-statistics**

International Ecotourism Society. N.d. What is ecotourism? In: *The International Ecotourism Society*. Washington, DC. Cited 23 November 2022. **https://ecotourism.org/what-is-ecotourism/**

International Telecommunication Union (ITU). 2023. Statistics. In: *ITU*. Geneva, Switzerland. Cited 9 February 2023. **www.itu.int/en/ITU-D/Statistics/Pages/stat/default.aspx**

Iorio, M. and Corsale, A. 2010. Rural tourism and livelihood strategies in Romania. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 26(2), pp. 152–62. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrurstud.2009.10.006**

Iqbal, M. 2022. Instagram revenue and usage statistics (2022). In: *BusinessofApps*. Cited 29 November 2022. Staines-upon-Thames, UK. **www.businessofapps.com/data/instagram-statistics/**

Ismail, N. and Chansawang, R. 2018. Promoting agritourism through connecting young farmers using mobile technology in Thailand. Paper presented at the conference "Newton Inclusive Innovation for Enhanced Local Experience in Tourism", 28–31 August 2018, Phukt, Thailand. **http://oro.open.ac.uk/59772/13/59772.pdf**

ITC (International Trade Centre). 2010. *Inclusive tourism: linking agriculture to tourism markets. Technical paper*. Geneva, Switzerland. **https://intracen.org/media/file/2811**

ITU (International Telecommunication Union). 2021. *Measuring digital development. Facts and figures 2021*. Geneva, Switzerland. **www.itu.int/en/ITU-D/Statistics/Documents/facts/FactsFigures2021.pdf**

Jaafar, M., Khoshkam, M., Rashid, M.M. and Dahalan, N. 2014. Sustainable tourism related SMEs through strategy identification. *SHS Web of Conferences*, 12: 01070. **http://dx.doi.org/10.1051/shsconf/20141201070**

Jacobs, H. 2010. *A selected internet guide to culinary trails*. Toronto, Canada, Ryerson University, Ted Rogers School of Hospitality and Tourism Management.

www.geography.ryerson.ca/geo509/A_Selected_Internet_Guide_to_Culinary_Trails.pdf

Japan, Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism. 2016. *New tourism strategy to invigorate the Japanese economy*. Tokyo. Cited 26 January 2023. **www.mlit.go.jp/common/001172615.pdf**

Japan, National Statistics Center. N.d. View data (municipality data). In: *System of Social and Demographic Statistics (SSDS)*. Tokyo. Cited 15 December 2022. **www.e-stat.go.jp/en/regional-statistics/ssdsview/municipality**

Japan National Tourism Organization. 2020. Initiatives to attract educational travel to Japan in areas promoting farmstay. In: *Japan educational travel*. Tokyo. Cited 12 December 2022. **https://education.jnto.go.jp/en/news/2020/03/farm-stay/**

Japan Tourism Agency. 2020. *White Paper on tourism in Japan, 2020 (summary)*. Tokyo. Cited 17 January 2023. **www.mlit.go.jp/kankocho/en/siryou/content/001375676.pdf**

Japan Tourism Agency. 2021. International visitor survey. In: *Statistics/White Paper*. Tokyo. Cited 23 November 2022. **www.mlit.go.jp/kankocho/en/siryou/toukei/syouhityousa.html**

Ji, M., Wong, I.A., Eves, A. and Scarles, C. 2016. Food-related personality traits and the moderating role of novelty-seeking in food satisfaction and travel outcomes. *Tourism Management*, 57: 387–396. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.06.003**

Jiang, Y., Wang, S. and Chung-Chou, T. 2016. Study on the consumption of agritourism in China. *DEStech Transactions on Engineering and Technology Research*. **https://doi.org/10.12783/dtetr/ssme-ist2016/3903**

Jiao, W., Fuller, A.M., Xu, S., Min, Q. and Wu, M. 2016. Socio-ecological adaptation of agricultural heritage systems in modern China: three cases in Qingtian County, Zhejiang Province. *Sustainability*, 8(12): 1260. **https://doi.org/10.3390/su8121260**

Jiao, W. and Min, Q. 2017. Reviewing the progress in the identification, conservation and management of China-Nationally Important Agricultural Heritage Systems (China-NIAHS). *Sustainability*, 9(10): 1–14.

Jo, J.Y.O. 2004. Neglected voices in the multicultural America: Asian American racial politics and its implication for multicultural education. *Multicultural Perspectives*, 6(1): 19–25. **https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327892mcp0601_4**

Johnston, J. and Baumann, S. 2010. *Foodies: democracy and distinction in the gourmet foodscape*. London, Routledge.

Jolliffe, L. 2019. Cooking with locals: a food tourism trend in Asia? *In* E. Park, S. Kim and L. Yeoman, eds. *Food Tourism in Asia*, pp. 59–70. Singapore, Springer.

Jones, C. and Munday, M. 2001. Tourism and local economic development: three case studies. Paper presented at the 41st Annual Meeting of the European Regional Science Association, "European Regional Development Issues in the New Millennium and their Impact on Economic Policy", August 2001, Zagreb, Chamber of Economy.

Jones, H. 2013. *Entry points for developing tourism in Nepal. What can be done to address constraints to inclusive growth?* London, Overseas Development Institute. **https://cdn.odi.org/media/documents/8448.pdf**

JTB Tourism Research and Consulting Co. 2022. Japan-bound statistics. In: *Tourism database*. Tokyo. Cited 23 November 2022. **www.tourism.jp/en/tourism-database/stats/inbound/#annual**

Kaini, M. 2019. Agro-tourism in Nepal: a rural development perspective. *Nepalese Journal of Development and Rural Studies*, 16: 53–65. **https://doi.org/10.3126/njdrs.v16i0.31571**

Kaiwa, E. 2017. Sustainable tourism in Asia: current situation, trends and existing practices. *In* P. Schroeder, K. Anggraeni, S. Sartori and U. Weber, eds. *Sustainable Asia: supporting the transition to sustainable consumption and production in Asian developing countries*, pp. 359–390. SWITCH-Asia Network Facility and Collaborating Centre on Sustainable Consumption and Production. Singapore, World Scientific Publishing. **https://doi.org/10.1142/9862**

Kajihara, H., Zhang, S., You, W. and Min, Q. 2018. Concerns and opportunities around cultural heritage in East Asian Globally Important Agricultural Heritage Systems (GIAHS). *Sustainability*, 10(4): 1235. **https://doi.org/10.3390/su10041235**

Kamble, Z. and Bouchon, F. 2014. Tourism planning and a nation's vision: a review of the tourism policy of Sri Lanka. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 144: 229–236. **http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.07.291**

Kan, K. 2021. Creating land markets for rural revitalization: land transfer, property rights and gentrification in China. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 81: 68–77. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrurstud.2020.08.006**

Keadplang, K. 2021. *Strategic marketing promotion for the experiential Thai local food festival development: a case study of Phuket, Thailand*. The Graduate School of Tourism Management, National Institute of Development Administration, Thailand. PhD dissertation.

Kelly, C. 2008. Strengthening the St Kitts farmers cooperative's capacity to deliver direct sales to the tourism sector. Project investment profile prepared for the Inter-American Institute for Cooperation in Agriculture (unpublished). Basseterre, Saint Kitts and Nevis.

Khanal, B.R. 2014. Tourism inter-industry linkages in the Lao PDR economy: an input-output analysis. *Tourism Economics* 20 (1): 171–194. **https://doi.org/10.5367/te.2013.0255**

Kılıç, B., Bekar, A. and Yozukmaz, N. 2021. The new foodie generation: Gen Z. *In* N. Stylos, R. Rahimi, B. Okumus and S. Williams, eds. *Generation Z marketing and management in tourism and hospitality*, pp. 223–247. London, Palgrave Macmillan. **https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-70695-1_9**

Kim, S. and Ellis, A. 2015. Noodle production and consumption: from agriculture to food tourism in Japan. *Tourism Geographies*, 17(1): 151–167.

Kim, S. and Iwashita, C. 2016. Cooking identity and food tourism: the case of Japanese udon noodles. *Tourism Recreation Research,* 41(1): 89–100. **https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2016.1111976**

Kim, S., Kim, M., Agrusa, J. and Lee, A. 2012. Does a food-themed TV drama affect perceptions of national image and intention to visit a country? An empirical study of Korea TV drama. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing,* 29(4): 313–326.

Kim, Y.G., Eves, A. and Scarles, C. 2009. Building a model of local food consumption on trips and holidays: a grounded theory approach. *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* 28: 423–431. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2008.11.005**

King, R. and Dinkoksung, S. 2013. Ban Pa-Ao, pro-poor tourism and uneven development. *Tourism Geographies,* 16(4): 687–703. **https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2013.865071**

Kiper, T. 2013. Role of ecotourism in sustainable development. *In* M. Ozyavuz, ed. *Advances in Landscape Architecture*, pp. 773–870. London, IntechOpen. **https://doi.org/10.5772/55749**

Kirk Hall, P. 2019. *Food sales at agritourism operations: legal issues*. Fayetteville, USA, National Agricultural Law Center. Cited 15 January 2023. **https://nationalaglawcenter.org/wp-content/uploads//assets/articles/agritourism-series-combined.pdf**

Kivela, J. 1997. Restaurant marketing: selection and segmentation in Hong Kong. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 9 (3): 116–23.

Kivela, J. and Crotts, J. C. 2005. Gastronomy tourism. A meaningful travel market segment. *Journal of Culinary Science and Technology*, 4(2–3): 39–55. **https://doi.org/10.1300/J385v04n02_03**

Kiss, A. 2004. Is community-based ecotourism a good use of biodiversity conservation funds? *Trends in Ecology and Evolution,* 19(5): 232–237. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2004.03.010**

Konrad, A. and Ekiem, B. 2011. Lanna Boutique Hotels: a new destination for cultural tourism in Chiang Mai. *In* A. Bahauddin, ed. *Proceedings. 2nd Regional Conference on Tourism Research (RCTR 2011)*, pp. 287–295. 22 November 2011. Penang, Malaysia, Universiti Sains Malaysia.

Kontogeorgopoulos, N. 2004. Ecotourism and mass tourism in Southern Thailand: spatial interdependence, structural connections, and staged authenticity. *GeoJournal,* 61(1): 1–11. **https://doi.org/10.1007/s10708-005-8631-6**

Kotharia, H. and Perwejs, A. 2021. Agro-tourism in Rajasthan: a way to bring down issues in our surrounding environment. *Turkish Journal of Computer and Mathematics Education,* 12(3): 3288–3292.

Kozak, M. and Rimmington, M. 1998. Benchmarking: destination attractiveness and small hospitality business performance. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 10(5): 184–188. **https://doi.org/10.1108/09596119810227767**

Kuang, Y.T. and Bhat, R. 2017. Sustainability challenges in food tourism. *In* R. Bhat, ed. *Sustainability challenges in the agrofood sector*, pp. 451–481. Oxford, UK, Wiley Sons.

Kumar, D., Mehta, S.K., Godara, A.K., Hudda, R.S. and Sharma S. 2010. Prospects of agritourism in Haryana. *Haryana Journal of Agronomy*, 26(1-2): 53–54.

Kururatchaikul, P. 2014. *Food tourism in Thailand: consumer behaviors of foreign tourists in Thailand on Thai food*. Tokyo, Waseda University. Master's thesis.

Lai, M.Y., Khoo-Lattimore, C. and Wang, Y. 2017. Food and cuisine image in destination branding: toward a conceptual model. *Tourism and Hospitality Research,* 19(2): 238–251. **https://doi.org/10.1177/1467358417740763**

LaPan, C. and Barbieri, C. 2013. The role of agritourism in heritage preservation. *Current Issues in Tourism,* 17(8): 666–673. **https://doi.org/17.10.1080/13683500.2013.849667**

Lau, C. and Li, Y. 2019. Analyzing the effects of an urban food festival: a place theory approach. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 74: 43–55. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2018.10.004**

Lee, T.J., Han, J.S. and Ko, T.G. 2020. Health-oriented tourists and sustainable domestic tourism. *Sustainability*, 12(12): 4988. **https://doi.org/10.3390/su12124988**

Lee, D. and Kwek, A. 2020. Tourists' perceptions of food trucks in Asia. A Hong Kong case study. *In* S.K. Dixit, ed. *Tourism in Asian Cities,* pp. 176–189. New York, USA, Routledge. **https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429264801-13**

Lejarraja, I. and Walkenhorst, P. 2007. *Diversification by deepening linkages with tourism*. Washington DC, World Bank.

Lemma, F.A. 2014. *Tourism for poverty reduction in south Asia. What works and where are the gaps?* London, Overseas Development Institute. Cited 19 January 2023. **https://partnerplatform.org/_/gy8bjfyl**

Lenzen, M., Sun, Y.Y., Faturay, F., Ting, Y.P., Geschke, A. and Malik, A. 2018. The carbon footprint of global tourism. *Nature Climate Change,* 8: 522–528. **https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-018-0141-x**

Lewis, G.H. 1997. Celebrating asparagus: community and the rationally constructed food festival. *Journal of American Culture*, 20(4): 73–78.

Lévi-Strauss, C. 2008. The culinary triangle. *In* C. Counihan, P. Van Esterik and A. Julier, eds. *Food and culture: a reader,* pp. 36–43. New York, USA, Routledge.

Li, M., Zhang, Y., Xu, M., He, L., Liu, L. and Tang, Q. 2020. China eco-wisdom: a review of sustainability of agricultural heritage systems on aquatic-ecological conservation. *Sustainability*, 12(1): 60. **https://doi.org/10.3390/su12010060**

Li, N. and Wang, J. 2020. Food waste of Chinese cruise passengers. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 28(11): 1825–1840. **https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2020.1762621**

Li, X. and Shen, Q. 2012. A study on urban private capital and the transfer of labor in the modern agriculture sector. *Journal of Economic Policy Reform*, 15: 135–52.

Li, Y.J., Yu, H., Chen, T., Hu, J. and Cui, H.Y. 2016. Livelihood changes and evolution of upland ethnic communities driven by tourism: a case study in Guizhou Province, southwest China. *Journal of Mountain Science*, 13(7): 1313–1332.

Liberato, P., Liberato, D., Sousa, B. and Malheiro, M. 2020. Global and recent trends in halal tourism. Paper presented at the 35th IBIMA Conference, Seville, Spain, 1–2 April 2020.

Lin, Y., Pearson E.T. and Cai, L.A. 2011. Food as a form of destination identity: a tourism destination brand perspective. *Tourism and Hospitality Research,* 11(1): 30–48. **https//doi.org/10.1057/thr.2010.22**

Lindberg, K., Furze, B., Staff, M. and Black, R. 1997. *Ecotourism and other services derived from forests in the Asia-Pacific Region: outlook to 2010*. Asia-Pacific Forestry Sector Outlook Study. Working Paper No. 24. Bangkok and Rome, FAO. **www.fao.org/3/w7714e/w7714e.pdf**

Liu, Y., Li, J., and Yang, Y. 2018. Strategic adjustment of land use policy under the economic transformation. *Land Use Policy*, 74: 5–14. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.landusepol.2017.07.005**

Lonely Planet. 2023. Rice terraces. In: *China*. Fort Mill, USA. Cited 17 December 2021. **www.lonelyplanet.com/china/longji-rice-terraces/attractions/rice-terraces/a/poi-sig/1239286/1323551**

Long, L.M. 1998. Culinary tourism: a folkloristic perspective on eating and otherness. *Southern Folklore*, 55(3): 181–204.

Long, L.M. 2004. Culinary tourism: a folkloristic perspective on eating and otherness. *In* L.M. Long, ed. *Culinary tourism,* pp. 20–50. Lexington, USA, University of Kentucky Press.

Long, L.M. 2013. Culinary tourism. *In* P. Thompson and D. Kaplan, eds. *Encyclopaedia of food and agricultural ethics*, pp. 1–8. **https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-6167-4_416-1**

López-Guzmán, T., Uribe Lotero, C.P., Pérez Gálvez, J.C. and Ríos Rivera, I. 2017. Gastronomic festivals: attitude, motivation and satisfaction of the tourist. *British Food Journal*, 119(2): 267–283.

Lunchaprasith, T. 2017. Gastronomic experience as a community development driver: the study of Amphawa Floating Market as community-based culinary tourism destination. *Asian Journal of Tourism Research*, 2(2): 84–116.

Lybbert, T. J. and Sumner, D. A. 2012. Agricultural technologies for climate change in developing countries: Policy options for innovation and technology diffusion. *Food Policy*, 37(1): 114–123. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodpol.2011.11.001**

Lyttleton, C. and Allcock, A. 2002. *External Review. "Tourism as a Tool for Development". UNESCO-Lao National Tourism Authority. Nam Ha Ecotourism Project*. Paris, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. Cited 2 February 2023. **https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000144843**

Ma, L. and Lew, A.A. 2012. Historical and geographical context in festival tourism development, *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, 7(1):13–31. **https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2011.611595**

Mahaliyanaarachchi, R. 2015. *Agritourism farm and farm stay*. Department of Agri Business Management, Faculty of Agricultural Sciences, Sabaragamuwa University of Sri Lanka, **https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.1.3938.4721**

Mahatma Phule Krishi Vidyapeeth, Rahuri. 2018. *Annual report 2016–2017*. Rahuri, India. Cited 9 February 2023. **https://mpkv.ac.in/Uploads/Publication/Annual%20Report%202016-2017_English_20191118042550.pdf**

Mak, A.H.N., Lumbers, M. and Eves, A. 2012. Globalisation and food consumption in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39(1): 171–196. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2011.05.010**

Malkanthi, S.H.P. and Routray, J.K. 2012. Visitor satisfaction in agritourism and its implications for agritourism farmers in Sri Lanka. *International Journal of Agricultural Management*, 2(1): 17–30. **https://doi.org/10.22004/ag.econ.159245**

Manaktola, K. and Jauhari, V. 2007. Exploring consumer attitude and behaviour towards green practices in the lodging industry in India. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 19(5): 364–377. **https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110710757534**

Manalili, N.M. 2013. Trends, patterns and trajectories in brokering small scale farmer engagement with private enterprises in selected countries of Southeast Asia. Paper presented at the "Regional Learning Session on Sustainable and Inclusive Marketing Arrangements Towards Increasing Farmers' Market Power", 9–11 May 2013, Quezon City, Philippines, Asian Farmers Association for Rural Development. **http://asianfarmers.org/afaresearches0876dlsj/2013-09privateenterprises.pdf**

Manyara, G. and Jones, E. 2007. Community-based tourism enterprises development in Kenya: an exploration of their potential as avenues of poverty reduction. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 15(6): 628–644.

Ma'rifah, A., Estelee, A., Umi, R., Sela, F. and Nurul, H. 2019. Halal food as gastronomy tourism strategy: opportunities and challenges for Indonesian economy. Paper presented at the First International Conference on Islamic Development Studies 2019, ICIDS 2019, 10 September 2019, Bandar Lampung, Indonesia. **https://eudl.eu/doi/10.4108/eai.10-9-2019.2289382**

Martyn, T. and Caniogo, V. 2016. Agriculture and tourism: leveraging the synergies for growth in the Pacific Islands. Paper presented at the Pacific Futures Conference, USP, Suva, Fiji, 18 July 2016. **https://pafpnet.spc.int/attachments/article/801/Agriculturepercent20andpercent20tourismpercent20Pacificpercent20Updates percent20Conference.pdf**

McGehee, N.G. 2004. Motivation for agri-tourism entrepreneurship. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(2): 161–170. **https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287504268245**

McGehee, N.G. 2007. An agritourism systems model: a Weberian perspective. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 15(2): 111–124. **https://doi.org/10.2167/jost634.0**

Meraner, M., Pölling, B. and Finger, R. 2018. Diversification in peri-urban agriculture: a case study in the Ruhr metropolitan region. *Journal of Land Use Science*, 13(3): 284–300. **https://doi.org/10.1080/1747423X.2018.1529830**

Meyer, D. 2007. Pro-poor tourism: from leakages to linkages. A conceptual framework for creating linkages between the accommodation sector and "poor" neighbouring communities. *Current Issues in Tourism,* 10(6): 558–583. **https://doi.org/10.2167/cit313.0**

Meyer, M., Ashley, C. and Poultney, C. 2004. *Tourism–agricultural linkages: boosting inputs from local farmers*. Business Implementation of Pro Poor Tourism: Case Study Briefs, No. 3. London, Overseas Development Institute, Pro Poor Tourism Pilots (Southern Africa) Programme. **https://cdn.odi.org/media/documents/3790.pdf**

Michelin Guide. 2020. Street food. In: *Restaurants*. Clermont-Ferrand, France. Cited 8 February 2023. **https://guide.michelin.com/en/restaurants/street-food**

Milne, S. 2005. *The economic impact of tourism in SPTO Member Countries. Final report*. Suva, South Pacific Tourism Organisation. **www.nztri.org.nz/sites/default/files/Pacific_Economic_Impact_Report.pdf**

Milne, S. and Mason, D. 2000. Linking tourism and agriculture: innovative IT solutions. Paper presented at the Regional Agro-Tourism Conference, 26–29 April 2000, Tobago. **http://repositorio.iica.int/bitstream/handle/11324/10506/BVE20068028i.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y**

Minabe–Tanabe Regional Association for GIAHS Promotion. 2022. Minabe–Tanabe ume system. In: *GIAHS ume system*. Minabe and Tanabe, Japan. Cited 15 December 2022. **www.giahs-minabetanabe.jp/en/ume-system/**

Mintel. 2018. Mintel announces three global food and drink trends for 2019. In: *Food and drink*. London. Cited 10 December 2022. **www.mintel.com/press-centre/food-and-drink/mintel-announces-three-global-food-and-drink-trends-for-2019**

Mitchell, E. 2021. FoodTok vs FoodTube: battle of the food platforms. In: *The Boar*. Warwick, UK. Cited 1 December 2022. **https://theboar.org/2021/08/foodtok-foodtube/**

Mitchell, J. and Ashley, C. 2010. *Tourism and poverty reduction: pathways to prosperity*. London, Earthscan.

Molina-Gómez, J., Ruiz-Ruiz, M. and Mercadé-Melé, P. 2018. Vegetarian restaurants as a determining factor of the vegetarian tourist's destination choice. *European Journal of Family Business*. 8(1): 69–79. **https://doi.org/10.24310/ejfbejfb.v8i1.5005**

Momsen, J.H. 2003. Participatory development and indigenous communities in the Mexican Caribbean. *In* J. Pugh and R. Potter, eds. *Participatory and communicative planning in the Caribbean*, pp. 155–72. Aldershot, UK, Ashgate Publishing.

Montefrio, M.J.F. and Sin, H.L. 2021. Between food and spectacle: the complex reconfigurations of rural production in agritourism. *Geoforum*, 126: pp. 383–393. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoforum.2021.09.008**

Mosedale, J. and Albrecht, J. 2011. *Tourism regulation and relational geography: the global, local and everything in between*. London and New York, USA, Routledge.

MTCO (Mekong Tourism Coordinating Office). 2017. *Greater Mekong Subregion tourism sector strategy 2016–2025. Final draft report*. Bangkok. **www.greatermekong.org/sites/default/files/2016_2025_GMS_Tourism_Sector_Strategy.pdf**

MTCO. 2018a. *Case study Longji rice terraces*. Bangkok. Cited 3 February 2023. **https://chameleonstrategies.box.com/s/vhbtd0eb1ueqkxrzmeybc2edysio2raq**

MTCO. 2018b. *2018 Mekong tourism projects summary*. Bangkok. Cited 3 February 2023. **https://drive.google.com/file/d/1ADemEzUYkjYIJGFNWJ7D01lT4oJSEsIY/view**

Mueller, H. and Kaufmann, E. L. 2001. Wellness tourism: market analysis of a special health tourism segment and implications for the hotel industry. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 7(1): 5–17. **https://doi.org/10.1177/135676670100700101**

Mulcahy, J. 2015. Future consumption: gastronomy and public policy. *In* I. Yeoman, U. McMahon-Beattie, K. Fields, J. Albrecht and K. Meethan, eds. *The future of food tourism: foodies, experiences, exclusivity, visions and political capital*, pp. 75–86. Toronto, Canada, Channel View Publications.

Mulcahy, J. 2021. Historical evolution of gastronomic tourism. *In* S.K. Dixit, ed. *The Routledge handbook of gastronomic tourism,* pp. 24–31. New York, USA, Routledge.

Naruetharadhol, P. and Gebsombut, N. 2020. A bibliometric analysis of food tourism studies in Southeast Asia. *Cogent Business and Management*, 7(1): 1–15. **https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2020.1733829**

Na Songkhla, T. 2012. Impact of agro-tourism on local agricultural occupation: a case study of Chang Klang District, southern Thailand. *ASEAN Journal on Hospitality and Tourism*, 11(2): 98–109. **https://doi.org/10.5614/ajht.2012.11.2.03**

Nepal, Ministry of Tourism and Civil Aviation. 2009. *Tourism Vision 2022*. Kathmandu. **https://www.tourism.gov.np/files/publication_files/1Tourism-Vision-2020-Final2.pdf**

Nghia, P. 2020. Salted seafood festival offers taste of Mekong Delta. In: *VnExpress International*. Hanoi. Cited 7 December 2022. **https://e.vnexpress.net/news/travel/food/salted-seafood-festival-offers-taste-of-mekong-delta-4036932.html**

Nielsen. 2015. *The sustainability imperative. New insights on consumer expectations*. New York, USA. Cited 3 February 2023. **www.nielsen.com/wp-content/uploads/sites/3/2019/04/Global20Sustainability20Report_October202015.pdf**

Nielsen. 2018. *Sustainable shoppers buy the change they wish to see in the world*. New York, USA.

Nyaupane, G.P. and Timothy, D.J. 2010. Power, regionalism and tourism policy in Bhutan. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 37(4): 969–988. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2010.03.006**

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). 2008. *Tourism in OECD Countries 2008. Trends and policies*. Paris. **https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264039773-3-en**

OECD. 2009. *The role of agriculture and farm household diversification in the rural economy: evidence and initial policy implications*. Paris, OECD. **www.rederural.gov.pt/centro-de-recursos/send/17-politicas-da-ue/697-the-role-of-agriculture-and-farm-household-diversification-in-the-rural-economy**

OECD. 2017a. *Policy statement – tourism policies for sustainable and inclusive growth*. Paris. **www.oecd.org/cfe/tourism/OECD-Policy-Statement-Tourism-Policies-for-Sustainable-and-Inclusive-Growth.pdf**

OECD. 2017b. *A review of the policy framework for tourism marketing and promotion*. OECD Tourism Papers No. 2017/01. Paris. **https://doi.org/10.1787/096d0ace-en**

OECD. 2018a. *Effective policy approaches for quality investment in tourism.* Paris. **https://doi.org/10.1787/88ea780c-en**

OECD. 2018b. *OECD Tourism trends and policies 2018*. Paris. **https://doi.org/10.1787/tour-2018-en**

OECD. 2019. *Making the most of tourism in Indonesia to promote sustainable regional development*. Economics Department Working Papers No. 1535. Paris. **www.oecd.org/officialdocuments/publicdisplaydocumentpdf/?cote=ECO/WKP(2019)4&docLanguage=En**

OECD. 2020. *OECD tourism trends and policies 2020*. Paris. **https://doi.org/10.1787/6b47b985-en**

OECD. 2021. *Managing tourism development for sustainable and inclusive recovery*. OECD Tourism Papers No. 2021/01. Paris. **https://doi.org/10.1787/b062f603-en**

Ohe, Y. 2008. Impact of rural tourism operated by retiree farmers on multifunctionality: evidence from Chiba, Japan. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 13(4): 343–56. **https://doi.org/10.1080/10941660802420945**

Ohe, Y. 2017. Assessing managerial efficiency of educational tourism in agriculture: case of dairy farms in Japan. *Sustainability*, 9(11): 1931. **https://doi.org/10.3390/su9111931**

Okumus, B., Okumus, F. and McKercher, B. 2007. Incorporating local and international cuisines in the marketing of tourism destinations: the cases of Honk Kong and Turkey. *Tourism Management,* 28(1): 253–261. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2005.12.020**

Ollivaud, P. and Haxton, P. 2019. *Making the most of tourism in Indonesia to promote sustainable regional development*. OECD Economics Department Working Papers No. 1535. Paris, OECD. **https://doi.org/10.1787/c73325d9-en**

Opute, A.P., Irene, B. and Iwu, C.G. 2020. Tourism service and digital technologies: a value creation perspective. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 9(2): 1–18. **https://www.ajhtl.com/uploads/7/1/6/3/7163688/article_5_vol_9_2__2020_germany.pdf**

Organ, K., Koenig-Lewis, N., Palmer, A. and Probert, J. 2015. Festivals as agents for behaviour change: A study of food festival engagement and subsequent food choices. *Tourism Management* 48: 84–99. **http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.10.021 0261-5177**

Othman, P. and Rosli, M.M. 2011. The impact of tourism on small business performance: empirical evidence from Malaysian Islands. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(1): 11–21.

Oxford Economics and PATA (Pacific Asia Travel Association). 2018. *Data and digital platforms: driving tourism growth in Asia Pacific*. Bangkok. **www.oxfordeconomics.com/publication/download/319141**

Oxford University Press. 2022. Digital native. In: *Oxford Learner's Dictionaries*. Oxford, UK. Cited 14 December 2022. **www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/digital-native**

Pacific Agribusiness Research in Development Initiative 2 (PARDI2). 2020. *Agritourism Experiences: A Situational Analysis.* **https://pardi.pacificfarmers.com/wp-content/uploads/2020/08/PARDI2-Agritourism-Experiences-WEB-18Aug2020.pdf**

Pamukçu, H., Saraç, Ö., Aytuğar, S. and Sandıkçı, M. 2021. The effects of local food and local products with Geographical Indication on the development of tourism gastronomy. *Sustainability*, 13(12): 6692. **https://doi.org/10.3390/su13126692**

Parasecoli, F. 2022. How countries use food to win friends and influence people. In: *Foreign Policy*. Washington, DC. Cited 8 February 2023. **https://foreignpolicy.com/2022/08/20/food-diplomacy-countries-identity-culture-marketing-gastrodiplomacy-gastronativism/**

Park, C.H. 2014. Nongjiale tourism and contested space in rural China. *Modern China*, 40(5): 519–548.

Park, E. and Kim, S. 2018. Supporting the industry or just consuming leisure? The case of industrial festivals and events in Jeonju, South Korea: *In* W. Frost and J. Laing, eds. *Exhibitions, trade fairs and industrial events,* pp. 161–172. London, Routledge.

Park, E., Kim, S. and Yeoman, I. 2019. *Food tourism in Asia*. Singapore, Springer.

Park, E., Phandanouvong, T. and Kim, S. 2018. Evaluating participation in community-based tourism: a local perspective in Laos. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 21(2): 128–132. **https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2017.1323851**

Pearce, D.G. 2016. National tourism organization and administration. *In* J. Jafari and H. Xiao, eds. *Encyclopedia of tourism*, pp. 651–652. Cham, Switzerland, Springer. **https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-01384-8_483**

Pednekar, P. 2017. Maharashtra government directs schools to take students on tours to rural areas. In: *Hindustan Times*. Delhi. Cited 26 January 2023. **www.hindustantimes.com/mumbai-news/maharashtra-government-directs-schools-to-take-students-on-tours-to-rural-areas/story-QsSs6LlBGdgMwZ7zojnMvJ.html**

Peeters, P.M. and Eijgelaar, E. 2014. Tourism's climate mitigation dilemma: flying between rich and poor countries. *Tourism Management,* 40: 15–26. **http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.05.001**

People's Government of Longsheng County, Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region, China. *Annex 2. Rice terraces systems in subtropical China: Longsheng Longji Terraces*. Rome, FAO. Cited 28 January 2023. **www.fao.org/3/bp832e/bp832e.pdf**

Petroman, I., Varga, M., Constantin, E.C., Petroman, C., Momir, B., Turc, B. and Merce, I. 2016. Agritourism: an educational tool for the students with agro-food profile. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 39: pp. 83–87. **https://doi.org/10.1016/S2212-5671(16)30244-1**

Pezzi, M.G., Faggian, A. and Reid, N., eds. 2021. *Agritourism, wine tourism, and craft beer tourism: local responses to peripherality through tourism niches*. New York, USA, Routledge.

Pforr, C. and Phau, I., eds. 2020. *Food, wine and China: a tourism perspective*. New York, USA, Routledge.

Phillip, S., Hunter, C. and Blackstock, K. 2010. A typology for defining agritourism. *Tourism Management*, 31(6): 754–758. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2009.08.001**

Philippines, Department of Tourism. 2015. National Tourism Development Plan 2016–2022. In: *Tourism strategy*. Makati City, Philippines. Cited 4 February 2023. **www.tourism.gov.ph/NTDP.aspx**

Philippines, Department of Tourism and Department of Agriculture. 2020. *Rules and regulations governing the accreditation of farm tourism camps*. DOT-DA Joint Memorandum Circular No. 2020-002. Makati City, Philippines, Department of Tourism and Quezon City, Philippines, Ministry of Agriculture. **https://law.upd.edu.ph/wp-content/uploads/2021/04/DOT-DA-JOINT-MEMORANDUM-CIRCULAR-NO.-2020-002.pdf**

Pickel-Chevalier, S. and Ketut, B. 2016. Towards sustainable tourism in Bali. A Western paradigm in the face of Balinese cultural uniqueness. *Mondes du tourisme* [special issue]. **https://doi.org/10.4000/tourisme.1187**

Pingali, P., Aiyar, A., Abraham, M. and Rahman, A. 2019. Linking farms to markets: reducing transaction costs and enhancing bargaining power. *In* P. Pingali, A. Aiyar, M. Abraham and A. Rahman. *Transforming food systems for a rising India*, pp. 193–214. Cham, Switzerland, Palgrave Macmillan.

Pinky, S. and Kaur R. 2014. Prospects and problems of agri-tourism in Punjab State. *International Journal of Advanced Research*, 2(9): 66–73. **www.journalijar.com/article/2476/prospects-and-problems-of-agri-tourism-in-punjab-state/**

Pladdet, A. 2019. *The role of authenticity in food tourism development in two historic cities in Malaysia. A comparative study between George Town, Penang and Ipoh, Perak*. Wageningen, the Netherlands, Wageningen University and Research. Master's thesis.

Poceski, M. 2021. What is the Moon Festival? A scholar of Chinese religions explains. In: *The Conversation*. Paris. Cited 7 December 2022. **https://theconversation.com/what-is-the-moon-festival-a-scholar-of-chinese-religions-explains-167090**

Polovitz Nickerson, N., Black, R.J. and McCool, S.F. 2001. Agritourism: motivations behind farm/ranch business diversification. *Journal of Travel Research,* 40(1): 19–26. **https://doi.org/10.1177/004728750104000104**

Pongajarn, C., van der Duim, R. and Peters, K. 2018. Floating markets in Thailand: same, same, but different. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, 16(2): 109–122. **https://doi.org/10.1080/14766825.2016.1253704**

Pratt, S., Magbalot-Fernandez, A. and Ohe, Y. 2022. Motivations and constraints of developing agritourism under the challenges of climate change: the case of Samoa. *International Journal of Tourism Research,* 24(4): 610–622. **https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.2525**

Prayukvong, W., Huttasin, N. and Foster, M.J. 2015. Buddhist economics meets agritourism on the Thai farm. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 9(2): 183–199. **https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCTHR-08-2014-0065**

Prepared Foods. 2017. Ayurveda influences food culture. Michigan, USA. Cited 27 February 2023. **www.preparedfoods.com/articles/120540-ayurveda-influences-food-culture**

Privitera, D. 2010. The importance of organic agriculture in tourism rural. *Applied Studies in Agribusiness and Commerce*, 4(1-2): 6.

Pulido-Fernández, J.I. and López-Sánchez, Y. 2016. Are tourists really willing to pay more for sustainable destinations? *Sustainability,* **8(12):** 1240. **https://doi.org/10.3390/su8121240**

Purnomo, A. 2016. The roles of food industries as a part of food tourism development for woman empowerment in Bogor. Paper presented at the Asia Tourism Forum 2016, the 12th Biennial Conference of Hospitality and Tourism Industry in Asia. 7–9 May 2016, Bandung, Indonesia. **https://doi.org/10.2991/atf-16.2016.55**

Raji, M.N.A., Karim, S.A., Ishak, F.A.C. and Arshad, M.M. 2020. Exploring local food characteristics in developing food tourism Destination at Lenggong Valley, Perak. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 10(6): 927–936. **http://dx.doi.org/10.6007/IJARBSS/v10-i6/7462**

Rashid, M.M., Jaafar, M. and Dahalan, N. 2013. Tourism and SME businesses opportunity in Lenggong Valley World Archaeological Heritage Site Malaysia. *In* B. Mohamed and A. Bahauddin, eds. *Proceedings of International Conference on Tourism Development*, pp. 150–163. Penang, Malaysia, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Sustainable Tourism Research Cluster.

Rauniyar, S., Awasthi, M.K., Kapoor, S. and Mishra, A.K. 2021. Agritourism: structured literature review and bibliometric analysis. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 46(1): 52–70. **https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2020.1753913**

Reid, S., Ruhanen, L. and Davidson, M. 2010. *Legal basis for state and territory tourism planning*. Gold Coast, Australia, Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research Centre. Cited 6 February 2023. **https://sustain.pata.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/02/120025-Reid-Legal-BasisTourism-WEB.pdf**

Rey Bolaños, M.A.R. 2014. *Tthe role of community-based tourism in sustainable rural development: case studies from Ecuador. PhD research plan.* Barcelona, Spain, Universitat Politècnica a de Catalunya, Barcelona. Cited 1 February 2023. **https://is.upc.edu/ca/intranet/pts-prs-q2-curs-2014-15/documents/PRReyBolaos.pdf**

Rhiney, K. 2011. Agritourism linkages in Jamaica: case study of the Negril all-inclusive hotel sector. *In* R.M. Torres and J.H. Momsen, eds. *Tourism and agriculture: new geographies of production and rural restructuring*, pp. p. 117–138. London, Routledge.

Richards, G. 2012. An overview of food and the tourism experience: major findings and policy orientations. *In* OECD. *Food and the tourism experience. The OECD-Korea Workshop*. OECD Studies on Tourism, pp. 13–46. Paris, OECD.

Richards, G. 2015. Evolving gastronomic experiences: from food to foodies to foodscapes. *Journal of Gastronomy and Tourism*, 1(1): 5–17. **https://doi.org/10.3727/216929715X14298190828796**

Richards, G. 2021. Evolving research perspectives on food and gastronomic experiences in tourism. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 33(3): 1037–1058. **https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-10-2020-1217**

Richards, G. and Raymond, C. 2000. Creative tourism. *ATLAS News*, 1(23): 16–20.

Rinaldi, C. 2017. Food and gastronomy for sustainable place development: a multidisciplinary analysis of different theoretical approaches. *Sustainability*, 9(10): 1748. **https://doi.org/10.3390/su9101748**

Rockower, P.S. 2012. Recipes for gastrodiplomacy. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 8: 235–246. **https://doi.org/10.1057/pb.2012.17**

Rodrigues, J.G. and Villasante, S. 2016. Disentangling seafood value chains: tourism and the local market driving small-scale fisheries. *Marine Policy*, 74: 33–42. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpol.2016.09.006**

Rodriguez, T.A. 2018. Costales Nature Farms: enjoying its status as the premier place for agri-tourism visits. In: *Agriculture Magazine*. Manila. Cited 8 February 2023. **www.agriculture.com.ph/2018/04/06/costales-nature-farms-enjoying-its-status-as-the-premier-place-for-agri-tourism-visits/**

Rogerson, C.M. 2012. Strengthening agriculture–tourism linkages in the developing world: opportunities, barriers and current initiatives. *African Journal of Agricultural Research*, 7(4): 616–623. **https://academicjournals.org/article/article1380899003_Rogerson.pdf**

Rolle, R. and Enriquez, O. 2017. *Souvenir food packaging. A training resource for small food processors and artisans.* Rome, FAO. **www.fao.org/3/i7353e/i7353e.pdf**

Romeo, R., Russo, L., Parisi F., Notarianni, M., Manuelli S. and Carvao, S. 2021. *Mountain tourism – towards a more sustainable path*. Madrid, UNWTO and Rome, FAO. **https://doi.org/10.4060/cb7884en**

Roslina, R., Nurmalina, R., Najib, M. and Asnawi, Y. 2022. Government policies on agro-tourism in Indonesia. *WSEAS Transactions on Business and Economics*, 19: 141–149. **https://doi.org/10.37394/23207.2022.19.15**

Rueegg, M. 2009. *The impact of tourism on rural poverty through supply chain linkages to local food producers in the Bolivian Altiplano*. London School of Economics and Political Science. Master's thesis.

Saarinen, J., ed. 2021. *Tourism and Sustainable Development Goals: research on sustainable tourism geographies.* New York, USA, Routledge.

Saayman, M. and Giampiccoli, A. 2016. Community-based and pro-poor tourism: initial assessment of their relation to community development. *European Journal of Tourism Research*, 12: 145–190.

Sakata, H. and Prideaux, B. 2013. An alternative approach to community-based ecotourism: a bottom-up locally initiated non-monetised project in Papua New Guinea. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 21(6): 880–899. **https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2012.756493**

Sánchez-Cañizares, S. and López-Guzmán, T. 2011. Gastronomy as a tourism resource: profile of the culinary tourist. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 15(3): 229–245. **https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2011.589895**

Sardiana, I.K. and Ramaswati Purnawan, N.L. Community-based ecotourism in Tenganan Dauh Tukad: an indigenous conservation perspective. *Journal of Bali Studies*, 5(2): 347–368. **https://ojs.unud.ac.id/index.php/kajianbali/article/view/16780**

Sasu, K. and Epuran, G. 2016. An overview of the new trends in rural tourism. *Bulletin of the Transilvania University of Brasov*, December 2016.

Sati, V.P. 2019. Potential and forms of sustainable village tourism in Mizoram, Northeast India. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Academic Tourism*, 4(1): 49–62. **http://dx.doi.org/10.31822/jomat.527278**

Scarpato, R. 2002. Sustainable gastronomy as a tourist product. *In* A. Hjalager and G. Richards, eds. *Tourism and gastronomy*, pp. 132–152. London, Routledge.

Scheyvens, R. and Laeis, G. 2021. Linkages between tourist resorts, local food production and the sustainable development goals. *Tourism Geographies*, 23(4): 787–809. **https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2019.1674369**

Scheyvens, R. and Momsen, J.H. 2008. Tourism and poverty-reduction: issues for small island states. *Tourism Geographies*, 10(1): 22–41. **https://doi.org/10.1080/14616680701825115**

Schilling, B.J., Sullivan, K.P. and Komar, S.J. 2012. Examining the economic benefits of agritourism: the case of New Jersey. *Journal of Agriculture, Food Systems, and Community Development*, 3(1): 199–214. **https://doi.org/10.5304/jafscd.2012.031.011**

Schmitt, E., Galli, F., Menozzi, D., Maye, D., Touzard, J.M., Marescotti, A., Six, J. and Brunori, G. 2017. Comparing the sustainability of local and global food products in Europe. *Journal of Cleaner Production,* 165: 346–359. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.07.039**

Schultz, J. 2016. The future of food tourism: foodies, experiences, exclusivity, visions, and political capital. *Annals of Leisure Research,* 20(4): 510–512. **http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/11745398.2016.1238309**

SEARCA (Southeast Asian Regional Center for Graduate Study and Research in Agriculture). 2019. *Reshaping agriculture and development in Southeast Asia: an experts consultation forum. Proceedings of the expert forum held on 2 August 2018, SEARCA Headquarters, Los Baños, Laguna, Philippines*. Los Baños, Philippines. **https://hdl.handle.net/10568/102086**

Shah, K. and Gupta, V. 2000. *Tourism, the poor and other stakeholders: experience in Asia.* London, Overseas Development Institute. **https://cdn.odi.org/media/documents/3244.pdf**

Shankman, S. 2004. Three-quarters of millennial travelers update social media once a day. In: *Skift*. New York, USA. Cited 29 November 2022. **https://skift.com/2014/06/10/three-quarters-of-millennial-travelers-update-social-media-once-a-day/**

Sharma, V.P., Vorley, B., Huang, J., Suleri, A.Q., Digal, L. and Reardon, T.A. 2013. *Linking smallholder producers to modern agrifood markets: case studies from South and South-East Asia*. New Delhi, Allied Publishers.

Sharples, L. 2003. The world of cookery-school holidays. *In* C.M. Hall, L. Sharples, R. Mitchell, N. Macionis and B. Cambourne, eds. *Food tourism around the world: development, management and markets*, pp. 102–120. Oxford, UK, Butterworth-Heinemann.

Sharples, L. 2008. Apples, cider and celebration. *In* C.M. Hall and L. Sharples, eds. *Food and wine festivals and events around the world: development, management and markets*, pp. 133–145. Oxford, UK, Butterworth Heinemann.

Sharpley, R. and Sharpley, J. 1997. *Rural tourism: an introduction*. London, International Thomson Business Press. **https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1522-1970(200003/04)2:2<148::AID-JTR210>3.0.CO;2-U**

Sharpley, R. and Vass, A. 2006. Tourism, farming and diversification: an attitudinal study. *Tourism Management*, 27(5): 1040–1052. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2005.10.025**

Shaw, G. and Williams, A.M. 2002. *Critical issues in tourism: a geographical perspective*. Oxford, UK, Blackwell Publishers.

Shin, Y.H., Im, J., Jung, S.E. and Severt, K. 2017. Consumers' willingness to patronize locally sourced restaurants: the impact of environmental concern, environmental knowledge, and ecological behavior. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management,* 26(6): 644–658. **https://doi.org/10.1080/19368623.2017.1263821**

Sikhiram, N. 2014. Promoting food safety and food security in rural tourism destination. *SHS Web of Conferences*, 12: 01062. **https://doi.org/10.1051/shsconf/20141201062**

Siphannara, P. 2019. *Overview of community-based ecotourism for sustainable development in Cambodia. Briefing Note. Regional Fellowship Program*. Phnom Penh, Parliamentary Institute of Cambodia. Cited 6 February 2023. **https://pcasia.org/pic/wp-content/uploads/simple-file-list/20191014_Overview-of-Community-Based-Ecotourism-for-Sustainable-Development-in-Cambodia.pdf**

Skift and McKinsey and Company. 2020. *The travel industry turned upside down: insights, analysis and actions for travel executives.* New York, USA. Cited 16 January 2023. **www.mckinsey.com/industries/travel-logistics-and-infrastructure/our-insights/the-travel-industry-turned-upside-down-insights-analysis-and-actions-for-travel-executives**

Slocum, S.L. and Curtis, K.R. 2018. *Food and agricultural tourism: theory and best practice.* New York, USA, Routledge.

Soon, J.M, Manning, L. and Wallace, C.A. 2016. *Foodborne diseases: case studies of outbreaks in the agrifood industries.* New York, USA, Routledge.

Sorcaru, I. 2019. Gastronomy tourism. A sustainable alternative for local economic development. *Annals of Dunarea de Jos University of Galati. Fascicle I. Economics and Applied Informatics*, 25(1): 103–110.

Srisomyong, N. 2010. Agricultural diversification into agritourism: the case of Thailand. *International Journal of Agricultural Travel and Tourism* 1(1): 107–118.

Srisomyong, N. and Meyer, D. 2015. Political economy of agritourism initiatives in Thailand. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 41: 95–108. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrurstud.2015.07.007**

Srivastava, S. 2016. Agritourism as a strategy for the development of rural areas. Case study of Dungrajya Village, Southeast Rajasthan, India. *Journal of Medical and Dental Science Research*, 3(6): 35–39. **www.questjournals.org/jrhss/papers/vol4-issue7/M47104108.pdf**

Stanley, J. and Stanley, L. *Food tourism: a practical marketing guide*. Wallingford, UK, CABI International.

Stone, M.J., Migacz, S. and Wolf, E. 2019. Beyond the journey: the lasting impact of culinary tourism activities. *Current Issues in Tourism,* 22(2): 147–152. **https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2018.1427705**

Straits Research. 2022. Agritourism market. In: *Reports*. Pune, India. Cited 12 December 2022. **https://straitsresearch.com/report/agritourism-market/**

Stronza, A. and Gordillo, J. 2008. Community views of ecotourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(2): 448–468.

Strydom A.J., Mangope, D. and Henama, U.S. 2017. Economic sustainability guidelines for a community-based tourism project: the case of Thabo Mofutsanyane, Free State Province. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 6(3): 1–17.

Su, B. 2011 Rural tourism in China. *Tourism Management*, 32(6): 1438–1441. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2010.12.005**

Su, M.M., Sun, Y., Wall, G. and Min, Q. 2020. Agricultural heritage conservation, tourism and community livelihood in the process of urbanization – Xuanhua Grape Garden, Hebei Province, China. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 25(3): 205–222. **https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2019.1688366**

Su, M.M., Wall, G., Wang, Y.N. and Jin, M. 2019. Livelihood sustainability in a rural tourism destination – Hetu Town, Anhui Province. China. *Tourism Management*, 71: 272–281. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2018.10.019**

Sunarta, I.N., Nugroho, S. and Adikampana, I.M. 2021. Spatial transformation of Subak in Northern Kuta tourism area, Bali: from agricultural to cultural-service. *South Asian Journal of Social Studies and Economics*, 9(1): 26–38. **https://doi.org/10.9734/sajsse/2021/v9i130229**

Suntikul, W. 2017. Gastrodiplomacy in tourism. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 22(2): 1076–1094. **https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2017.1363723**

Suntikul, W. and Tang, C. 2014. More than just food tourism: "Thai kitchen to the world". Paper presented at the Council for Australasian University Tourism and Hospitality Education Conference 2014, 10–13 February 2014, Brisbane, Australia. **https://search.informit.org/doi/epdf/10.3316/informit.409394828119778**

Suresh, D. and Suryakiran, K. 2019. Significance of tourism laws in India – a study. *SPWI Journal for Social Welfare*, 2(1). **https://ssrn.com/abstract=3767761**

Sustainable Development Code. 2021. Special use permits for agritourism on farms. In: *Subchapters*. Des Moines, USA. Cited 15 January 2023. **https://sustainablecitycode.org/brief/special-use-permits-for-agritourism-on-farms/**

Sznajder, M., Przezbórska, L. and Scrimgeour, F. 2009. *Agritourism*. Wallingford, UK, CABI International. **https://doi.org/10.1079/9781845934828.0000**

Tan, E. and Abu Bakar, B. 2016. *Tasting culture: a taste of Singapore through a mobile-driven street food trail.* Paper presented at the conference of the Council for Australasian University Tourism and Hospitality Education, 8–11 February 2016, Blue Mountains International Hotel Management School, Sydney, Australia. **https://researchrepository.murdoch.edu.au/id/eprint/40375/**

Taylor, B.E., Morison, J.B. and Fleming, E.M. 1991. The economic impact of food import substitution in the Bahamas. *Social and Economic Studies*, 40: 45–62.

Telfer, D.J. and Wall, G. 1996. Linkages between tourism and food production. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(3): 635–653. **https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(95)00087-9**

Telfer, D.J. and Wall, G. 2000. Strengthening backward economic linkages: local food purchasing by three Indonesian hotels. *An International Journal of Tourism Space, Place and Environment*, 4(2): 421–447. **https://doi.org/10.1080/146166800750035521**

Tendall, D.M., Joerin, J., Kopainsky, B., Edwards, P., Shreck, A., Le, Q.B., Kruetli, P., Grant, M. and Six, J. 2015. Food system resilience: defining the concept. *Global Food Security*, 6: 17–23. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gfs.2015.08.001**

Testa, R., Galati, A., Schifani, G., Di Trapani, A.M. and Migliore, G. 2019. Culinary tourism experiences in agritourism destinations and sustainable consumption–understanding Italian tourists' motivations. *Sustainability*, 11(17): 4588. **https://doi.org/10.3390/su11174588**

Tew, C. and Barbieri, C. 2012. The perceived benefits of agritourism: the provider's perspective. *Tourism Management*, 33: 215–224. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2011.02.005**

Thailand Community-based Tourism Institute. 2013. *Innovating CBT in ASEAN: current directions and new horizons*. Chiang Mai, Thailand.

Thai Select. 2018. Become a Thai Select. In: *Thai Select*. Toronto, Canada. Cited 8 February 2023. **www.thaiselect.ca/members**

Theerapappisit, P. 2009. Pro-poor ethnic tourism in the Mekong: a study of three approaches in Northern Thailand. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 14(2): 201–221. **https://doi.org/10.1080/10941660902847245**

The Hindu. 2022. Agro-tourism planned for college students. In: *India*. Chennai, India. Cited 9 February 2023. **www.thehindu.com/news/national/tamil-nadu/agro-tourism-planned-for-college-students/article38267472.ece**

Thomas-Francois, K., Von Massow, M. and Joppe, M. 2017. Strengthening farmers–hotel supply chain relationships: a service management approach. *Tourism Planning and Development*, 14(2): 198–219. **https://doi.org/10.1080/21568316.2016.1204359**

Thome-Ortiz, H. 2017. Gastronomy tourism: challenges and opportunities to value traditional Mexican cuisine. *In* UNWTO. *Second global report on gastronomy tourism*. Affiliate Members Report No. 16, pp. 128–129. Madrid.

Thompson, M. and Prideaux, B. 2021. Farmers' markets in gastronomic tourism opportunities and challenges. *In* S.K. Dixit, ed. *The Routledge handbook of gastronomic tourism*, pp. 224–231. New York, USA, Routledge. **https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315147628**

Thongpanya, T. 2018. Damnoen Saduak floating market: the construction of floating market community identity from agricultural society to tourism community. *Kasetsart Journal of Social Sciences*, 39: 254–261. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.kjss.2017.06.005**

Timms, B. and Neill, S. 2011. Cracks in the pavement: conventional constraints and contemporary solutions for linking agriculture and tourism in the Caribbean. *In* R.M. Torres and J.H. Momsen, eds. *Tourism and agriculture: new geographies of production and rural restructuring*, pp. p. 104–116. London, Routledge.

Timothy, D.J. 2011. *Cultural heritage and tourism: an introduction*. Bristol, UK, Channel View Publications.

Timothy, D.J., ed. 2016. *Heritage cuisines: traditions, identities and tourism*. Routledge Studies of Gastronomy, Food and Drink. London, Routledge.

Timothy, D.J. and Boyd, S.W. 2015. *Tourism and trails: cultural, ecological and management issues*. Bristol, UK, Channel View Publications.

Timothy, D.J. and Pena, M. 2016. Food festivals and heritage awareness. *In* D.J. Timothy, ed. *Heritage cuisines: traditions, identities and tourism*, pp. 149–165. Routledge Studies of Gastronomy, Food and Drink. London, Routledge.

Timothy, D.J. and Ron, A.S. 2013. Understanding heritage cuisines and tourism: identity, image, authenticity, and change. *Journal of Heritage Tourism,* 8(2–3): 99–104. **https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2013.767818**

Tissera, M., Samarakoon, D. and Senanayake, G. 2017. Linking tourism, energy and agriculture through sustainable consumption and production in Sri Lanka. *In* P. Schroeder, K. Anggraeni, S. Sartori and U. Weber, eds. *Sustainable Asia: supporting the transition to sustainable consumption and production in Asian developing countries,* pp. 267–290. SWITCH-Asia Network Facility and Collaborating Centre on Sustainable Consumption and Production. Singapore, World Scientific Publishing. **https://doi.org/10.1142/9862**

Tonby, O., Woetzel, J., Choi, W., Eloot, K., Dhawan, R., Seong, J. and Wang, P. 2019. *The future of Asia: Asian flows and networks are defining the next phase of globalization. Discussion Paper*. N.p., McKinsey Global Institute. **https://mck.co/2HlgKOe**

Torabi Farsani, N., Ghotbabadi, S. and Altafi, M. 2019. Agricultural heritage as a creative tourism attraction. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 24(6): 541–549. **https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2019.1593205**

Torres, R.M. 2003. Linkages between tourism and agriculture in Mexico. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(3): 546–566. **https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(02)00103-2**

Torres, R.M. and Momsen, J.H. 2004. Challenges and potential for linking tourism and agriculture to achieve pro-poor tourism objectives. *Progress in Development Studies*, 4(4): 294–318. **https://doi.org/10.1191/1464993404ps092oa**

Torres, R.M. and Momsen, J.H. 2011. Introduction. *In* R.M. Torres and J.H. Momsen, eds. *Tourism and agriculture: new geographies of production and rural restructuring*, pp. 1–9. London, Routledge.

TravelDailyNews International. 2021. Reinventing the future of gastronomy tourism. In: *Featured articles*. Athens. Cited 6 December 2022. **www.traveldailynews.com/post/reinventing-the-future-of-gastronomy-tourism**

Travelport. 2019. *Global Digital Traveler Research 2019*. Langley, UK.

Tripadvisor. 2023. Longji Mountain. In: *China*. Needham, USA. Cited 17 Dcember 2021. **www.tripadvisor.com/Attraction_Review-g1159371-d2003190-Reviews-Longji_Mountain-Longsheng_County_Guangxi.html**

Troccoli, C. and De Rosa, M. 2021. *First world farmers markets report*. N.p., World Farmers Markets Coalition. Cited 6 February 2023. **http://worldfarmersmarketscoalition.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/09/Report_FM_Web_23-luglio-1.pdf**

TTG Asia. 2022. UNWTO, Travelindex to support tourism SMEs. In: *Top news*. Singapore. Cited 18 January 2023. **www.ttgasia.com/2022/04/01/unwto-travelindex-to-support-tourism-smes/**

UNCTAD (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development). 2014. *Enhancing backward linkages between tourism and other sectors in Lao People's Democratic Republic*. Geneva. **https://unctad.org/system/files/official-document/ditcted2014d4_en.pdf**

UNCTAD. 2017. *UN Trade Cluster Programme. Highlights from Lao PDR. Opening tourism sector opportunities for Lao food products and skills*. Geneva. Cited 31 January 2023. **https://unctad.org/system/files/official-document/unceb2017d3_SECO_LA_en.pdf**

UNDP (United Nations Development Programme). 2019. *Final project evaluation. Farm to table projects – Fiji and Vanuatu*. New York, USA. Cited 31 January 2023. **https://erc.undp.org/evaluation/documents/download/12569**

UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe), FAO, OECD, World Bank and Eurostat (Statistical Office of the European Communities). 2007. *The Wye Group Handbook. Rural households' livelihood and well-being. Statistics on rural development and agriculture household income*. New York, and Geneva, United Nations. **www.fao.org/3/am085e/am085e.pdf**

UNEP (United Nations Environment Programme) and UNWTO (United Nations World Tourism Organization). 2005. *Making tourism more sustainable. A guide for policy makers*. Paris, UNEP and Madrid, UNWTO. **https://wedocs.unep.org/handle/20.500.11822/8741;jsessionid=AA381B9CD83C901AC8452545BEC5194E**

UNEP and UNWTO. 2012. *Tourism in the green economy. Background report*. Nairobi, UNEP and Madrid, UNWTO. **www.cbd.int/financial/doc/tourism-greeneconomy.pdf**

UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization). N.d. World heritage. In: *World Heritage Convention*. Paris. Cited 23 November 2022. **https://whc.unesco.org/pg.cfm?cid=160**

UNESCO. 2003. Text of the Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage. In: *Convention*. Paris. Cited 6 February 2023. **https://ich.unesco.org/en/convention**

UNESCO. 2008. *The effects of tourism on culture and the environment in Asia and the Pacific. IMPACT. Sustainable tourism and the preservation of the world heritage site of the Ifugao Rice Terraces, Philippines*. Bangkok. **https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000182647**

UNESCO. 2017a. *Chengdu. UNESCO Creative City of Gastronomy since 2010. Monitoring report. November 2017*. Paris. Cited 6 February 2023.**https://en.unesco.org/creative-cities/sites/default/files/monitoring_reports/final_chengdu_mmr_-_nov_2017.pdf**

UNESCO. 2017b. *Jeonju. UNESCO Creative City of Gastronomy. 2012–2017 Monitoring report*. Paris. Cited 6 February 2023. **https://en.unesco.org/creative-cities/sites/default/files/monitoring_reports/membership_monitoring_report_of_jeonju_creative_city_of_gastronomy_2012-2017-compressed_1.pdf**

UNESCO. 2022a. Cultural landscapes. In: *Activities*. Paris. Cited 15 December 2022. **https://whc.unesco.org/en/culturallandscape/#1**

UNESCO. 2022b. Cultural landscape of Bali Province: the Subak system as a manifestation of the Tri Hita Karana philosophy. In: *The list*. Paris. Cited 17 December 2022. **https://whc.unesco.org/en/list/1194/**

UNESCO. 2022c. Cultural landscape of Honghe Hani rice terraces. In: *The list*. Paris. Cited 17 December 2022. **https://whc.unesco.org/en/list/1111**

UNESCO. 2023. Cultural heritage. In: *Glossary*. Paris. Cited 10 February 2023. **https://uis.unesco.org/en/glossary-term/cultural-heritage**

UNIDO (United Nations Industrial Development Organization). 2008. *The One-Village-One-Product (OVOP) movement: what it is, how it has been replicated, and recommendations for a UNIDO OVOP-type project*. Vienna. **https://open.unido.org/api/documents/4814612/download/The%20One-Village-One-Product%20(OVOP)%20movement%20-%20What%20it%20is,%20how%20it%20has%20been%20replicated,%20and%20recommendations%20for%20a%20UNIDO%20OVOP-type%20project**

United Nations. 2010. *International recommendations for tourism statistics 2008*. New York, USA. **https://unstats.un.org/unsd/publication/Seriesm/SeriesM_83rev1e.pdf#page=26**

United Nations. 2021. Time to rethink, transform, and safely restart tourism, says UN chief. In: *News*. New York. Cited 4 January 2023. **https://news.un.org/en/story/2021/09/1101382**

University of California. 2015. Agritourism – regulations and other considerations. In: *Agritourism*. Davis, USA. Cited 15 January 2023. **https://ucanr.edu/sites/CESonomaAgOmbuds/Agritourism/#ia**

University of California. 2022. Agritourism activities. In: *California agritourism*. Davis, USA. Cited 12 December 2022. **https://ucanr.edu/sites/agritourism/activities/**

UNWTO (United Nations World Tourism Organization). N.d.*a*. Economic contribution and SDG. In: *Tourism Statistics Database*. Madrid. Cited 22 November 2022. **www.unwto.org/tourism-statistics/economic-contribution-SDG**

UNWTO. N.d.*b*. Digital transformation. In: *UNWTO*. Madrid. Cited 1 December 2022. **www.unwto.org/digital-transformation**

UNWTO. N.d.c. Sustainable development. In: *UNWTO*. Madrid. Cited 13 December 2022. **https://www.unwto.org/sustainable-development#:~:text=%22Tourism%20that%20takes%20full%20account,the%20environment%20and%20host%20communities%22**

UNWTO. 2007. *Practical guide to tourism destination management*. Madrid. **www.e-unwto.org/doi/epdf/10.18111/9789284412433**

UNWTO. 2012. *Global report on food tourism*. Affiliate Members Global Report Volume 4. Madrid. **www.e-unwto.org/doi/epdf/10.18111/9789284414819**

UNWTO. 2013. *Sustainable tourism for development guidebook. Enhancing capacities for sustainable tourism for development in developing countries*. Madrid. **www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284415496**

UNWTO. 2015. *Hotel classification systems: recurrence of criteria in 4 and 5 star hotels*. Madrid. Cited 15 January 2023. **www.e-unwto.org/doi/epdf/10.18111/9789284416646**

UNWTO. 2016. *Mekong river-based tourism product development*. Madrid. Cited 15 January 2023. **www.e-unwto.org/doi/epdf/10.18111/9789284418015**

UNWTO. 2017a. *Second global report on gastronomy tourism*. Affiliate members report volume sixteen. Madrid. Cited 6 February 2023. **www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284418701**

UNWTO. 2017b. *International rural tourism development. An Asia and Pacific perspective*. Madrid. Cited 6 February 2023. **www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284418824.1**

UNWTO. 2017c. *Innovation in tourism – bridging theory and practice*. Madrid. Cited 6 February 2023. **https://doi.org/10.18111/9789284418503**

UNWTO. 2017d. *New platform tourism services (or the so-called sharing economy) – understand, rethink and adapt*. Madrid. Cited 6 February 2023. **https://doi.org/10.18111/9789284419081**

UNWTO. 2018. *Tourism for development. Volume I: key areas for action*. Madrid. Cited 6 February 2023. **https://doi.org/10.18111/9789284419722**

UNWTO. 2019a. Tourism statistics database. In: *Tourism statistics*. Madrid. Cited 7 February 2023. **www.unwto.org/tourism-statistics/tourism-statistics-database**

UNWTO. 2019b. Tourism – an economic and social phenomenon. In: *UNWTO*. Madrid. Cited 22 November 2022. **www.unwto.org/why-tourism**

UNWTO. 2019c. *Guidelines for the development of gastronomy tourism*. Madrid. Cited 6 February 2023. **www.e-unwto.org/doi/book/10.18111/9789284420957**

UNWTO. 2019d. *Gastronomy tourism. The case of Japan*. Madrid. Cited 6 February 2023. **www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284420919**

UNWTO. 2019e. Announcement of the finalists of the 1st Global Gastronomy Tourism Startup Competition. In: *News*. Madrid. Cited 10 December 2022. **www.unwto.org/global/press-release/2019-04-02/announcement-finalists-1st-global-gastronomy-tourism-startup-competition-0**

UNWTO. 2019f. 5th UNWTO World Forum on Gastronomy Tourism in San Sebastián: job creation, entrepreneurship and development. In: *News*. Madrid. Cited 8 January 2023. **www.unwto.org/global/press-release/2019-02-27/5th-unwto-world-forum-gastronomy-tourism-san-sebastian-job-creation-entre-0**

UNWTO. 2019g. *New business models in the accommodation industry. Benchmarking of rules and regulations in the short-term rental market. Executive summary*. Madrid. Cited 6 February 2023. **https://doi.org/10.18111/9789284421190**

UNWTO. 2019h. *Global report on women in tourism. Second edition*. Madrid. Cited 6 February 2023. **https://doi.org/10.18111/9789284420384**

UNWTO. 2019i. *UNWTO guidelines for institutional strengthening of destination management organizations (DMOs). Preparing DMOs for new challenges*. Madrid. Cited 6 February 2023. **https://doi.org/10.18111/9789284420841**

UNWTO. 2019j. *UNWTO tourism definitions*. Madrid. Cited 6 February 2023. **https://doi.org/10.18111/9789284420858**

UNWTO. 2020a. *International tourism highlights. 2020 edition*. Madrid. Cited 8 January 2023. **www.e-unwto.org/doi/epdf/10.18111/9789284422456**

UNWTO. 2020b. *World tourism barometer and statistical annex, January 2020*. Volume 18(1). Madrid. Cited 8 January 2023. **www.e-unwto.org/doi/abs/10.18111/wtobarometereng.2020.18.1.1**

UNWTO. 2020c. *Understanding domestic tourism and seizing its opportunities*. Briefing note – tourism and COVID-19, Issue 3. Madrid. Cited 1 December 2022. **www.e-unwto.org/doi/epdf/10.18111/9789284422111**

UNWTO. 2020d. Enabling frameworks for tourism investment drivers and challenges shaping investments in tourism. In: *Investments strategy*. Madrid. Cited 1 December 2022. **www.unwto.org/investment/unwto-investment-guidelines-SA1**

UNWTO. 2020e. *Tourism investment 2020: global greenfield investment trends in tourism.* Madrid. **https://webunwto.s3.eu-west-1.amazonaws.com/s3fs-public/2020-09/FDI-Tourism-Report-2020.pdf**

UNWTO. 2020f. Tourism in the 2030 Agenda. In: *UNWTO*. Madrid. Cited 4 January 2023. **www.unwto.org/tourism-in-2030-agenda**

UNWTO. 2021a. *6th UNWTO World Forum on Gastronomy Tourism. Conclusions: Flanders's call to action on gastronomy tourism as a driver of rural development*. Madrid. Cited 4 February 2023. **https://webunwto.s3.eu-west-1.amazonaws.com/s3fs-public/2021-11/gastronomy-forum-call-to-action.pdf**

UNWTO. 2021b. Sustainable tourism can offer mountain communities a path to prosperity and inclusion. In: *News*. Madrid. Cited 4 January 2023. **www.unwto.org/news/sustainable-tourism-can-offer-mountain-communities-a-path-to-prosperity-and-inclusion**

UNWTO. 2021c. UNWTO/Basque culinary center forum highlights gastronomy tourism as driver of rural development. In: *News*. Madrid. Cited 4 January 2023. **www.unwto.org/taxonomy/term/354**

UNWTO. 2021d. *World tourism barometer and statistical annex, January 2021.* Volume 19(1). Madrid. Cited 4 February 2023. **www.e-unwto.org/doi/abs/10.18111/wtobarometereng.2021.19.1.1**

UNWTO. 2022. *International Code for the Protection of Tourists*. Madrid. Cited 4 February 2023. **https://doi.org/10.18111/9789284423361**

UNWTO. 2023. International tourism and COVID-19. In: *UNWTO Tourism Data Dashboard*. Cited 9 February 2023. **www.unwto.org/tourism-data/international-tourism-and-covid-19**

UNWTO, Centre of Expertise Leisure, Tourism and Hospitality of Breda University of Applied Sciences and European Tourism Futures Institute of NHL Stenden University of Applied Sciences. 2018. *"Overtourism"? – Understanding and managing urban tourism growth beyond perceptions*. Madrid, UNWTO. **https://doi.org/10.18111/9789284419999**

UNWTO and Griffith University. 2017. *Managing growth and sustainable tourism governance in Asia and the Pacific.* Madrid, UNWTO. Cited 6 February 2023. **https://doi.org/10.18111/9789284418909**

UNWTO and GTERC (Global Tourism Economic Research Centre). 2017. *Asia tourism trends. 2017 edition.* Madrid, UNWTO and Macau, China, GTERC. Cited 6 February 2023. **www.e-unwto.org/doi/book/10.18111/9789284419142**

UNWTO and GTERC. 2019. *Asia tourism trends. 2019 edition.* Madrid, UNWTO and Macau, China, GTERC. Cited 6 February 2023. **www.e-unwto.org/doi/book/10.18111/9789284420360**

UNWTO and GTERC. 2020. *Asia Tourism Trends. 2020 edition.* Madrid, WTO and Macau, China, GTERC. Cited 6 February 2023. **www.e-unwto.org/doi/book/10.18111/9789284422258**

UNWTO and Huzhou City. 2017. *International rural tourism development – an Asia-Pacific Perspective.* Madrid, UNWTO. Cited 6 February 2023. **https://doi.org/10.18111/9789284418824**

UNWTO and UN Women. 2011. Global Report on Women in Tourism 2010. Madrid, UNWTO. **https://dx.doi.org/10.18111/9789284413737**

Varanyanond, W. 2013. Fostering food culture with innovation: OTOP/SME and Thai Kitchen to the World. *In* Japanese International Research Center for Agricultural Sciences (JIRCAS). *JIRCAS International Symposium Proceedings*, pp. 179–189. Tsukuba, Japan. Cited 22 September 2021. **www.jircas.go.jp/sites/default/files/publication/proceedings/2013-session-42_0.pdf**

Vietcraft. N.d. Community Nam Dam cultural tourism village. In: *OCOP*. Hanoi. Cited 30 May 2022. **https://vietcraft.org.vn/mdl/content/action/category/catid/97**

Visit Guilin. 2023. Longji rice terraces. In: *Longsheng attractions*. Guilin, China. Cited 20 December 2021. **https://visitguilin.org/things-to-do/longsheng-attractions/longji-rice-terraces/**

Vorley, B., Fearne, A. and Ray, D. 2007. *Regoverning markets: a place for small-scale producers in modern agrifood chains?* New York, USA, Routledge.

Vorley, B., Lundy, M. and MacGregor, J. 2009. Business models that are inclusive of small farmers. *In* FAO and UNIDO (United Nations Industrial Development Organization). *Agro-industries for development*, pp. 186–222. Rome, FAO and Vienna, UNIDO. **www.fao.org/3/i3125e/i3125e00.pdf**

Vorley, B. and Proctor, F. 2008. *Inclusive business in agrifood markets: evidence and action. A report based on the proceedings of an international conference, 5–6 March 2008*. Beijing, Regoverning Markets. Cited 24 September 2021. **https://pubs.iied.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/migrate/16503IIED.pdf**

Vu, A. 2020. Vietnam's four top community-based tourism villages. In: *VnExpress International*. Hanoi. Cited 30 May 2022. **https://e.vnexpress.net/news/travel/places/vietnam-s-four-top-community-based-tourism-villages-4196298.html**

Walter, P. 2017. Culinary tourism as living history: staging, tourist performance and perceptions of authenticity in a Thai cooking school. *Journal of Heritage Tourism,* 12(4): 365–379. **https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873X.2016.1207651**

Walter, P.G. 2016. Catalysts for transformative learning in community-based ecotourism. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 19(13): 1356–1371. **https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2013.850063**

Wang, L.E., Liu, G., Liu, X., Liu, Y., Gao, J., Zhou, B. and Cheng, S. 2017. The weight of unfinished plate: a survey based characterization of restaurant food waste in Chinese cities. *Waste Management*, 66: 3–12. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2017.04.007**

Wang, Z. and Graburn, N. 2020. Tourism and cultural landscapes in Southern China's highlands. *Via,* 17. **https://doi.org/10.4000/viatourism.5491**

Wang, Z. and Marafa, L. 2021. Tourism imaginary and landscape at heritage site: a case in Honghe Hani Rice Terraces, China. *Land,* **10**(4): 439. **https://doi.org/10.3390/land10040439**

Wearing, S. and Schweinsberg, S. 2019. *Ecotourism: transitioning to the 22nd Century*. New York, USA, Routledge.

WEF (World Economic Forum). 2017. *Digital transformation initiative. Aviation, travel and tourism industry. White Paper*. Davos, Switzerland. Cited 6 February 2023. **www3.weforum.org/docs/IP/2017/MO/WEF_ATT_DigitalTransformation_WhitePaper.pdf**

WEF. 2019. *The travel and tourism competitiveness report 2019. Travel and tourism at a tipping point.* Davos, Switzerland. Cited 6 February 2023. **www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_TTCR_2019.pdf**

Weinswig, D. 2016. Gen Z: get ready for the most self-conscious, demanding consumer segment. In: *Deborah Weinswig.* N.p. Cited 6 February 2023. **www.deborahweinswig.com/gen-z-get-ready-for-the-most-self-conscious-demanding-consumer-segment/**

Welteji, D. and Zerihun, B. 2018. Tourism–agriculture nexuses: practices, challenges and opportunities in the case of Bale Mountains National Park, Southeastern Ethiopia. *Agriculture and Food Security*, 7(8). **https://doi.org/10.1186/s40066-018-0156-6**

WFTA (World Food Travel Association). 2014. What is food tourism? In: *World Food Travel Association*. Portland, USA. Cited 23 November 2022. **www.worldfoodtravel.org/what-is-food-tourism/**

WFTA. 2021a. *State of the industry: food and beverage tourism.* Portland, USA. **www.worldfoodtravel.org/2021-state-of-the-industry-report-available**

WFTA. 2021b. Making sense of Peru's gourmet positioning. In: *World Food Travel Association*. Portland, USA. Cited 17 January 2023. **www.worldfoodtravel.org/the-power-of-food-tourism-the-case-of-peru**

WHO (World Health Organization). 1996. *Essential safety requirements for street-vended foods. Revised edition.* Geneva. **https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/63265**

Williams, H.A., Williams, R.L. and Omar, M. 2014. Gastro-tourism as destination branding in emerging markets. *International Journal of Leisure and Tourism Marketing*, 4(1): 1–18. **https://doi.org/10.1504/IJLTM.2014.059257**

Wipatayotin, A. 2016. Agritourism likely to pull in B370m. In: *Bangkok Post*. Bangkok. Cited 2 March 2023. **www.bangkokpost.com/thailand/general/1034469/agritourism-likely-to-pull-in-b370m**

WIPO (World Intellectual Property Organization). 2017. *Geographical indications: an introduction.* Geneva. **https://doi.org/10.34667/tind.28659**

WIPO and UNWTO. 2021. *Boosting tourism development through intellectual property.* Geneva, WIPO and Madrid, UNWTO. Cited 25 January 2023. **www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284422395**

Winnow. 2023. *Winnow*. Milton Keynes, UK. Cited 16 January 2023. **www.winnowsolutions.com**

Wisudawati, N.N.S. 2019. Development of vineyard agritourism through educational tour packages to sustain the local potential. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 3(2): 294–301. **https://doi.org/10.29332/ijssh.v3n2.336**

Wolf, E. and Lange-Faria, W. 2014. *Have fork will travel: a practical handbook for food and drink tourism professionals.* Portland, USA, World Food Travel Association.

World Bank. 2016. *Tourism.* Pacific Background Paper No. 4. Washington, DC. **https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/524541503688261330/pdf/106504-REVISED-ADD-SERIES-NO-4-PUBLIC-P154324-Tourismbackgroundfinal.pdf**

World Bank. 2018. Pacific Regional Connectivity Program. In: *The World Bank*. Washington, DC. Cited 9 September 2021. **http://projects.worldbank.org/P113184/pacific-islands-regional-connectivity?lang=en.**

World Bank. 2019. *The digital economy in Southeast Asia: strengthening the foundations for future growth*. Washington, DC. **http://hdl.handle.net/10986/31803**

World Bank. 2020. *Infrastructure in Asia and the Pacific. Road transport, electricity, and water and sanitation services in East Asia, South Asia and the Pacific Islands*. Washington, DC. **http://hdl.handle.net/10986/34228**

World Bank. 2022a. Agriculture, forestry, and fishing, value added (% of GDP) – South Asia. In: *Data*. Washington, DC. Cited 22 November 2022. **https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NV.AGR.TOTL.ZS?name_desc=false&locations=8S**

World Bank. 2022b. Indicators. In: *Data.* Washington, DC. Cited 22 November 2022. **https://data.worldbank.org/indicator**

WTA (World Tourism Alliance). 2021. *WTA best practices of rural revitalization through tourism*. Xianghu, China. Cited 26 January 2023. **www.wta-web.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/10/WTA-Best-Practices-of-Rural-Revitalization-through-Toursim-2021.pdf**

WTTC (World Travel and Tourism Council). 2022. Asia-Pacific 2022. Annual Research: Key Highlights. In: *Research*. London. Cited 27 February 2023. **https://wttc.org/Portals/0/Documents/EIR/Asia-Pacific2022_.pdf?ver=2022-04-21-065118-217**

WTTC. 2014. *Travel and tourism. Economic impact 2014. Thailand*. London. Cited 6 February 2023. **www.wttc.org/-/media/files/reports/economicpercent20impactpercent20research/countrypercent20reports/thailand2014.pdf**

WWF (World Wildlife Fund). 2001. *Guidelines for community-based ecotourism development*. Gland, Switzerland. Cited 6 February 2023. **https://wwfint.awsassets.panda.org/downloads/guidelinesen.pdf**

Yamagishi, K., Gantalao, C. and Ocampo, L. 2021. The future of farm tourism in the Philippines: challenges, strategies and insights. *Journal of Tourism Futures*, Vol. ahead-of-print. **https://doi.org/10.1108/JTF-06-2020-0101**

Yang, L. 2012. Impacts and challenges in agritourism development in Yunnan, China. *Tourism Planning and Development*, 9(4): 369–381. **https://doi.org/10.1080/21568316.2012.726257**

Yang, M. and Luo, J. 2006. Survey and research on the rural ecotourism of Tuanjie Village in Kunming City, *Tourism Tribune*, 21(2): 51–5.

Yasunaga, N. and Inoue, N. 2020. *Farm and rural community management in less favored areas*. Singapore, Springer. **https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-7352-1**

Yayasan Mudra Swari Saraswati. 2019. *Partnership proposal*. Ubud, Indonesia.

Yu, X., Mingju, E., Sun, M., Xue, Z., Lu, X., Jiang, M. and Zou, Y. 2018. Wetland recreational agriculture: balancing wetland conservation and agro-development. *Environmental Science and Policy*, 87: 11–17. **https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsci.2018.05.015**

Yuan, Z. 2013. Dynamic effects and development tendency of coupling between rural tourism industry and big agriculture. *Tourism Tribune*, 28(5): 80–88.

Zhang, J. 2015. The food of the worlds: mapping and comparing contemporary gastrodiplomacy campaigns. *International Journal of Communication,* 9(1): 568–591.

Zhang, T., Chen, J. and Hu, B. 2019. Authenticity, quality, and loyalty: local food and sustainable tourism experience. *Sustainability,* 11(12): 3437. **https://doi.org/10.3390/su11123437**

Zhang, X., Cai, L. and Harrill, R. 2009. Rural tourism research in China: 1997–2006. *Tourism Analysis*, 14(2): 231–239. **https://doi.org/10.3727/108354209789116583**

Zhu, G., Li, X. and Zhang, Y. 2021. Multi-stakeholder involvement mechanism in tourism management for maintaining terraced landscape in important agricultural heritage systems (IAHS) sites: a case study of Dazhai Village in Longji Terraces, China. *Land*, 10(11): 1146. **https://doi.org/10.3390/land1011114**

Zittlau, J. and Gorman, C. 2012. *Farmers' markets as an authentic experience: the case of Dublin*. N.p. Cited 6 February 2023. **https://arrow.tudublin.ie/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1002&context=dgs**

LEGAL REFERENCES

General Principles of Food Hygiene. Adopted: Codex Alimentarius, March 1969. CXC 1-1969.

GLOSSARY

Agricultural heritage

Remarkable land use systems and landscapes that are rich in biological diversity evolving from the co-adaptation of a community with its environment and its needs and aspirations for sustainable development (FAO, 2023).

Agricultural household

A household that that derives any income, however minor, from agriculture or contributed some labour input to agricultural production (UNECE *et al.*, 2007).

Agricultural tourism

Form of tourism whereby tourists and visitors plan their trips partially or totally in order to carry out activities related to agriculture or to enjoying an agricultural setting (adapted from UNWTO, 2012).

Agrifood system

System that encompasses the entire range of actors and their interlinked value-adding activities involved in the production, aggregation, processing, distribution, consumption and disposal of agrifood products that originate from agriculture, forestry or fisheries, and food industries, and the broader economic, societal and natural environments in which they are embedded (FAO, 2018c).

Agrifood system resilience

The capacity over time of an agrifood system – in the face of any disruption – to sustainably ensure the availability of and access to sufficient, safe, and nutritious food for all, and sustain the livelihoods of agrifood system actor (Tendall *et al.*, 2015).

Agrifood tourism

Form of tourism whereby tourists and visitors plan their trips partially or totally in order to taste the cuisine of the place or to carry out activities related to gastronomy and agriculture (adapted from UNWTO, 2012). It encompasses both agricultural and food/gastronomy tourism experiences.

Agrifood value chain

The full range of farms and firms and their successive coordinated value-adding activities that produce particular raw agricultural materials and transform them into particular food products that are sold to final consumers and disposed of after use, in a manner that is profitable throughout, has broad-based benefits for society, and does not permanently deplete natural resources (FAO, 2014).

Agritainment

Agriculture as a type of entertainment.

Agritourism

Form of tourism that involves making a working farm a travel destination for paying guests for educational and/or recreational purposes (Hall and Wood, 2020).

Agroecology

The science of applying ecological concepts and principles to manage interactions between plants, animals, humans and the environment for food security and nutrition (FAO, 2021b).

Asianness

How tourists from other continents perceive the uniqueness of Asia, based on the distinctive architecture, cultural heritage, history, background, and of course, food of Asian countries (Jo, 2004).

Community-based tourism

Community-centred type of tourism activities that are "managed and owned by the community, for the community, with the purpose of enabling visitors to increase their awareness and learn about community and local ways of life" (George, Nedelea and Antony, 2007, p. 1).

Creative tourism

Tourism that "offers visitors the opportunity to develop their creative potential through active participation in courses and learning experiences which are characteristic of the holiday destination where they are undertaken" (Richards and Raymond, 2000, p. 4).

Culinary placemaking

Strategy that seeks "to put a destination on a food lover's map by identifying all food and beverage resources, bringing them together, weighing their value, assessing market forces, and engaging fundamental stakeholders" (WFTA, 2014).

Destination

The main destination of a tourism trip is "the place visited that is central to the decision to take the trip" (United Nations, 2010, p. 13).

Destination management

Coordinated management of all the elements that make up a tourism destination, including attractions, amenities, access, marketing and pricing (UNWTO, 2019i, p. 10).

Destination management organization

Leading organizational entity responsible for the development and management of tourism at destination level (UNWTO, 2019i, p. 12).

Digital native

Person who was born or has grown up since the use of digital technology became common and so is familiar and comfortable with computers and the internet (Oxford University Press, 2022).

Domestic tourism

Domestic tourism comprises the activities of a resident visitor within the country of reference, either as part of a domestic tourism trip or part of an outbound tourism trip (United Nations, 2010, p. 15).

Economic leakage

In the context of this publication, economic leakage is used in relation to capital or income (e.g. imported goods, taxes) that diverges from some kind of iterative system such as the economy of a tourism destination. Leakage of tourism earnings occurs when the tourism industry imports goods and services, including food supplies, make payments to foreign companies including airlines and tour operators, and repatriate profits in the case of foreign-owned hotel chains (ECLAC, 2007).

Ecotourism

All nature-based forms of tourism in which the main motivation is appreciating nature and the traditional cultures prevailing in natural areas (Hall and Sharples, 2003).

Geographical indication

Intellectual property right used on foods and other goods that have a specific geographical origin and possess qualities or a reputation that are linked to that origin (FAO, 2019b). A geographical indication (GI) encompasses four main elements (a) a defined geographical area of production; (b) specific production methods; (c) specific product quality; and (d) a name and reputation that differentiates the product from others (WIPO, 2017).

Globally Important Agricultural Heritage Systems

A living, evolving system of human communities in an intricate relationship with their territory, cultural or agricultural landscape or biophysical and wider social environment (FAO, 2023).

Farmstay

A farm-stay is a paid, overnight, guest accommodation on a working farm where the farm family is actively engaged in the working of the land, i.e. an agritourism establishment (Hall and Wood, 2020).

Food festival (see also gastronomy festival and culinary festival)

Food-related event that typically "brings together consumers and producers in a multi-stimuli environment by providing samples, insights into methods of production and reassurance of authenticity amid a general atmosphere of curiosity, exploration and entertainment" (Organ *et al.*, 2015, p. 85).

Food trail (see also food route)

A linear route primarily intended for recreational and educational travel involving the consumption of local food (Slocum and Curtis, 2018).

Food safety

The assurance that food will not cause adverse health effects to the consumer when it is prepared and/or eaten according to its intended use (General Principles of Food Hygiene, 1969).

Food security

The situation that exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social, and economic access to sufficient, safe, and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life. Six food security dimensions can be identified: food availability, economic and physical access to food, food utilization, stability over time, agency, and sustainability (FAO *et al.*, 2020).

Foodie

Someone with a long-standing passion for eating and learning about food but who is not a food professional (Slocum and Curtis, 2018).

Food tourism (see also gastronomy tourism and culinary tourism)

Food-motivated travel (Everett, 2016) that encompasses all forms of tourism activities that are characterized by the visitor's experience linked with food and related products and activities while travelling (UNWTO, 2019c).

Food tourist (see also food traveller)

Tourists and visitors who plan their trips partially or totally to taste the cuisine of the place or to carry out activities related to gastronomy (UNWTO, 2012, p. 7).

Foodways

The cultural, social and economic practices relating to the production and consumption of food (Slocum and Curtis, 2018).

Homestay

Type of accommodation in which visitors stay in the homes of residents (Acharya and Halpenny, 2013; Agyeiwaah and Mensah, 2017).

Hospitality industry

Businesses that offer people food, drink or a place to sleep, such as hotels, restaurants and bars (Cambridge University Press, 2023).

Inbound tourism

Inbound tourism comprises the activities of a non-resident visitor within the country of reference on an inbound tourism trip (United Nations, 2010).

International tourism

International tourism comprises inbound tourism and outbound tourism, that is to say, the activities of resident visitors outside the country of reference, either as part of domestic or outbound tourism trips and the activities of non-resident visitors within the country of reference on inbound tourism trips (United Nations, 2010).

Locavore

A person whose diet consists principally of locally grown or produced food (Slocum and Curtis, 2018).

Mountain tourism

A type of tourism activity which takes place in a defined and limited geographical space such as hills or mountains with distinctive characteristics and attributes that are inherent to a specific landscape, topography, climate, biodiversity (flora and fauna) and local community. It encompasses a broad range of outdoor leisure and sports activities (UNWTO, 2019j).

National tourism administration/authority

Country-level organizations established to promote or guide tourism development (Pearce, 2016).

Outbound tourism

Outbound tourism comprises the activities of a resident visitor outside the country of reference, either as part of an outbound tourism trip or as part of a domestic tourism trip (UN, 2010).

Overtourism

The impact of tourism on a destination, or parts thereof, which excessively influences perceived the quality of life of citizens and/or quality of visitors' experiences in a negative way (UNWTO *et al.*, 2018).

Pescatourism

Recreational fishing activities organized by fishers, including activities performed with a skippered boat or vessel taking passengers to sea to carry out recreational fishing activities, as a sideline supplementing their core activity (European Parliament, 2021).

Rural livelihood

The capabilities, assets and activities that rural people require for a means of living (FAO, 2003).

Sense of place

Special meanings that represent an identity and character that is deeply felt by local citizens (Slocum and Curtis, 2018).

Sharing economy

Peer-to-peer activity of acquiring, providing, or sharing access to goods and services, in this case tourism- related, often facilitated by an on-line platform. Also known as the ''collaborative economy'' or ''peer-to-peer'' economy. UNWTO lists several examples from the tourism sector, including Tripadvisor and Yelp (information), Airbnb and HomeAway (accommodation), Uber or Cabify (transport) and BeMyGuest and Vayable (attractions), among many others (UNWTO, 2017d).

Souvenirs

Commercial objects usually purchased during travel that remind people of past experiences and places visited (Slocum and Curtis, 2018). They can consist of food.

Street food

The foods and beverages that are prepared and/or sold by itinerant or stationary vendors in streets and in other public places for immediate consumption or for later consumption without further processing or preparation (FAO, 2009; WHO, 1996).

Sustainable development

The management of economic, social and environmental resources, and the orientation of technological and institutional change, in a way that ensures the attainment and continued satisfaction of human needs for present and future generations (FAO, 1989).

Sustainable agrifood system

A system that delivers food security and nutrition for all, while sustaining the livelihoods of agrifood system actors, without compromising the economic, social, and environmental bases needed to ensure the food security and nutrition of future generations. It encompasses food and non-food agricultural products. The system must be sustainable economically (i.e. profitable and equitable), socially (having broad-based benefits for society) and environmentally (with positive or neutral impacts on the natural environment) (FAO, 2018c).

Sustainable tourism

Tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities (WIPO and UNWTO, 2021).

Tourism

Activity of visitors (United Nations, 2010).

Tourism destination

The main destination of a tourism trip is defined as the place visited that is central to the decision to take the trip (United Nations, 2010).

Tourism direct gross domestic product (GDP)

Sum of the part of gross value added (at basic prices) generated by all industries in response to internal tourism consumption plus the amount of net taxes on products and imports included within the value of this expenditure at purchasers' prices (United Nations, 2010). It is usually indicated as a proportion of total GDP and as a growth rate.

Tourism expenditure

Amount paid for the acquisition of consumption goods and services, as well as valuables, for own use or to give away, for and during tourism trips. It includes expenditures by visitors themselves, as well as expenses that are paid for or reimbursed by others (United Nations, 2010).

Tourism operator

Any natural or juristic person within the tourism industry that conducts or operates a tourist facility or who is responsible for its management.

Tourism product

A visitors' experience of a destination, including tangible and intangible assets, and the perceived satisfaction derived from that experience (Slocum and Curtis, 2018).

Tourist (or overnight visitor)

A visitor (domestic, inbound or outbound) is classified as a tourist (or overnight visitor) if his/her trip includes an overnight stay, or as a same-day visitor (or excursionist) if it does not (United Nations, 2010).

Visitor

Traveller taking a trip to a main destination outside his/her usual environment, for less than a year, for any purpose (business, leisure or other personal purpose) other than to be employed by a resident entity in the country or place visited. A visitor (domestic, inbound or outbound) is classified as a tourist (or overnight visitor) if his/her trip includes an overnight stay, or as a same-day visitor (or excursionist) if it does not (United Nations, 2010).

Agrifood systems in Asia and the Pacific can be strengthened by tapping on linkages between the agrifood and tourism sectors. Where tourism and agrifood systems interact, both synergies and competition appear. Agriculture and tourism compete for land, water, labour, capital and transportation and logistics services. Cross-sectoral synergies arise when agriculture and tourism influence each other through their respective demand conditions.

One entry point to generate such synergies is the creation of backward linkages between tourism operators on the one hand and farmers and other value chain actors on the other. Another entry point is fostering the development of agricultural and food tourism as a way to boost income opportunities in both the tourism and agrifood sectors. These cross-sectoral synergies can be instrumental in strengthening agrifood systems and addressing interlinked crises.

Governments across Asia and the Pacific have acknowledged the potential of strengthening agrifood–tourism linkages, and are implementing efforts to develop this subsector. Agrifood–tourism linkages can generate income, boost employment, prevent rural outmigration and help preserve culinary and agricultural heritage. However, the development of agrifood–tourism linkages in the region faces a number of challenges, from the lack of skills and capital to pressures on natural resources, poor infrastructure and the commodification of tourism experiences. Additionally, policy and regulatory frameworks are often inadequate and lack an integrated approach.

This publication guides policymakers in the region in the preparation of a strategic plan aimed at developing agrifood tourism as a driver of sustainable development. This requires a shared vision and coordination between policymakers, destination managers, tourism and agrifood businesses, chefs, farmers and other key stakeholders.

FAO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific
FAO-RAP@fao.org
www.fao.org/asiapacific/en/

Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
Bangkok, Thailand

ISBN 978-92-5-138026-0

9 789251 380260

CC7124EN/1/08.23