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## Discussing Rural–Urban Tourism: A Review of the Literature

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### Introduction

Relations between urban and rural areas have a long tradition in academic research (Tacoli, 1998). Evidence confirms that urban–rural interdependencies have been influenced by opposite positions of anti-urban and pro-urban approaches (Davoudi and Stead, 2002). After many years of binary divide between rural and urban areas, the past two decades have witnessed unprecedented urban–rural connections (Potter and Unwin, 1995). The debate about urban–rural linkages has gained fresh prominence, with many authors arguing that both urban and rural places benefit from interlinked relationships and that urban–rural cooperation provides solutions to socio-economic and environmental problems in a more sustainable perspective (Tacoli, 1998; Beesley, 2010). This literature has been echoed by international institutions, governments and research centres, which called for stronger rural and urban relations, integrated policies and inclusive governance to support sustainable development, competitiveness in both rural and urban areas (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 2013) and address poverty reduction (Global Monitoring Report, 2013) and world inequalities (World Bank, 2006). Furthermore, the use of new terms, such as *urburual*, *rurbance*, *rurbanity* and *re-urbanity*, together with the experiences of ‘urbanizing the rural and ruralizing the urban’ like city farms and farmers’ markets, confirm the need for further research in supporting unconventional planning and management approaches.

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In agreement with the historical tendency of the debate, rural tourism and urban tourism have developed independently from each other, within the broader tourism literature. The attempt to link rural and urban tourism has registered limited consensus among scholars. However, people travel to different places all the time, moving to and across rural, urban and fringe areas. The flow of visitors affects urban–rural interactions in terms of the transfer of income, exchange of experiences, knowledge and cultural values (Van Leeuwen, 2015). The studies that can be found in the literature discuss urban–rural and tourism relations according to three different perspectives: tourism literature; geography–spatial analysis studies; and social sciences and development. Tourism literature focuses mainly on the comparison of tourism related issues within urban and rural contexts, investigating differences, similarities and implications. Geographers pay attention to urban–rural spaces and, together with tourism geographers, study particular forms of tourism that take place in the fringe, exurbs and urban–rural continuum. Multidisciplinary approaches rooted in social sciences, regional development and environmental planning address tourism, and related issues, as a specific type of urban–rural linkage. According to Weaver (2005), on one side, urban–rural relations and places have been studied by social sciences, geography, development and environmental disciplines with little attention paid to tourism topics and, on the other side, tourism literature has produced limited research in urban–rural interconnection and spaces.

The present chapter aims to provide an overview of the most relevant publications discussing the urban–rural and tourism relationship by combining the benefits of both traditional and systematic reviews of the literature published in the past 40 years. This contribution will, first, investigate the existing academic contributions that focus on tourism and rural–urban; and second, present and organize the results, highlighting gaps and addressing further research development, thus contributing to the academic debate.

It is important to make clear that the order of the words ‘urban–rural’ or ‘rural–urban’ employed in this chapter is not intended to have any significance in terms of relevance, dominance or supremacy of one area over the other (Copus, 2013).

## Urban–Rural Relations and Tourism in the Literature

Although urbanization, industrialization and agriculture still compete for land use, people, employment and natural resources, urban and rural economies are mutually interconnected and depend on each other (Bulderberga, 2011). The boundaries between concrete urban centres and extreme rural places have become blurred, in favour of a larger continuum and stronger interdependencies (Irwin *et al.*, 2010). Some authors clearly state that the urban–rural dichotomy of past times no longer exists (Schaeffer *et al.*, 2012). Scholars agree that both urban and rural places

benefit from urban–rural relationships (Van Leeuwen, 2015), cities and countryside are interlinked parts of regional and national economy, and that an urban–rural approach provides solutions to address common socio-economic and environmental problems in a more sustainable perspective (Tacoli, 1998). However, to date, there is a limited body of academic research focusing on urban–rural linkages (Caffyn and Dahlström, 2005) and rural and urban relationships have been discussed mainly by economics, geography, social sciences and development studies (Davoudi and Stead, 2002).

Studies on urban–rural interactions have recognized the complexity and multidimensionality of this concept. Urban–rural linkages imply both an understanding of places (i.e. boundaries, locations of urban, rural and urban–rural spaces) and type of connections (i.e. flows, networks, visible, invisible) (Küle, 2014). More recently, the literature has referred to urban–rural relations in terms of structural relations and functional relations (Zonneveld and Stead, 2007). On the one hand structural relations emerge by the ‘way the physical environment is constituted and shaped’ (Zonneveld and Stead, 2007, p. 422) and they focus on land and resource availability within urban, rural and urban–rural spaces, such as fringe, exurbs, peripheries, suburbs and urban–rural continuums. On the other hand, functional relations refer mainly to physical and socio-economic connections, visible and invisible flows of people, capital and financial transfers, movements of goods, natural resources, information and technology, administrative and service provision that move backward and forward between rural and urban areas (Preston, 1975). Funnell (1988) underlined the need to understand the social political and economic conditions that create the urban–rural interactions.

While there are studies on specific types of linkages between rural and urban areas, such as employment, commuting, land use and migration, there are few academic theories on urban–rural relationships (Zonneveld and Stead, 2007) and there seems to be a general lack of clarity about the nature of these interactions (Caffyn and Dahlstrom, 2005). Furthermore, the debate is complicated by the variety of definitions on rural and urban areas used in the different geographical areas of the world (Davoudi and Stead, 2002). The contributions, listed below, present an international overview of the main theoretical perspectives, empirical realities and political positions over the past 20 years of urban–rural relations debate. Potter and Unwin published in 1995 one of the first works on urban–rural interactions in the developing world, followed by Tacoli, in 1998, who introduced a guide to the literature of rural–urban interaction in Africa, Asia and South America.

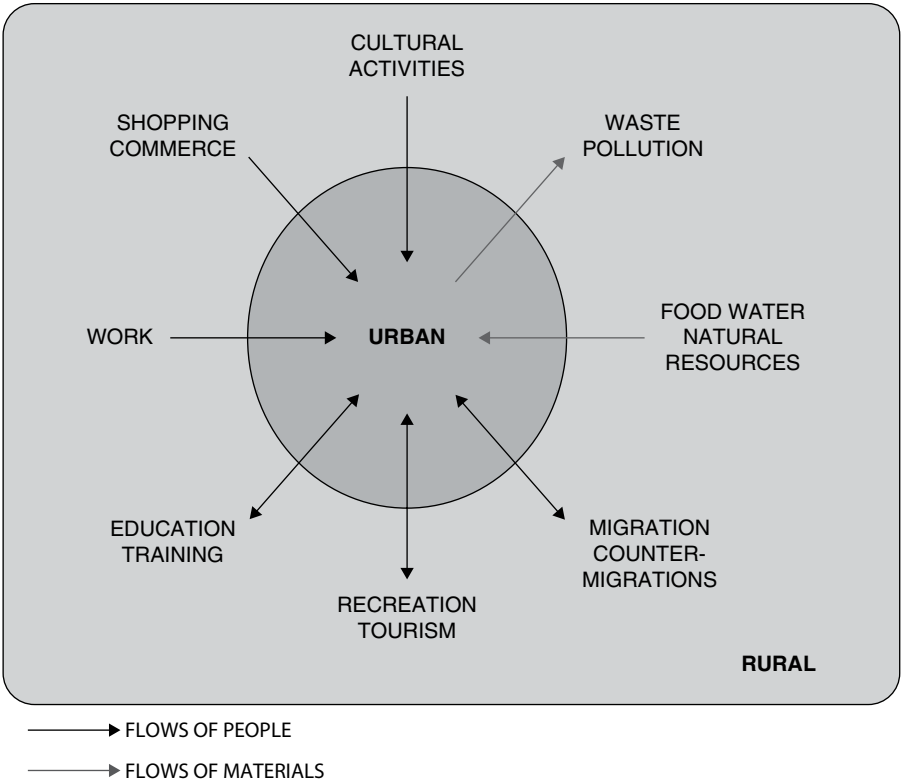
Davoudi and Stead (2002) presented an introduction and brief history of urban–rural relationships, with a focus on British and European contexts. The urban–rural dynamics in Europe have received growing analytical and political attention since the year 2000, within spatial strategies and territorial development plans. Several programmes, policy documents and funding projects (e.g. ESDP, SPESP, ESPON, INTEREG,

Territorial Agenda and RURBAN) were developed to promote cooperation between urban and rural places, as a means to achieve social, political and economic integration and cohesion among the European countries. Zonneveld and Stead (2007), together with Copus (2013), portrayed the evolution, over the past 25 years, of urban–rural relationships within European policy, arguing the difference between urban–rural relationships (related to functional linkages) and urban–rural partnerships (the policy dimension of these relationships) (OECD, 2013).

Lin (2001) and Li (2011) published two contributions on urban–rural interaction in China, presenting a literature review, historical scenario and case studies within the Chinese context. Although discussing different geographical, historical, cultural, socio-economic and political contexts, the overall studies highlight that urban–rural interactions have constantly increased, all over the world. The reasons can be found in labour-saving technological progress, reduction in transport costs, rising house incomes (Irwin *et al.*, 2010), higher population mobility, the circulation of information and goods, and widespread information and communication technologies (Kule, 2014). Nevertheless, in many developing countries, the relationship between urban and rural areas is still characterized by a strong dualism. The publications underline the need for an integrated urban–rural strategy that involves planners, policy makers and stakeholder interactions based on a multilevel governance, in a win–win strategy to provide benefits for urban, rural and fringe areas.

Tourism, as a cross-disciplinary subject (Tribe, 1997), is likely to take an important stake in urban–rural relationships. Namely, tourism is based on people travelling within territories and across boundaries, staying outside their usual environment (UNWTO, 1995). The flow of people generates the movement of related resources, visible and invisible, such as the transfer of knowledge, experiences, competences and income, contributing to overall urban–rural interactions (Van Leeuwen, 2015), although the relevance of the topic literature has partly dealt with the urban–rural discussion (Weaver, 2005). Few exceptions can be found in the literature where tourism has been analysed either as an urban–rural linkage or as a specific phenomenon taking place in urban–rural spaces.

In one of the first studies on urban and rural connections, conducted in the West Midlands, a metropolitan county in England, Nadin and Stead (2000) identified tourism and recreational activities as one of the urban–rural linkages whose movement of people, goods, services, money, information, knowledge and innovation takes place in both urban and rural directions, backwards and forwards, driving new economic activities in both areas (Fig. 1.1). Zonneveld and Stead (2007) agree on the fact that the ‘concept of urban-rural relations covers a broad spectrum of interactions, ranging for example from leisure and tourism to transport and communication, from labour markets and employment to food and drink, from education and training to services and facilities’ (p. 441).



**Fig. 1.1.** Flows of people and materials, between urban and rural. (Adapted from: Nadin and Stead, 2000.)

Furthermore, tourism, leisure and recreation have been recognized as one of the urban–rural interaction sub-types within the OECD classification (Copus, 2013). The European development strategy, aiming to balance the development between urban and rural areas, has promoted urban–rural functional linkages and partnerships. In the OECD publication (2013) some empirical cases on partnerships in tourism are presented, where firms, public institutions and other associations cooperated to offer integrated tourist services and products related to agriculture and the landscape (e.g. Wine and Flavours Route in Emilia-Romagna, Italy), culture and heritage, inland and coastal areas (e.g. product unions in Emilia-Romagna, Italy), and promoting the whole territory based on mutual dependence and interconnections. Most urban–rural interactions, especially in the tourism sector, are shaped by physical proximity as much as by organizational proximity (Copus, 2013), which expands the concept from an Euclidean geographical localization towards a wider network of socio-economic relations, between firms and different actors, as well as other forms of institutional collaboration.

Particular forms of tourism and recreational activities were identified in tourism literature on the basis of their development in urban–rural places, such as second homes, theme parks, golf courses, shopping malls and wellness centres. Weaver (2005) defined the urban–rural fringe as a ‘transitional zone between space that is more clearly urban and space that is more clearly rural’ (p. 23). This zone has been called, in both literature and political debates, exurbs, urban–rural continuum, peri-urban, semi-rural or semi-urban, to mention a few. All these terms focus on the physical space where rural and urban meet and merge. Weaver (2005) listed the specific tourism activities that take place in the urban–rural fringe, dividing them into six groups: theme parks and allied attractions; tourist shopping villages; modified nature-based tourism; factory outlet malls; touring; and golf courses. He called these activities ‘exurban tourism’, specifying their difference from rural and tourism products and their uniqueness in terms of product and market segmentations. He concluded that the urban–rural fringe is a distinct tourism environment that needs a specific subfield of investigation within tourism studies. Weaver clearly stated that tourism literature has neglected the urban–rural fringe as much as the urban–rural fringe, within geography and other social sciences, has neglected tourism (Weaver, 2005). Weaver and Lawton presented an analysis of residents’ perceptions in 2001, and visitors’ attitudes in 2004, on the potential of tourism in the urban–rural fringe, within an Australian destination.

Beesley (2010) focuses on tourism and recreational activities taking place in the fringe and exurban places. She presents a review of the literature on several types of tourism land use/activities taking place in the urban–rural fringe, such as farm and food tourism, nature-based tourism and peri-urban parks, festivals and second homes. These studies enrich Weaver’s list of urban–rural fringe tourism activities by including gambling, heritage tourism and cultural activities, and sporting and recreational events (Koster *et al.*, 2010). While discussing the rural tourism business in North America, Timothy (2005) argued that trails (e.g. natural and cultural heritage paths, cycle and trekking trails) link urban clusters with rural and remote areas creating connections between places of history, culture and natural relevance.

There is evidence that the urban–rural partnership has great potential in tourism activities: a joint product and service development, based on complementarities of resources, cultural aspects and activities, can have a positive effect in enhancing tourism experiences and meeting tourists’ needs (Pechlaner *et al.*, 2015). The relations between rural–urban and tourism have received little research attention (Koster *et al.*, 2010), from both the tourism literature and wider geography and social sciences (Weaver, 2005), at both empirical and theoretical levels and, as per the author’s knowledge, no review on urban–rural and tourism linkages has been developed yet. Thus, a systematic literature review is undertaken, aiming to search for a larger number of papers discussing the research objective and, in doing so, enhancing the academic debate. The Methodology and Results are presented in the following sections.

## Methodology

Literature reviews are the starting point for any research activity, since they provide a comprehensive and unbiased summary of available evidence, based on existing academic production, selected by a clearly defined and reproducible search strategy. The systematic approach offers deeper observation of findings that cannot be extracted through the traditional narrative review approach (Pickering and Byrne, 2014). According to Petticrew and Roberts (2008), the systematic review approach is a more scientific and transparent process that minimizes bias through an extensive literature search of published papers. A systematic review uses algorithmic and heuristic approaches to search articles, to synthesize all relevant facts and perform critical analysis. The systematic approach requires detailed pre-selection criteria for inclusion and exclusion of articles, selection of keywords as per research questions, selection of databases, as well as a detailed strategy to filter relevant articles based on title, abstract and detailed reading. Finally, the resulting papers will be deeply read and synthesized into a detailed representation (Hart, 2008).

Hart's (2008) methodology has been used in this study for the systematic review. Due to the multidisciplinary nature of urban–rural relations and tourism, the research was performed in Scopus, which offers a wider index journal range and greater international coverage (Le-Klähn and Hall, 2015). An online database research was conducted on 6 July 2015 and a second one was performed on 1 February 2016. Results below are presented on the findings of the latter date. The fields of research were selected as TITLE-ABSTRACT-KEYWORDS, with the following keywords:

‘\*rural\*’ AND ‘\*urban\*’ AND ‘\*touris\*’

The use of ‘\*’ was to ensure that all possible combinations (i.e. urban–rural, rural–urban) and derivatives (i.e. tourism, tourist, tourists, touristic) were covered.

The research was refined by including: DOCUMENT TYPES (i.e. ARTICLE, CONFERENCE PAPER, REVIEW, BOOK, BOOK CHAPTER and CONFERENCE REVIEW), and excluding criteria: LANGUAGES (i.e. languages other than ENGLISH) and SUBJECT AREA (i.e. subjects other than SOCIAL SCIENCES, ENVIRONMENTAL SERVICE, BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT, EARTH AND PLANET SCIENCES). Including and excluding criteria were selected in order not to omit any relevant paper.

## Results

This section presents the results, organized into three stages: the first section presents descriptive statistics over the total publications identified by the systematic review; the second part shows academic contributions resulting after the application of including and excluding criteria and a division of the resulting papers into four topic areas (rural, urban, rural–

urban, other) and two subcategories (related or not related to tourism) according to the topic, research object, study area and field of research; finally, the main topics are presented according to the results. Over 934 results were initially obtained, covering the period from 1973 to 2016.

## Descriptive statistics

Some descriptive statistics were performed on the total quantity of papers, in order to evaluate the evolution of the academic discussion and introduce the main issues related to urban–rural and tourism. Scopus indicates that the number of papers from 2006 to 2016 accounts for over 64% of the total publications identified using the research parameters. As per Fig. 1.2, we can see that the topic has gained growing attention, with remarkable peaks in the years 2012 and 2014, with 8.3% and 9.74% of the total papers published in those years, respectively.

A large majority of the literature identified by the systematic review originally comes from the USA and the UK (21.6% of the total), followed by Chinese contributions (8%). Australia, Spain, France, Canada and Japan follow on the list.

In addition, statistics were performed on the document types. Journal articles account for more than 61%, followed by conference papers and reviews as presented in Fig. 1.3.

According to the Scopus results, *Annals of Tourism Research* is the tourism journal with the majority of papers published on rural–urban–tourism issues (20 papers), followed by *Tourism Management* (9). *Tourism Geographies* (8), *Current Issues in Tourism* (5), *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* (5) and *Journal of Travel Research* (5) follow next in the list of the

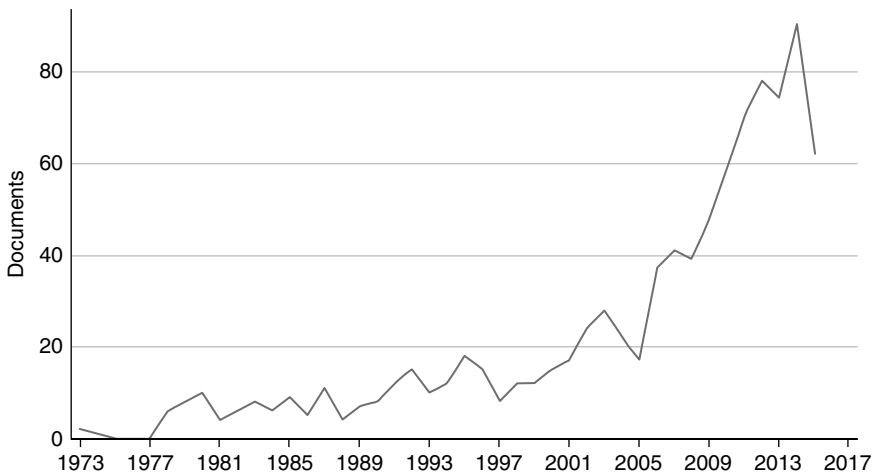
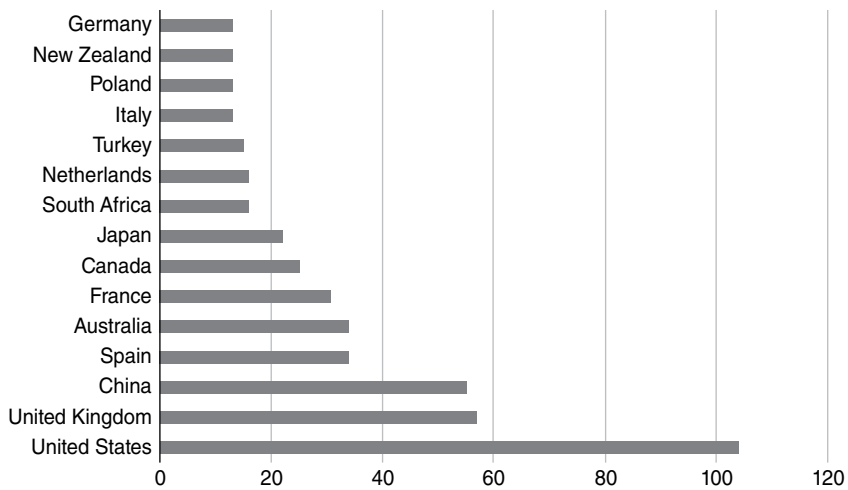


Fig. 1.2. Papers divided over years. (Adapted from: Scopus database.)





**Fig. 1.3.** Document type. (Adapted from: Scopus database.)

journals in tourism that have published at least five works on urban–rural and tourism related topics.

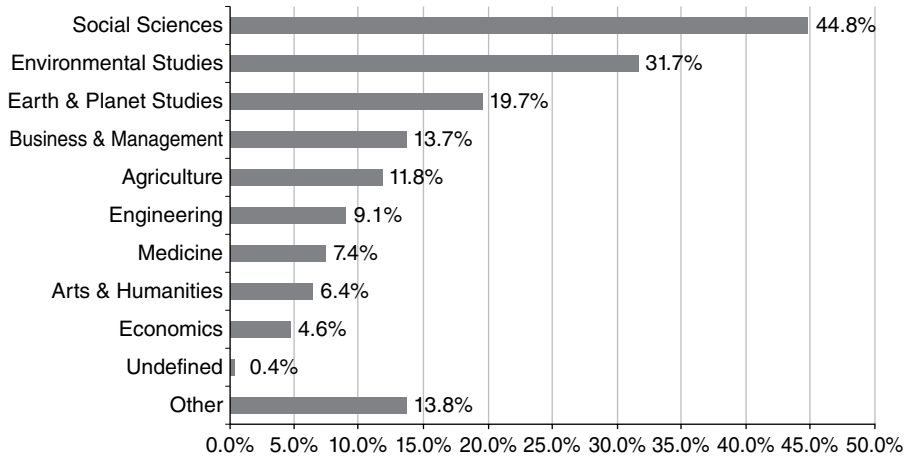
A final analysis was performed of the subject area (Fig. 1.4) and Scopus indicates that a large majority of papers belong to the social sciences (44.8%) and environmental studies (31.7%), covering 76.5% of the total studies published. Earth and planet studies, business and management follow next on the list.

**Academic contributions resulting from systematic review of the literature**

After the presentation of descriptive statistics, including and excluding criteria were applied to the total of publications identified in Scopus, as explained in the methodology. A refined selection of 363 academic contributions was obtained. Therefore, a more selective reading of title, keywords and abstract was performed. In order to provide a more comprehensive map of the relevant literature, resulting from the systematic review, the papers were organized according to their topic, research object, study area and field of research. The papers were divided into four macro areas:

- RURAL;
- URBAN;
- RURAL–URBAN; and
- OTHER (meaning not related to rural, urban or rural–urban).

Then subdivided into two subcategories of topics: related to TOURISM (issues or field) or not related to tourism and labelled OTHER. Results are presented in Table 1.1.



**Fig. 1.4.** Subject area. (Adapted from: Scopus database.)

**Table 1.1.** Results deriving from reading criteria of the 363 selected papers on ‘\*rural\*’ AND ‘\*urban\*’ AND ‘\*touris\*’.

Subject	Tourism	Other	Total
Rural	66	35	101
Urban	22	10	32
Urban–rural	65	35	100
Other	64	66	130

Rural and tourism issues are discussed in 66 papers as central subjects. Thirty-five papers discuss rural (and related aspects) and other topics or fields of research, rather than tourism. Urban and tourism are presented as main research objects in 22 of the selected papers. Ten academic contributions, resulting from the systematic literature review, focus on urban and other topics or fields of research, different from tourism.

Tourism is a key topic in 64 academic contributions that do not address directly the urban–rural discussion, while 66 papers, although resulting from the search query of selected keywords (‘\*rural\*’ AND ‘\*urban\*’ AND ‘\*touris\*’ in TITLE-ABSTRACT-KEYWORDS) and thus being related to the combination of the three keywords, do not focus on urban–rural and tourism connections as a main research object.

In the end, 100 papers address urban–rural spaces, linkages and connection, but only 65 completely and fully focus on the relationship between rural, urban and tourism. This means that 27.5% of the papers focus on rural–urban interconnections and only 18% of papers develop the relationship topic of tourism in rural–urban linkages.

The 65 papers belonging to the cluster RURAL–URBAN and TOURISM were analysed. According to the literature presented in the second section,

and after an in-depth reading and analysis of the academic contributions resulting, the publications can be grouped into three macro areas:

1. COMPARISON between TOURISM related issues, topics, effects, implications, case studies analysed, tested, verified in both RURAL and URBAN areas, communities, visitors, stakeholders.
2. URBAN–RURAL FRINGE, PERI-URBAN contexts of study, typologies of TOURISM related forms: second houses, national parks and shopping malls.
3. URBAN–RURAL and RURAL–URBAN RELATIONSHIPS and TOURISM, partnerships, strategies, relations in terms of rural people's migration to urban areas and urban residents moving to rural areas (counter-urbanization) linked to tourism activities, reasons, entrepreneurship.

## Discussion

The large majority of the 65 publications compare tourism issues in both rural and urban contexts. These papers belong to the tourism literature, and they were published in leading tourism journals. A good number of them discussed the spatial differences between the distribution of tourism benefits and the impact of tourist activities over rural and urban areas (Hall and Page, 2014) and communities, in both developing countries (Adiyia *et al.*, 2014) and in developed countries (Zhang *et al.*, 2007), with specific reference to sport tourism events (Fennell, 1998). Other authors focused on differences in motivations and preferences between rural (and coastal) and urban tourists, based on the attributes of the place they visit (Andriotis, 2011), landscape features (Yu, 1995), destination image perception among rural and urban visitors (Hunter and Suh, 2007), comparing urban and rural consumers' preferences for agri-tourism in Kazakhstan (Kenebayeva, 2014) or urban and rural destination choices. A group of scholars studied the difference between rural villagers and urban residents in perceiving the impact of change induced by tourism development (Sharma and Dyer, 2009) and in tourism demand based on income differences (Yang *et al.*, 2014). The effects of seasonality and summer weather conditions (Falk, 2015) on rural and urban destinations were also tested. Research showed that demand for tourism in rural areas was from middle class urbanities with the double aim of breaking free from everyday life and reenergizing in the countryside (Silva, 2007), whereas rural vacation destination choice is influenced by household origin and social class (Zhang *et al.*, 2007). Comparisons between rural and urban case studies in relation to media coverage differences (Lahav *et al.*, 2013), tourist public transport use at the touristic destination (Le-Klähn and Hall, 2015), slum tourism in South Africa (Rogerson, 2014), tourism marketing strategies in wineries (Barber *et al.*, 2008) and development and management of small tourism firms in New Zealand (Ateljevic, 2007) complete this first part of the discussion.

The second group is composed of several contributions that focus on the urban–rural fringe areas, together with specific tourism activities that take place in this urban–rural continuum (Weaver, 2005). Kikuchi, in 2010, called for a conservation of rurality, against urbanization, as a fundamental condition for rurality-based tourism development in the fringe. Weaver and Lawton analysed resident perception (2001) and visitor attitudes (2004) towards tourism development in Australia, followed by host–guest interaction in the fringe (Zhang *et al.*, 2006). Some scholars discussed second homes (Visser, 2006), their owners and the role of urban–rural migrant entrepreneurs in changing small rural towns in emerging tourism destinations (Donaldson, 2009). Second homes were analysed in the wider counter-urbanization movement and their contribution to rural socio-economic change was investigated (Fialová and Vágner, 2014). Job opportunities and revenue distribution were analysed in relation to national parks (Arnberger and Brandenburg, 2007) and leisure shopping centres (Jansen-Verbeke, 2012). These contributions in urban–rural fringe tourism cases close the second group.

Functional relations refer mainly to visible and invisible connections, flows of people, capital and financial transfer, movements of goods, natural resources, information and technology, administrative and services provision between urban and rural areas, both backwards and forwards (Preston, 1975). According to this definition, the last collection of papers was identified among the resulting academic contributions. The linkages between agricultural production and tourism services were presented as fostering the relationship between rural and urban areas, thus supporting sustainable urban–rural development (Yang *et al.*, 2010). Furthermore, empirical evidence has defined farms and agricultural spaces as loci of rural and urban social change, family friendly places for recreation, education, small-scale production and personal growth (Amsden and McEntee, 2011).

Relationships between rural areas under urban pressure were studied in European case studies; results supported the hypothesis that rural–urban relationships preserve rural landscapes (Buciega *et al.*, 2009). Hong Kong was the only case of a destination with a clear vision of an urban and rural joint tourist offer. The Hong Kong case study evaluated the opportunity to combine urban tourism experiences with rural excursions and nature tourism, in a new tourism product that could enrich and diversify Hong Kong's tourism offer and increase the number of tourists (Jim, 2000).

According to the literature, urban–rural interconnections are based on flows of people: migrants, commuters and travellers. A good number of authors addressed the topic of people migration within urban–rural relationships. Case studies, like Cancun urbanization and tourism growth, described the migration of people from rural Mexico (Dufresne and Locher, 1995) in search of employment and job opportunities. Together with examples of the agricultural sector decline and no lasting benefits from rural–urban migration (Carte *et al.*, 2010), the literature also presented

other cases of counter-urbanization motivated by new employment possibilities linked to rural tourism (Löffler and Steinicke, 2006). The migration of people from urban to rural areas was confirmed to play a determinant role in restructuring rural areas and starting new entrepreneurial activities in Europe and Spain (Paniagua, 2002).

More recent literature has discussed the urban–rural relationship and tourism within a multidisciplinary approach. Tourism is combined with cultural activities, in an urban–rural partnership, to diversify and enrich a destinations’ offering (Pechlaner *et al.*, 2015). Rural–urban linkages and governance aspects have been investigated in relation to natural resource management; both tourism and recreational activities impacted on rural settings and socio-economic aspects (Salmi, 2009). Results deriving from empirical research showed that rural areas benefit from having linkages with urban areas, in terms of employment growth and a strong tourism sector, while, at the same time, urban areas benefit from rural partnership, reporting higher levels of GDP, employment and population growth (Van Leeuwen, 2015).

## Conclusion and Implications

This chapter combines a traditional with a systematic review of the academic literature, investigating urban–rural linkages and tourism, searching for theoretical perspectives and empirical realities. Despite the fact that the review is limited to the Scopus electronic database, several interesting results seem to emerge. First, the debate on urban–rural is gaining momentum even though the average number of contributions published per year is still limited. Second, although urban–rural interactions are advocated, especially in policy debates, there is little academic production on this topic. Third, research strongly focuses on empirical case studies with limited theoretical contributions. Fourth, the papers that have emerged from the combination of traditional and systematic reviews of the literature reveal that a large majority of academic production is focused on the comparison of tourism effects and tourism related issues in rural context and urban areas. These papers belong to the tourism literature, thus confirming that tourism literature has produced limited research on urban–rural interconnections and spaces (Weaver, 2005). Fifth, only a limited number of papers address the urban–rural linkages and tourism, presenting a multidisciplinary approach and outputs for further research and discussion.

The 65 papers selected showed that urban–rural linkages and tourism have been discussed by tourism literature, geography, social sciences and regional development. These disciplines have developed the urban–rural and tourism debate, with different methodologies and research focuses. The most frequent issues that have been investigated within the urban–rural and tourism were rural, urban and fringe spaces, residents, visitors, communities living in those spaces and tourism related activities. A few

cases of urban–rural partnerships in tourism were analysed in the literature, among which some focused on the combination of recreation, culture and agriculture in an integrated way towards a new tourist offer development, multi-governance support and managerial enhancement.

The literature review has clearly highlighted a paucity in linking rural tourism with urban tourism and in linking rural, urban and tourism issues. The results confirm that little attention has been given to tourism and urban–rural discussions, thus identifying gaps in both tourism literature and other social sciences, leaving room for further research. Tourism literature has rarely discussed urban–rural linkages in tourism, and social sciences have seldom addressed the potential of tourism’s role in linking rural and urban.

Despite the limited contribution, the literature confirmed the great mutual benefit for both rural and urban areas deriving from socio-economic linkages and integrated planning policies. Furthermore, there is evidence that urban–rural partnerships enhance tourism activities (joint product and service based on complementarities can enhance tourism experiences) and vice versa. Tourism within the flow of people, knowledge and income affects urban–rural linkages in both directions: from rural to urban and from urban to rural.

The research has limitations. It was meant to be an extensive literature review, which means it will need to be expanded in the future, searching in Web of Science and Google Scholar databases and cross-referencing the results with relevant research contributions in the top journals. Therefore, additional research is needed to enhance the present literature review to a comprehensive level. Nevertheless, the present chapter has provided an overview of the most relevant publications discussing the urban–rural and tourism relationship by performing the first literature review in urban–rural linkages and tourism, combining traditional and systematic tools.

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