

Rethinking the Rejuvenation Pathway: Rural Digital Nomadism as an Exploratory Strategy Amidst Bali's Overtourism Pressures

Fransisco Situmorang* 

Komaling Consulting, Indonesia

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.24843/JKB.2026.v16.i02.p01>

Abstract: Overtourism threatens destination sustainability, accelerating stagnation or decline within the Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC), as Bali's ecological stress, cultural commodification, and governance fragility illustrate. This study explores rural digital nomadism as an exploratory strategy for sustainable rejuvenation in Kelelung Eco Village, Tabanan, Bali. Using a longitudinal single-case design (2020-2026), it draws on 22 interviews, focus group discussions, participant observation, and a feasibility survey of 85 respondents. Integrating co-living, co-working, and authentic cultural experiences initially extended visitor stays, diversified household income, and repositioned the village within global flows. Constrained by weak marketing, living-wage pressures, and institutional resistance, the village strategically refocused on its edu-ecotourism model while keeping rural digital nomadism as its main future direction. Theoretically, the study extends TALC to the Global South through participatory nomadism, distinguishing community-embedded models from urban nomad bubbles. Practically, it shows that rejuvenation depends on formal institutional and financial support.

Keywords: digital nomadism; overtourism; rejuvenation; rural tourism; slow tourism; tourism area life cycle (TALC)

1. Introduction

Tourism has rebounded strongly in the post-pandemic era, driven by low-cost carriers, digital booking platforms, and destination amplification through social media. However, this resurgence has reignited concerns about overtourism, where destinations are pushed beyond ecological, socio-cultural, and institutional thresholds. Scholars increasingly highlight that overtourism is not merely a matter of visitor numbers but a manifestation of governance failures that undermine resilience and expose destinations to systemic decline

* Corresponding author's email: fransisco@komalingconsulting.id

Submitted: 29 September 2025; Accepted: 21 June 2026; Published: 5 August 2026



Copyright © 2026 by the author (s). This article is published by *Jurnal Kajian Bali (Journal of Bali Studies)*, University of Udayana, Bali, Indonesia, under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

(Butler & Dodds, 2022; Milano et al., 2024). Well-documented cases such as Venice, Barcelona, and Santorini illustrate how unchecked development produces congestion, ecological degradation, and cultural commodification, with governance inertia often playing a decisive role (Back et al., 2025; Blázquez-Salom et al., 2023; Boháč & Drápela, 2022; Drápela et al., 2025). These examples highlight the need to rethink tourism not only as growth management but also as a systemic redesign that prioritizes ecological thresholds, social equity, and institutional capacity. The Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC) framework remains a useful tool for diagnosing stagnation, decline, or rejuvenation, but outcomes increasingly depend on governance choices rather than raw visitor numbers (Adiputra et al., 2018; Salam et al., 2024). This debate is particularly urgent in the Global South, where weaker institutions and higher dependence on tourism magnify the risks of overtourism.

Bali exemplifies this paradox well. Tourism, which accounts for over half of Bali's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Antara & Sumarniasih, 2024; Bali Provincial Government, 2021), embeds the island in a fragile mono-sectoral economy acutely vulnerable to shocks. The Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic dramatically exposed this dependence, with employment evaporating overnight and communities left without safety nets. Today, signs of stagnation are clear, including water shortages (Handayani et al., 2021b), rising carbon emissions (Kembali Becik, 2023), coastal erosion (Hastuti et al., 2024), waste mismanagement (Bali Partnership, 2019), agricultural land conversion (Indrawan et al., 2022), cultural commodification (Gorda et al., 2023), and widening inequality. However, stagnation is not uniform across the island. Southern Bali's Kuta–Seminyak–Canggu corridor mirrors European hotspots, where congestion, speculation, and gentrification displace residents and intensify ecological pressures (Back et al., 2025). In contrast, peripheral villages retain agrarian and cultural assets that could anchor the renewal. However, these assets are increasingly damaged by farmland transfers to outside investors and youth disengagement from agriculture, confirming the importance of governance in shaping TALC trajectories (Artini et al., 2020; Suyadnya, 2021).

New mobility patterns, such as digital nomadism, have emerged amid these pressures. Enabled by digital infrastructures and normalized by remote work post-pandemic, digital nomads relocate for extended periods, seeking affordability, authenticity, and immersion while sustaining professional activity remotely (Cook, 2023; Hannonen, 2024). More than a lifestyle trend, digital nomadism represents a structural shift in mobility that merges labor flexibility with slower, deeper forms of tourism. When integrated into rural areas, nomadism has the potential to redistribute flows away from saturated

hubs, extend visitor stays, and diversify household economies (Amaral et al., 2024; Bosworth et al., 2023; Klarin et al., 2023). These dynamics strongly reverberate across the principles of slow tourism, which emphasizes immersion, reciprocity, and deseasonalization (Håkansson & Bejaković, 2023; Lonardi et al., 2024; Situmorang, 2022). European initiatives, such as coworking hubs in Valsugana, Italy, and on Croatian islands, show that embedding slow-tourism values into rural destinations can lengthen stays, stabilize incomes, and even secure sustainability certification (Lonardi et al., 2024).

However, there are significant research gaps. Most digital nomadism studies are concentrated in Global North urban contexts (Amaral et al., 2024; Hannonen, 2024), while rural Global South applications remain largely underexplored despite facing more acute challenges of overtourism, fragile infrastructure, and weak institutional safeguards (Bozzi, 2024; Gumilang, 2024; Henkens, 2025). Existing scholarship has not systematically examined how digital nomadism interacts with rural communities in overtourism-affected destinations or how it may contribute to TALC rejuvenation under the conditions of dispossession and governance fragility. Bali illustrates this research gap vividly: while its peripheries hold potential for diversification, they are simultaneously constrained by land conversion, limited infrastructure, and uneven governance issues.

To address this gap, this study examines the Kelecung Eco Village, the site of Indonesia's pioneer rural digital-nomad initiative launched in 2021, as a longitudinal social laboratory. Crucially, while the macro-destination of Bali is currently grappling with TALC stagnation, Kelecung operates at the micro-level development stage, making it a critical site to test whether rural digital nomadism can redirect peripheral areas away from premature decline. Through a longitudinal design (2020–2026), this study analyzes how rural digital nomadism interacts with overtourism dynamics and whether it can reposition peripheral areas within TALC trajectories. This contribution is twofold. Theoretically, it extends the TALC framework by embedding digital nomadism and slow tourism as exploratory strategies for rejuvenation in Global South contexts, dimensions overlooked in the current literature dominated by Global North cases. Empirically, it provides rare longitudinal evidence of the inherent fragility of grassroots innovations. It illustrates how governance, infrastructure, and community agency condition these outcomes, ultimately exposing the vulnerability of self-funded initiatives when operating without systemic institutional scaffolding. Accordingly, this study asks: (1) how overtourism affects Bali's sustainability within the stagnation phase of the TALC; (2) how rural tourism–digital nomadism integration supports sustainable rejuvenation; and (3) what enabling and constraining factors, particularly operational fragility

and governance, shape these rejuvenation outcomes.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Overtourism and Bali's Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC)

Overtourism occurs when visitor numbers surpass a destination's physical, ecological, social, and economic capacities, resulting in environmental degradation, cultural erosion, and socioeconomic disruption. While often associated with the growth of mass tourism, scholars increasingly underline governance failures and uneven development as the underlying drivers (Back et al., 2025; Butler & Dodds, 2022; Milano et al., 2024). Bali illustrates these dynamics with clarity. Tourism contributes more than 54% of the provincial GDP, yet development is heavily concentrated in the south. The Kuta–Ubud corridor dominates employment and infrastructure, whereas the northern and eastern regions remain marginalized, reinforcing spatial inequality (Antara & Sumarniasih, 2024; Yahya, 2021). This imbalance deepens social vulnerability: traditional workers are displaced, gentrification drives up land prices, and households face structural dependence on tourism revenues (Antara & Sumarniasih, 2024; Negara et al., 2024; Situmorang & Nugroho, 2020). The pandemic further exposed these risks, collapsing supply chains, and leaving many without safety nets.

Environmental pressures further exacerbate this problem. Water demand in Badung rose by more than 300% between 1988 and 2013, with tourists consuming up to 16 times more than residents, leading to chronic water shortages in the SARBAGITA (Denpasar, Badung, Gianyar, and Tabanan) region (Yamamoto et al., 2021; Handayani et al., 2021b). Energy demand is expected to grow by nearly 50% by 2030, with tourism already responsible for the majority of emissions and electricity consumption (Adiputra et al., 2018; Diwanda et al., 2021). Solid waste surpasses 1.6 million tons annually, with 20% composed of plastics and an estimated 11% leaking into rivers and seas (Bali Partnership, 2019; Global Institute for Tomorrow, 2023). Land conversion intensifies these challenges: more than 6,200 hectares of rice fields were lost between 2002 and 2016, while built-up areas in Badung expanded from 17.9% to 30.7% between 2010 and 2020 (Indrawan et al., 2022; Utama & Suryawan, 2023). These changes weaken food security, leaving agriculture increasingly reliant on smallholder farmers and aging laborers (Handayani et al., 2021a; Kusumawati et al., 2024). Collectively, these indicators reveal that Bali has exceeded its sustainability thresholds.

Socio-cultural impacts are equally severe across the island. Sacred rituals such as *melukat* (a Balinese Hindu self-purification ritual using holy water to cleanse the body and mind and draw closer to God) and *Nyepi* (the Balinese Hindu Day of Silence marking the Saka New Year, when the entire island suspends work, fire, travel, and entertainment for a day of introspection) have

been commodified, temples have been transformed into ticketed attractions, and traditional performances such as Barong dances have been staged primarily for tourist consumption (Gorda et al., 2023; Narottama, 2016; Pradnyadari & Putra, 2025). These practices blur the line between cultural preservation and commercialization, undermining authenticity and weakening the agency of the community. Rising tourism-related crimes, immigration violations, and deportations highlight the strain on governance created by the unchecked visitor flows (Detik Bali, 2024, 2025). Together, these dynamics illustrate how overtourism erodes not only environmental resources but also the symbolic and institutional resilience underpinning Bali's global appeal.

The Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC), developed by Butler (1980), provides a conceptual lens for interpreting these processes. The framework identifies six phases: exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, stagnation, and the eventual divergence between decline or rejuvenation (Butler, 2024; Salam et al., 2024). In Bali, exploration began in the early twentieth century when anthropologists and artists first popularized the island (Anom et al., 2017). By the 1970s, Kuta residents had initiated the involvement phase by providing basic accommodation (Salam et al., 2024). Development accelerated through the 1980s–2000s, driven by international investment, airport expansion, and farmland conversion (Rimba et al., 2020). Since the early 2000s, consolidation has entrenched tourism as the backbone of the economy, even as growth rates have slowed (Bali Provincial Government, 2021). As a result, the island is now experiencing stagnation, characterized by traffic congestion, water scarcity, environmental decline, and socio-cultural tensions (Salam et al., 2024; Sari et al., 2024; Suyadnya, 2021).

At this stage, the TALC underscores the urgency of decisive intervention. Without structural reforms, Bali risks sliding into decline, a path characterized by shrinking tourist numbers, deteriorating infrastructure, and irreversible ecological loss (Adiputra et al., 2018). However, rejuvenation remains possible if tourism is restructured to balance growth and sustainability. Community-based initiatives, ecotourism projects, and slow tourism models can help redistribute visitor flows beyond saturated hubs, diversify income streams, and protect cultural and environmental assets (Blázquez-Salom et al., 2023; Lane et al., 2022; Sari et al., 2024). Emerging practices such as rural digital nomadism have the potential to support rural economies while mitigating urban congestion (Klarin et al., 2023). However, these solutions carry their own risks, including rural gentrification, seasonal volatility, and additional ecological pressure. Such complexities call for anticipatory governance rather than reactive policy.

Institutional frameworks are beginning to acknowledge these challenges. Bali Provincial Regulation No. 5/2020 explicitly promotes sustainability and

cultural authenticity as guiding principles for tourism. However, enforcement remains inconsistent, limiting its effectiveness (Sari et al., 2024). Scholars argue that genuine rejuvenation requires not only regulation but also deeper governance reforms, such as the strict enforcement of carrying capacities, diversification beyond tourism, and stronger community participation in decision-making (Adiputra et al., 2018). Within the TALC, this represents a crucial distinction between decline and rejuvenation phases. Business-as-usual trajectories will almost certainly lead to deterioration, whereas bold structural changes could reposition Bali as a model for sustainable tourism.

In conclusion, Bali’s experience demonstrates how overtourism accelerates stagnation within the TALC framework (Figure 1). This extends the foundational TALC analysis of Bali by Putra and Hitchcock (2006), who plotted international arrivals from 1921 to 2004 and found an island still propelled by developmental momentum that had not yet reached consolidation; two decades on, that momentum has matured into the structural saturation characteristic of stagnation, as environmental overshoot, cultural commodification, and economic dependence converge to create systemic crises. This is not merely a question of destination capacity but of governance: how institutions, policies, and communities respond to mounting pressures. The lessons extend well beyond Bali, underscoring the global relevance of treating overtourism as a governance challenge rather than a numerical one. For Bali, the path forward requires systemic reform, equitable redistribution, and cultural preservation. Its future competitiveness, and indeed its identity, will depend on whether it chooses to decline or embrace rejuvenation.

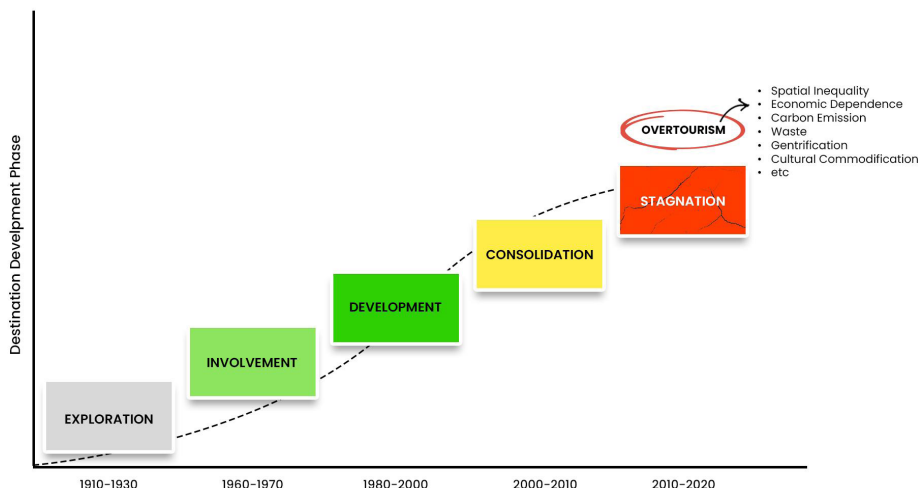


Figure 1. Bali’s Tourism Area Life Cycle, adapted and extended from Butler (1980) (Author’s elaboration, 2025)

2.2 Digital Nomadism in Rural Tourism: Trends, Potentials, and Challenges toward Sustainable Tourism

Digital nomadism has expanded rapidly in the post-pandemic era, blending remote work with extensive travel and long-term stays. Enabled by digital technologies, this allows individuals to sustain professional activities while immersing themselves in diverse destinations and lifestyles (Cook, 2023; Hannonen, 2024; Situmorang & Karthana, 2021). This phenomenon reflects structural shifts in global mobility, shaped by the rise of remote work and the growing demand for authentic, personalized, and long-term travel experiences beyond crowded urban centers (Amaral et al., 2024; Cook, 2023). Within the context of tourism development, the integration of digital nomadism with rural tourism offers a promising synergy, linking natural landscapes, cultural heritage, and rural lifestyles with new opportunities for community well-being, environmental stewardship, and cultural preservation (Lonardi et al., 2024).

Rural tourism is multidimensional, encompassing agritourism, ecotourism, cultural and heritage-based practices, and adventure-oriented activities. It is typically characterized by strong local ownership and participatory governance, making it central to sustainability strategies (Håkansson & Bejaković, 2023; Zhou et al., 2024). Beyond tourism practices, rural tourism reflects the dynamics of “everyday rurality,” embedding livelihoods and landscapes into broader developmental goals. It sustains balance across environmental, social, economic, and cultural dimensions while reinforcing resilience (Klarin et al., 2023; Lane et al., 2022; Lonardi et al., 2024; Zhou et al., 2024). When combined with digital nomadism, rural tourism resonates with the principles of slow tourism by emphasizing low-carbon mobility, immersive experiences, and deeper forms of community participation (Huang et al., 2023; Klarin et al., 2023; Lane et al., 2022). Extended stays by nomads contribute to deseasonalization, providing continuity for local businesses. Initiatives such as co-working spaces help anchor these flows, supporting sustainable economies and providing hubs for innovation and entrepreneurship (Håkansson & Bejaković, 2023; Lonardi et al., 2024). In this sense, rural digital nomadism represents not only an alternative travel model but also a strategic pathway to decentralize visitor flows, strengthen rural resilience, and facilitate rejuvenation within the Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC) framework.

From a multidimensional perspective, rural digital nomadism generates significant benefits for the host destination. Economically, it diversifies rural livelihoods through demand for homestays, gastronomy, and cultural experiences, which are reinforced by the extended duration of stays (Amaral et al., 2024; Mao & Xu, 2024). Investments in digital infrastructure, such as co-working hubs, not only attract nomads but also facilitate local knowledge exchange and create a more equitable income distribution compared to

investor-driven mass tourism (Artini et al., 2020; Bosworth et al., 2023). Socially, community engagement initiatives fostered cohesion and meaningful interactions between visitors and residents. Italy's *Comunità Ospitali* program exemplifies how embedding nomads in local networks reduces isolation and strengthens relationships (Serpa et al., 2024). Culturally, nomads can contribute to the revitalization of festivals, gastronomy, and handicrafts, provided that authenticity is preserved and excessive commodification is avoided (Amaral et al., 2024; Bosworth et al., 2023; Lonardi et al., 2024). Environmentally, the emphasis on longer stays and low-carbon practices aligns with community-based conservation efforts that support ecosystem resilience (Gede et al., 2021; Håkansson & Bejaković, 2023). Taken together, these dimensions illustrate the holistic value of rural digital nomadism as a sustainable-tourism strategy.

International case studies further highlight its potential as a rejuvenation strategy to improve stagnating tourist destinations. In Valsugana, Italy, the establishment of co-working spaces combined with collaborative governance helped reposition the destination, mitigating stagnation and creating year-round activities (Lonardi et al., 2024). In Croatia, investments in digital infrastructure have reduced rural depopulation and seasonal dependency while strengthening economic viability (Håkansson & Bejaković, 2023). In Bali, the island's cultural appeal, favorable climate, affordability, and growth of co-working hubs, such as Sanur's Intaran Village, have created employment opportunities, reinforced cultural identity, and supported economic regeneration (Gede et al., 2021; Wibowo, 2024). Collectively, these examples demonstrate how integrating digital nomadism with rural tourism can reposition stagnating destinations within the TALC framework, while also offering transferable lessons for Bali and other regions facing overtourism.

Despite its promise, rural digital nomadism is not without risk. Economically, it may contribute to gentrification, rising housing costs, and renewed seasonal dependency, as observed in Canggu, Bali (Håkansson & Bejaković, 2023; Negara et al., 2024; Wibowo, 2024). Socially, weak integration risks creating exclusive "nomad bubbles," leading to lifestyle clashes, displacement, and community segregation (Amaral et al., 2024; Cook, 2023; Hannonen, 2024; Jiwasiddi et al., 2024). Culturally, the unregulated commercialization of rural traditions may fuel commodification, erode authenticity, and create community conflict (Amaral et al., 2024). Environmentally, excessive visitation and resource demand can strain rural ecosystems, increasing waste, pollution, and degradation if not carefully managed within carrying capacity limits (Amaral et al., 2024; Henkens, 2025; Serpa et al., 2024; Wibowo, 2024; Zhou et al., 2024). Without proper governance, nomadism risks replicating the negative externalities of overtourism in new forms.

Therefore, ensuring long-term sustainability requires integrated, community-based approaches. Infrastructure investment must be aligned with local priorities, and co-working hubs should function as cultural commons, fostering collaboration between residents and nomads rather than isolation (Bosworth et al., 2023). Cooperative or village-based ownership models can ensure that revenues are retained locally and reinvested in community needs. Capacity-sensitive planning is essential, with thresholds for water, energy, and waste, and low-carbon standards for co-living facilities (Gede et al., 2021; Håkansson & Bejaković, 2023). Social and cultural programming, including workshops, residencies, and volunteering, can prevent segregation and promote social cohesion (Serpa et al., 2024). At the policy level, Bali's Provincial Regulation No. 5/2020 reinforces sustainability and authenticity, although enforcement remains uneven (Sari et al., 2024). Conceptually, embedding digital nomadism within the TALC model extends it by identifying new rejuvenation pathways. Empirically, Bali's Kelecung Eco Village serves as a critical case study illustrating both the potential and the vulnerability of community-driven models. It demonstrates how rural digital nomadism acts as an exploratory strategy for rural transformation, highly contingent upon systemic governance and financial backing. Figure 2 presents the conceptual framework that integrates digital nomadism and rural tourism for sustainable tourism.

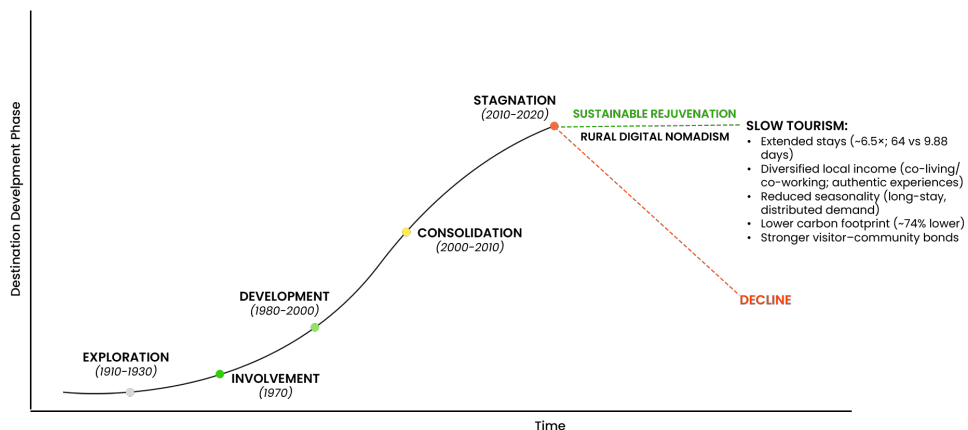


Figure 2. Conceptual Framework of Digital Nomadism and Rural Tourism Integration for Sustainable Tourism (Author's elaboration, 2025)

3. Methodology

3.1 Research Design

This research employed a single embedded case study design with a longitudinal and participatory approach. Referring to Yin (2018) and supported by Diop and Liu (2020), selecting a single-case design is methodologically

justified when examining a “longitudinal” and “revelatory” case. Kelecong Eco Village meets both criteria perfectly, as it offered a unique chance to witness structural transformations across an extended duration (2020–2026), following the community’s path from pre-pandemic eco-tourism, through the trial phase of digital nomadism, to its post-pandemic structural difficulties. Furthermore, as Indonesia’s pioneer of rural digital nomadism initiatives, Kelecong provides unparalleled, inherent access to examine the micro-level tension between grassroots slow tourism innovation and the macro-level forces of overtourism and agricultural land conversion. Moreover, as emphasized by Râbu and Binder (2025), a qualitative single case study serves as a crucial bridge between research and practice, allowing for a detailed examination of developmental processes and relationship dynamics within specific contexts. Based on Creswell and Plano Clark (2018), this qualitatively-driven case study was embedded with supplemental descriptive quantitative data to achieve methodological “complementarity.” While a purely qualitative approach provides contextual depth, the embedded quantitative survey (N=85) established a necessary macro-level baseline of market feasibility, resulting in a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon.

3.2 Data Collection

Data collection was conducted from April 2020 to May 2026 across four phases:

1. Contextual exploration (2020–2021) through literature review, an initial feasibility survey of 85 respondents conducted by the Faculty of Tourism, Udayana University (Tjampan et al., 2021), village mapping, and informal discussions.
2. Planning and initiation (2021–2022), marked by a Focus Group Discussion (FGD) with local stakeholders to formulate rural digital nomadism concept;
3. Implementation (2022–2023), involving five months of full residency for participatory observation of co-living, co-working, and cultural activities;
4. Evaluation (2024–2026) through follow-up interviews, longitudinal analysis, and member checking to validate findings and assess continuity.

A purposive sampling approach was used to select 22 informants (Table 1). Instead of pursuing statistical representativeness, this approach focused on uncovering “information-rich” cases (Patton, 2015). The informants included individuals who had direct, lived experiences of the initiative, such as government

officials, platform founders, village leaders, youth representatives, homestay operators, community figures, Radiant Co-Space members, digital nomads from France, Canada, Australia, and Singapore, and two remote workers from Hong Kong (Table 1). The interviews lasted 45–90 minutes, with several informants interviewed multiple times, while the FGDs involved nine participants (INF-04, 05, 06, 07, 08, 09, 10, 11, 12). Moreover, the primary researcher's role as the initiator of the rural digital nomadism concept, which partnered with Kelecung Eco Village (led by its founder, INF-06) to pilot the model enabled a thorough participant-observation methodology (Yin, 2018). This insider role provided access to spontaneous, informal conversations and underlying community interactions that often stay hidden from outside observers.

All participants took part voluntarily and gave informed consent prior to data collection, including consent for the use of their anonymized excerpts. To protect their privacy, informants are identified throughout the paper only by code (INF-01 to INF-22) and by role or position; no real names are used.

Table 1. List of Informants (n=22)

Code	Role / Position	Gender	Frequency & Duration	Year(s)
INF-01	Deputy of Destination Development, Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy	Male	1 × 90 minutes	2022
INF-02	Founder of nomads.com (Online)	Male	1 × 45 minutes	2021
INF-03	CEO, Tour Trekking Operator	Female	2 × 45 minutes	2021
INF-04	Head of Pokdarwis Kelecung	Male	2 × 60 minutes	2021, 2022
INF-05	Head of Traditional Village of Kelecung	Male	1 × 45 minutes	2022
INF-06	Project Lead (Initiator)	Female	5 × 60 minutes	2021–2024
INF-07	Head of Karang Taruna (Local Youth Association)	Male	2 × 45 minutes	2021, 2022
INF-08	Member of Karang Taruna (Local Youth Association)	Female	2 × 45 minutes	2021, 2022
INF-09	Youth Association Member	Male	2 × 60 minutes	2022, 2023
INF-10	Pokdarwis Member	Male	2 × 45 minutes	2021, 2022
INF-11	Homestay Operator	Female	1 × 60 minutes	2021
INF-12	Homestay Operator	Female	2 × 45 minutes	2021, 2022
INF-13	Community Figure	Female	4 × 60 minutes	2021–2024
INF-14	Radiant Co-Space Member	Male	2 × 60 minutes	2021, 2022
INF-15	Radiant Co-Space Member	Female	2 × 60 minutes	2021, 2022
INF-16	Digital Nomad Tourist (France)	Male	2 × 90 minutes	2022, 2023
INF-17	Digital Nomad Tourist (Canada)	Male	1 × 60 minutes	2022
INF-18	Tourist (Australia)	Male	1 × 45 minutes	2021
INF-19	Tourist (Australia)	Female	1 × 45 minutes	2021
INF-20	Tourist (Singapore)	Female	1 × 60 minutes	2022
INF-21	Remote Worker (Hong Kong)	Female	2 × 60 minutes	2025
INF-22	Remote Worker (Hong Kong)	Male	2 × 60 minutes	2025

3.3 Data Analysis

Qualitative materials, including field notes, observation records, and insights from unstructured interviews, were examined through Reflexive Thematic Analysis (RTA). As envisioned by its main advocates, Braun and Clarke (2019), RTA was intentionally selected over stricter qualitative frameworks due to its strong emphasis on researcher subjectivity and deep field immersion as an analytical resource rather than a bias to be eliminated. Operationally, the examination deliberately avoided automated, software-based coding. Instead, it adopted a cooperative and reflective theme development approach. Familiarization occurred through the main researcher's prolonged field engagement and active peer-debriefing with the RADIANT Co-Space field team. Initial surface-level and underlying codes were produced dialogically, deriving meaning directly from natural, real-time discussions with nomads and villagers. These codes were continuously reviewed, debated, and clustered to construct broader themes, balancing inductive realities of grassroots fragility with deductive dimensions of the TALC framework.

3.4 Validity and Reflexivity

To ensure methodological rigor, the study relied on the triangulation of evidence and rigorous member checking (Yin, 2018). Emerging themes and operational assumptions were validated through casual conversations with various stakeholders, gathering both supportive and critical perspectives. Considering the primary researcher's integrated position as the initiator of the rural digital nomadism concept and a partner to the village whose community-based tourism initiative is led by its founder (INF-06), ongoing reflexivity was upheld to reconcile active involvement with analytical detachment. As highlighted by Răbu and Binder (2025), the concept of the "researcher as instrument" utilizes deep contextual awareness and empathy to support the qualitative analysis of field interactions. This ongoing comparative process significantly reduced possible participatory bias, guaranteeing that the developed themes truly reflected the community's shared reality. Ultimately, aligned with Yin's (2018) case study principles, this research does not aim for statistical generalization but pursues analytic generalization, seeking to expand theoretical propositions regarding TALC rejuvenation mechanisms in vulnerable Global South contexts.

4. Findings and Discussion

This section presents and discusses the study's findings in an integrated manner. It first traces the historical evolution of Kelecung Eco Village (4.1) and the impacts of overtourism on Bali's TALC trajectory (4.2), before examining

how rural tourism and digital nomadism were integrated for sustainable rejuvenation (4.3), including the operationalization of the model (4.3.1), the human dimensions of community and nomad experiences (4.3.2), and rural digital nomadism as an exploratory pathway to rejuvenation (4.3.3). It then analyzes the factors that enabled and constrained these outcomes (4.4).

4.1 Historical Evolution of Kelecung Eco Village

To fully grasp the complexities of rural tourism rejuvenation addressed in this study, it is essential to first understand the historical evolution of the selected case. Kelecung Eco Village is a tourism initiative and brand of Banjar Adat Kelecung Kelod in Tegalmengkeb Village, Tabanan Regency, Bali. The initiative later led to the legal recognition of Tegalmengkeb as an official Tourism Village. Tourism development in Kelecung began in 2014, initiated by the project's founder (INF-06), a local woman who was then living in Surabaya. During one of her visits home, she felt deeply saddened to see local children being chased away by villa managers for "disturbing" the comfort of guests. The scene was painful because it took place on the same beach where she had once played freely as a teenager, a public space that had now been privatized. Her concern deepened when she discovered that around 85% of agricultural land in the coastal area had been sold to outside investors, raising fears that future resort developments would permanently displace local residents from their ancestral land and livelihoods.

Motivated by these threats, the project lead began commuting every two weeks from Surabaya to Kelecung to develop a community-based tourism (CBT) model that could protect local ownership and empower villagers. Her early efforts focused on engaging women and children, teaching them English and encouraging them to maintain village cleanliness, host guests, and manage their own homes as homestays. In 2016 she intensified these efforts while still commuting, and in 2018 she settled permanently in Bali with her family to strengthen community participation. She began promoting the village homestays through Airbnb and established collaborations with international travel agents to attract student and youth groups from Taiwan and Japan for study tours and voluntourism programs. These small-scale exchanges generated direct income for local families while nurturing a sense of pride in maintaining authentic cultural practices.

The development of Kelecung Eco Village also emerged as a quiet antithesis to Bali's mass tourism, which often commercializes culture and equates "authenticity" with luxury. In contrast, Kelecung's tourism philosophy emphasizes simplicity, sincerity, and cultural integrity. As one villager expressed *"We develop tourism in Kelecung with what we have. We don't force*

ourselves to perform grand dances or entertain guests. We just wear our simple clothes and live as we truly are" (INF-04, interview, July 5, 2021).

By 2019 the village operated ten homestays, of which eight ran regularly and two were used only when groups arrived. Rooms were priced at around IDR 200,000 to IDR 250,000 per night, and educational and eco-tourism groups from Japan and Taiwan usually stayed two to three nights. On this basis, community-based tourism had become a significant contributor to the local economy by 2019, generating about IDR 450 million in net income. A target of IDR 600 million was set for 2020 but was not reached, because the COVID-19 pandemic halted all group visits. This brought economic stagnation and pushed the community to rethink its approach. The community realized that its dependence on visitor numbers made it highly vulnerable to external crises such as pandemics, political shifts, and natural disasters. Rather than viewing the crisis as a setback, they began to interpret it as an opportunity to rethink what kind of tourism truly aligned with their values. Local discussions throughout 2020 and early 2021 revealed a shared concern: dependence on visitor quantity was unsustainable, while the pursuit of meaningful, smaller-scale tourism seemed more compatible with village life and balance. In early 2021, the project lead held an informal discussion with several students from the Faculty of Tourism, Udayana University, one of whom had previously completed a six-week community empowerment program in the village in 2019 and had supported her in several programs and competitions since 2020. During the conversation, their shared reflections led to a pivotal question that became the foundation of Kelecung's next transformation: *"Could tourism be redesigned to strengthen community resilience while maintaining authenticity?"*

This pivotal question, along with the examination of rural digital nomadism, provides the essential background for the following analysis of the macro-level effects of overtourism in Bali, the operationalization of this new model, and the factors shaping its outcomes.

4.2 The Impacts of Overtourism on Bali's TALC Trajectory

Overtourism in Bali illustrates the paradox of tourism development in the Global South: rapid expansion may deliver short-term prosperity but steadily erodes it. As Butler's Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC) framework suggests, destinations that exceed ecological, socio-cultural, and institutional thresholds inevitably enter stagnation, where future trajectories hinge less on visitor numbers than on governance capacity to steer decline or rejuvenation (Butler & Dodds, 2022; Milano et al., 2024). The findings affirm this interpretation. Bali's stagnation is not merely about declining visitor satisfaction but also about deeper structural vulnerabilities, ecological degradation, cultural commodification,

and widening inequality. Heavy reliance on mass tourism has created a fragile mono-sectoral economy, which was starkly exposed during the COVID-19 collapse (Antara & Sumarniasih, 2024).

Stagnation is also unevenly distributed. Southern Bali, particularly the Kuta–Seminyak–Canggu corridor, experiences congestion, water scarcity, and gentrification, echoing hotspots such as Barcelona and Venice (Back et al., 2025). Real estate speculation and infrastructure pressures have displaced residents and reshaped landscapes, intensifying inequality and ecological strain. In contrast, peripheral villages such as Kelecong still hold agricultural and cultural assets that could support renewal. However, the empirical findings reveal that these assets are highly fragile and directly threatened by spillover of macro-level overtourism. As detailed in Section 4.1, these pressures were already visible in Kelecong by 2014, when much of the coastal farmland had passed to outside investors and previously public spaces were being privatized. These dynamics confirm that youth disengagement from farming and the transfer of coastal farmland to external investors decrease agrarian resilience and community agency, reversing the synergies between agriculture and tourism (Artini et al., 2020). Taken together, these findings extend the TALC debates by showing that stagnation in Global South contexts is shaped not only by resource strain but also by dispossession and governance failures. Bali's trajectory will hinge less on tourist volumes than on whether governance can convert stagnation into innovation rather than into inertia.

4.3 Integrating Rural Tourism and Digital Nomadism for Sustainable Rejuvenation

To address the structural vulnerabilities exposed by overtourism and the stagnation phase of the TALC, the integration of digital nomadism with rural tourism emerged as a strategic pathway for sustainable rejuvenation (Håkansson & Bejaković, 2023; Lonardi et al., 2024). Unlike conventional mass tourism, which often prioritizes rapid turnover and high visitor volume, rural digital nomadism inherently aligns with the principles of slow tourism (Huang et al., 2023; Klarin et al., 2023; Lane et al., 2022). It encourages longer stays, deeper community engagement, and a significantly lower ecological footprint, offering a counter-narrative to the extractive models seen in southern Bali (Amaral et al., 2024; Gede et al., 2021; Serpa et al., 2024).

4.3.1 Operationalizing the Rural Digital Nomadism Model

The feasibility of this integration was initially explored through a baseline exploratory survey conducted by the Faculty of Tourism team at Udayana University during the exploration phase. Among 85 domestic travelers surveyed, 87% identified

as remote workers, and 55 of them expressed strong interest in living and working from Kelecung Eco Village (Tjampian et al., 2021). The survey also identified distinct psychographic segments: Social Nomads (Gen Z) seeking peer interaction, Family Nomads (Gen Y) prioritizing homey facilities, and Well-being Nomads (Solo) seeking privacy. These findings confirmed that Kelecung possessed the social and spatial capacity to accommodate a community-integrated digital nomad model.

Armed with this quantitative validation, the concept of rural digital nomadism was formally introduced to the community during a pivotal Focus Group Discussion on June 12, 2021 (Figure 3). Organized in collaboration with students from the Faculty of Tourism at Udayana University participating in the UNWTO Students League Competition, the session formally introduced the concept of rural digital nomadism. The discussion drew from global literature predicting that remote work would continue to expand, with an estimated one billion digital workers by 2035 (Cook, 2023; Situmorang & Karthana, 2021). It also recognized Bali's unique position as one of the world's top digital nomad destinations, known for its low living costs, tropical climate, and strong sense of community (Cook, 2023; Situmorang & Karthana, 2021).



Figure 3. Focus Group Discussion on June 12, 2021 (Photo by Josua Manggaprou, 2021)

Unlike urban hubs such as Canggu or Ubud, Kelecung sought to offer an alternative model rooted in rural authenticity. Instead of isolating nomads in private villas, the community envisioned a setting where digital workers could live and work alongside local families, sharing spaces, routines, and values. This model resonated with the emerging concept of slow tourism, emphasizing longer stays, deeper engagement, and minimal environmental impact. As one informant stated: *"We don't want to depend on group tours anymore. It's better to have only 10–30 guests per month who stay longer, and whose spending goes directly to local households"* (INF-06, FGD, June 12, 2021). Another informant highlighted the potential based on past guest experiences: *"The rural digital nomadism idea is promising, as some of our homestay guests are digital workers, like a 3D designer for NASA, who said he was inspired while working in the peaceful and lush Kelecung"* (INF-11, FGD, June 12, 2021).

Building upon this validated concept and the resulting grassroots enthusiasm, the community and student's volunteers officially launched RADIANT Co-Space in April 2022 under the tagline *"Work Productively, Live Authentically."* The initiative marked a significant milestone, formalizing Kelecung's transformation from community-based tourism to a hybrid model that integrates digital productivity with cultural immersion. Radiant Co-Space was operationalized around three interconnected pillars:

- **Co-living spaces** were developed by adapting local homestays into shared arrangements that balanced privacy with integration into host families (Figure 4). Rooms were modest but clean, supported by reliable Internet, and complemented by communal kitchens, terraces, and gathering areas. Many nomads described their stay as a familial experience, with one reflecting, *"I came back here (Kelecung Village) because I am treated as family and I felt like I was coming home"* (INF-16, interview, August 10, 2023).



Figure 4. Local Co-Living Space in Kelecung Eco Village (Photo by Azka Sofyan, 2022)

- **Co-working spaces** were developed by converting a hydroponic training center and mushroom house into a semi-open hub surrounded by gardens, as shown in Figure 5. Built with local materials such as bamboo, black sand, and reclaimed wood, the space could accommodate around ten people across large tables, a high table, and floor seating. Guests often combined work with agricultural activities, such as harvesting vegetables or preparing meals, enjoying a tranquil rural setting that contrasts with Bali's urban nomad hubs, such as Canggu and Ubud.



Figure 5. Local Co-Working Space in Kelecung Eco Village (Photo by Azka Sofyan, 2022)

- **Authentic experiences** were another key element, with visitors invited to join daily life in the village, including farming, shopping at traditional markets, making offerings, and participating in ceremonies or family events (Figure 6). Additional activities, such as trekking, yoga, and spa services, were offered on a non-commercial basis to support household incomes.



Figure 6. Rural daily life reflecting the authentic experiences offered to visitors (Photo courtesy of Kelecung Eco Village, 2018)

To assess economic opportunities without triggering overtourism, RADIANT Co-Space developed a tiered market projection to set realistic targets. The Total Available Market (TAM) was based on a population of 11.1 million global digital nomads (MBO Partners, 2022). The Serviceable Available Market (SAM) is a reachable market based on active members on *nomads.com* listings, which is estimated at over 4 million. The Serviceable Obtainable Market (SOM), reflecting realistic capacity, was set at 360 people per year (10 homestays $\times$ 3 guests/month $\times$ 12 months). A stay limit of 15 days per month was imposed to ensure experience quality, host privacy, and cultural balance, while avoiding economic dependency.

Based on observations of digital nomads' spending patterns in Kelecung, they spent IDR 350,000–500,000 per day ($\approx$ IDR 15 million/month or USD 918), which was well below the Bali average of USD 1,793/month. This positioned Kelecung as a competitive small-scale rural digital nomad destination with a significant local economic impact, while sustaining sociocultural and environmental integrity. Moreover, the extended stays fostered by this model resonated with the principles of slow tourism, emphasizing deeper engagement, reduced mobility frequency, and lower ecological pressure compared with short-term mass-tourism visits. As one digital worker noted, *"Kelecung became my favorite place to work because it was peaceful and authentic. I was more productive here, even though the internet was slower compared with the city"* (INF-17, interview, July 2022).

Overall, Radiant Co-Space positioned Kelecung as a small but competitive rural digital-nomad destination. The model emphasizes inclusive local benefits, slower rhythms, and deeper engagement. These extended stays also align with slow tourism principles by reducing mobility frequency and lowering ecological pressure compared with mass tourism. These findings indicate that rural digital nomadism offers a diversification pathway for vulnerable tourism-dependent communities and illustrates how rural destinations can strategically position themselves within global debates on sustainable and slow tourism futures.

4.3.2 Human Dimensions: Community and Nomad Experiences

The development of rural digital nomadism in Kelecung Eco Village was not only a managerial initiative but also relied heavily on the active participation of the local community. Homestays were primarily managed by women who had already gained experience through previous edu-ecotourism activities, ensuring high standards of hospitality and cleanliness. To support these hosts, Radiant Co-Space focused on improving digital promotion, such as assisting homestay owners with professional photos for social media, since the inflow of digital nomads remained modest, averaging fewer than three nomads

per month. Youth involvement was also prioritized through targeted training, including a barista program and hydroponic produce packaging. The barista training lasted about three months, held irregularly one or two times, involving three young men, though only one continued working daily at the co-working space from its soft launch in August 2022. However, this barista eventually left in December to accept a hotel job in Seminyak, citing a more stable income and better opportunities:

“I only worked in the co-working space until December 2022 because I got a job offer in a hotel in Seminyak. I chose that because there were few customers here, and I felt guilty being paid while the project operated at a loss.” (INF-09, interview, January 2023).

Similar challenges were observed in the bouquet training program, which engaged two young women, but was discontinued due to limited marketing capacity and weak demand, leading them to return to urban jobs as the economy recovered post-pandemic.

From the perspective of digital nomads, Kelecong represented an alternative to Bali’s established urban hubs, such as Ubud and Canggu, appealing to those seeking peace, authenticity, and immersion in local life. Visitors, typically aged between 28 and 43 years, generally came from Western countries and worked as freelancers, creatives, or remote professionals. They mostly found the village through Airbnb listings, which consistently received positive reviews despite not ranking high on Google searches, thereby reducing initial doubts about the destination’s reliability. Nomads highlighted that the quiet rural environment allowed them to focus on their work while building emotional connections with their host families. As one guest explained, *“Kelecong became my favorite place to work because it was peaceful and authentic. I was more productive here, even though the internet was slower compared with the city”* (INF-17, interview, July 2022).

A homestay operator recalled feedback from a guest who worked as a 3D designer: *“Some of our homestay guests are digital workers, like a 3D designer for NASA, who said he was inspired while working in the peaceful and lush Kelecong”* (INF-11, FGD, June 12, 2021). These perspectives underline how authenticity and tranquility outweighed infrastructural shortcomings, even though Internet speeds of only 20–30 Mbps remained a limitation for some.

Beyond work-related experiences, sociocultural interactions between nomads and villagers added further value. Guests were regularly invited to participate in farming, market visits, firewood cooking, temple clean-ups (*gotong royong* or cooperative volunteering), and even local weddings. These engagements fostered intimacy and reciprocity, creating bonds that extended

beyond economic exchanges. Villagers often expressed a preference for long-staying individual guests, such as digital nomads, over short-stay groups, since interactions were deeper and more personal. As one villager noted,

“We prefer guests who stay longer in small numbers because we can communicate more intensely. We can share Balinese culture and involve them in community activities that they would not experience elsewhere in the world. At the same time, we also learn from their backgrounds and cultures” (INF-04, interview, August 2022).

Nevertheless, the small number of nomads meant that these advantages remained uneven and overshadowed by the reliance on student group tourism, which continued to be the primary source of revenue.

4.3.3 Rural Digital Nomadism as an Exploratory Sustainable Rejuvenation

Ultimately, the integration of rural tourism and digital nomadism offers a potential pathway out of stagnation, although it remains contingent and context-specific. Prior studies have highlighted slow tourism, co-working hubs, and authenticity as strategies to extend the TALC cycles (Lonardi et al., 2024; Situmorang, 2022). The findings from Kelecong reinforce these insights. Digital nomads in the village stayed for an average of 64 days, about six and a half times longer than conventional tourists, providing a steadier income, reducing seasonal vulnerability, and fostering stronger host–guest ties. Their extended stays embodied the slow tourism values of immersion, low-carbon mobility, and cultural reciprocity. Similar patterns are found in Valsugana, Italy, where co-working hubs lengthen stays and enable GSTC certification (Lonardi et al., 2024).

Simultaneously, Kelecong challenges dominant assumptions. While Amaral et al. (2024) suggest that digital nomads typically cluster in urban hubs, the findings show that authentic co-living, cultural immersion, and reliable Internet can make rural margins equally attractive. This reframes digital nomadism from a lifestyle trend into a strategic instrument for rural sustainability, capable of redistributing flows from saturated southern Bali to marginalized hinterlands. However, this promise is conditional: without proactive and capacity-aware planning, rural areas will risk forming “nomad bubbles,” straining fragile environments and replicating overtourism’s dynamics in miniature.

To explicitly address how this integration supports sustainable rejuvenation within the TALC framework, its impacts must be evaluated across three sustainable dimensions:

Ecological dimension. Rural digital nomadism generates both opportunities and risks for rural revitalization. Longer stays reduce travel frequency and

per capita emissions, while participation in farming and rituals strengthens environmental awareness. In Kelecung, activities such as rice planting and temple clean-ups reinforced stewardship values, consistent with the findings of Situmorang and Karthana (2021). However, extended stays also increase the demand for water, energy, and waste services, stretching rural infrastructure. As Suyadnya (2021) cautions, commodification and farmland transfers to external investors undermine ecological resilience. Anticipatory governance, through stay caps, carrying capacity assessments, and stricter enforcement of safeguards, is therefore essential to ensure that nomadism contributes to ecological rejuvenation rather than depletion.

Socio-cultural dimension. Rural digital nomadism fosters meaningful cultural exchange but also raises the risks of commodification and exclusion. In Kelecung, women-led homestays enabled visitors to participate in ceremonies, cooking, and farming experiences that villagers valued more than conventional short-stay tourism. This resonates with Lonardi et al. (2024), who argue that embedding visitors in community networks enhances cohesion. However, farmland transfers to outside investors have weakened community agency and agrarian resilience, confirming Suyadnya's (2021) concerns about gentrification. The potential for "nomad bubbles" further complicates these optimistic narratives. Cultural rejuvenation is possible only when reciprocity, authenticity, and local control are actively protected.

Economic dimension. Rural digital nomadism helps diversify household income but also exposes structural weaknesses in the economy. In Kelecung, nomads spend IDR 350,000–500,000 per day, with most of this expenditure going directly to the households. This supports Artini et al.'s (2020) argument that community-based models distribute benefits more equitably than do mass tourism. However, weak marketing, reliance on Airbnb, volunteer dependency, and limited access to capital constrain local economic growth. Youth migration to urban areas has further reduced local capacity. Although household-level advantages are tangible, scaling them requires professional management, institutional investment, and stronger policy support.

4.4 Enabling and Constraining Factors Shaping Rejuvenation Outcomes

While the integration of rural digital nomadism presents a viable rejuvenation pathway, its implementation at the grassroots level is highly complex. The trajectory of RADIANT Co-Space exposes several critical enabling and constraining factors that dictate whether a destination achieves sustainable rejuvenation or collapses under the pressures of the TALC.

4.4.1 Constraining Factors: Operational Fragility and Institutional Resistance

Despite its potential, the initiative encountered severe structural and practical barriers. Operationally, the project relied heavily on a small team of local tourism managers and university volunteers from Udayana University who lacked prior experience in the digital nomad market. Many were enthusiastic but lacked the experience and reference points to guide the implementation of digital nomad programs in rural settings. Comparable models were almost nonexistent, and references to Ubud's nomad ecosystem became less relevant after Hubud, the island's pioneering co-working space, closed during the pandemic. The market profile of Canggu, where nomads later concentrated, was also significantly different from that of Kelecung's rural character. These gaps made it difficult to identify and reach the right audience for the village's offerings. As one project member reflected: *"We had enthusiasm, but lacked the technical skills and references to understand how to sell the product to the right market. We also needed income to support ourselves after graduation"* (INF-15, interview, 2022). These inexperienced volunteers revealed the structural fragility of the project from its inception.

Another major barrier was the weak marketing strategy, which severely constrained the reach of Radiant Co-Space. The team attempted several approaches, including online collaborations, promotional posts on Facebook and LinkedIn, and informal outreach to digital communities, but none of this generated sustainable traction. Pandemic travel restrictions further complicated these efforts, leaving the village without a critical mass of nomads to sustain the initiatives. Marketing relied almost entirely on the Airbnb listing of Kelecung Eco Village, which had existed since 2016 but had never been optimized for nomad-oriented markets. This meant that only a few individual travelers discovered the destination, mostly through organic searches and word-of-mouth. As one team member recalled, *"We tried to promote and market it online, but we didn't know which channels or communities to target rightly"* (INF-14, interview, 2022). This lack of strategic targeting left co-living and co-working facilities underutilized, reinforcing the perception that demand was too small to justify the investment. The absence of strong branding or community-based promotion also limited visibility compared to better-known hubs such as Ubud and Canggu. To overcome this "digital divide," rural destinations cannot rely solely on passive platform listings.

This lack of strategic visibility was further compounded by a gap in product packaging. While the Kelecung Eco Village emphasized 'authenticity' as the primary appeal, qualitative feedback from a recent remote worker (INF-21, a remote worker from Hong Kong) revealed that professional nomads require more than just spontaneity. Evaluating the program in October 2025,

she noted a critical friction point: *“Most tourists would still prefer to have some kind of loose structure or idea of it beforehand... Clearly presenting options would help tourists make informed decisions”*. This suggests that professional nomads do not seek total spontaneity; they prefer ‘curated flexibility’, a clear framework of options that was missing from the village’s initial offer.

Financial constraints and team sustainability emerged as the most pressing issues, highlighting the vulnerability of completely self-funded grassroots initiatives. At the outset, the project was supported by university volunteers and local managers. However, without external capital, covering operational expenses became a personal burden for the project leadership. The employment of a local barista vividly illustrates this dynamic. Hired during the pandemic as a social safety net when he was unemployed, the barista was paid IDR 500,000 per month out of the Project Lead’s personal funds (INF-06). While this embodied the ethos of community support during a crisis, it could not compete with post-pandemic realities. As tourism recovered, the barista naturally left for a better salary with at least a minimum-wage job (IDR 2.6 million) in Seminyak, a decision dictated by economic necessity. Ultimately, this financial shortfall contradicts the core idea of ‘sustainable rejuvenation.’ When a self-funded model cannot provide a competitive living wage, it unintentionally reinforces the systemic inequality it aimed to solve, driving local youth back to urban enclaves.

Finally, the lack of consistent government support exacerbated these constraints. Attempts to secure international funding stalled after local village officials expressed skepticism and proved highly uncooperative. The Project Lead recalled: *“When we proposed international grants, some village officials questioned the feasibility and said it was too idealistic”* (INF-06, interview, 2023). This disconnect stranded the initiative without structural backing, proving that grassroots innovation cannot scale when local governance acts as a bottleneck rather than an enabler. As a cumulative result of these financial, operational, and institutional barriers, the village pragmatically refocused on its established edu-ecotourism model. The following subsection examines this decision and the village’s current standing.

4.4.2 Enabling Factors and Strategic Implications for Governance

By 2025 the village’s edu-ecotourism model had recovered strongly. It hosted more than 50 educational groups a year from Japan and Taiwan and earned about IDR 50 million per month in revenue, operating 15 homestays that accommodate more than 30 guests, with rooms priced at IDR 300,000 to 500,000 per night and a net margin of about IDR 150,000 to 200,000 per room. The benefits reached a wide part of the community, involving around 25 women, about 10

youth guides, and 7 daily workers, with roughly 40 residents benefiting directly and an estimated 80 percent of the 144 residents benefiting in some way. This work also drew external recognition. In 2024 the village was chosen as a national pilot for the Women-Friendly and Environmentally Conscious Tourism Village program run by the Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy of Indonesia, and its leader received the ROLES Foundation's Business Owner of the Year award. In 2025 it was named The Most Bali Impact-Tourism Village by MarkPlus Tourism and the Bali Tourism Board, after winning the People-Centric, Green Village, and Partnership Excellence categories. In 2026 it received a Silver Award in the Local Economic Benefit category at the Responsible Tourism Awards Southeast Asia.

The community refocused on the group market because it was more effective and more stable than the digital nomad experiment had been. This was a practical decision and not a change of vision. The village still wants to move toward tourism that values quality over quantity. It does not regard the current market as a weakness. Its goal is to gain greater economic benefit from authentic experiences, careful attention to carrying capacity, and a better visitor experience. Rural digital nomadism therefore remains the main direction for future development, to be revived and strengthened as capital, skilled people, and governance support become available.

This direction is tied to the community-managed communal forest. The forest began in 2022 with a grant from the Women Earth Alliance and was planted using the Miyawaki method together with agroforestry, starting with about 200 seedlings and training for 24 residents. By 2026 it held more than 1,000 trees across about 375 species, with a survival rate of about 95 percent. It conserves threatened endemic Balinese tree species, allows visitors to offset the carbon of their travel by planting trees, and produces harvests that benefit women and youth. The project leader plans to expand it toward decarbonization, carbon offsetting, and carbon trading that the community would own and manage.

Governance is the decisive factor that dictates whether a destination achieves sustainable rejuvenation or simply collapses under the pressures of the Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC) (Butler, 2024; Lonardi et al., 2024). As the indicators above show, Kelecung is navigating the Development stage of the TALC, with steady growth in its homestays, the communal forest, visitor numbers, and community participation. However, this grassroots momentum is fragile because the local government is unable to enforce existing regional regulations and mitigate overtourism symptoms. The systemic pressure of mass overtourism is already spilling over from Southern Bali, a region currently grappling with the Stagnation phase of the TALC (Sari et al., 2024; Salam et al., 2024). This is evidenced by the fact that external investors have

quietly purchased over 85% of Kelelung's coastal agricultural land, echoing widespread empirical concerns over gentrification, socio-economic inequality, and spatial displacement caused by unchecked land-use changes and foreign takeovers (Salam et al., 2024; Wibowo, 2024; Gumilang, 2024). Furthermore, local enforcement actively contradicts sustainability goals; the village currently allows disruptive ATV and dirt bike attractions on Kelelung Beach, directly threatening designated turtle conservation areas.

As of early 2026, the homestays are reserved mainly for group visitors, whose numbers stayed adequate and fairly stable through 2025. In 2026, however, the village recorded at least six group cancellations by May, which it attributed to rising airfares. Bookings through online travel agencies were not affected. All of the homestays are houses owned by local residents, so they qualify for the Pondok Wisata licence reserved for Indonesian citizens, unlike the foreign-owned villas that the new policy mainly targets. Under Ministry of Tourism Regulation No. 6 of 2025 on risk-based business licensing standards, accommodations listed on online travel agencies must hold a valid business licence or risk removal. The compliance deadline was initially set for 31 March 2026 and was subsequently extended, with the delisting of unlicensed properties beginning on 1 August 2026. As of May 2026, Kelelung's homestays were not yet formally licensed, so completing this registration will be needed to keep them visible on these platforms.

To prevent Kelelung from fast-tracking into the Decline stage of the TALC, theoretical policy making is not the answer; strict enforcement and targeted financial reallocation are. The village government must strictly enforce existing regional conservation by utilizing local traditional security (*pecalang*) to ban disruptive beach attractions and tighten land-use regulations on the ground to halt exploitative land sales. Economically, the village urgently needs to reallocate its formal village funds toward concrete tourism infrastructure or a capacity-building program. Instead of generic spending, these funds must be used transparently to support the development of rural digital nomadism, such as providing reliable public Wi-Fi networks, subsidizing high-speed internet connections for local homestays, constructing dedicated co-working spaces, and offering financial incentives for local youth to manage digital platforms or establish small enterprises.

Furthermore, because grassroots initiatives often lack initial capital, transitioning into a sustainable digital nomad destination requires a strategic intervention through a government-backed pilot project. Kelelung Eco Village and the local government can adopt the SECReTOUR Project funded by the European Union. This project successfully empowers marginalized rural communities in Idrija (Slovenia) by providing structured seed funding and

capacity-building to develop sustainable, heritage-based cultural tourism for remote workers (Fresa, 2024). Replicating this framework in Indonesia must be driven by a clear 'Pentahelix' synergy: the Government acts as the initiator and catalyst; Academia, like Udayana University where the project's original concept was born, provides mentoring and capacity building; the local community, through the tourism awareness group (*Pokdarwis*), manages daily operations; the Business sector supplies essential funding and grants; and the Media amplifies strategic promotion.

Addressing the marketing "digital divide" means the village must stop relying exclusively on Airbnb. While Airbnb is highly effective for passively renting rooms, its format fails to communicate the cultural narrative (storynomics) and cannot establish Kelecung's distinct identity as a rural digital nomad destination. Therefore, the village must optimize its own dedicated website, managed by local youth who are compensated through the aforementioned village funds. To build their capacity, these young administrators should be strongly encouraged to participate in free start-up incubators and fellowships, such as the beVisioneers Fellowship, Matangi Bali Initiative, or Young Entrepreneur Academy (YEA) Indonesia, to acquire advanced digital marketing skills and access early-stage seed funding. Armed with this expertise, the marketing strategy can shift from passive listings to proactive outreach, such as directly engaging with and promoting the village within established digital nomad community groups on Facebook.

Finally, the rural nomad experience itself must be designed around the concept of 'curated flexibility'. Because remote workers still need to adhere to professional work routines, the desire for cultural spontaneity must be balanced with predictable community schedules. For instance, cultural immersion can be seamlessly synchronized with the villagers' daily rhythms, allowing nomads to join locals in feeding cattle at dawn and dusk, or participating in morning farming activities before logging online for their workday. Additionally, the *Pokdarwis* can offer supplementary, on-demand paid activities, such as sea fishing or canoeing. This approach not only provides the structured predictability that professionals require but also creates direct micro-revenue streams for the local community, ensuring the economic sustainability of the initiative.

5. Conclusion

This study demonstrates that overtourism in Bali has accelerated the transition of the Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC) toward stagnation and potential decline, underscoring that the problem lies less in visitor numbers than in governance fragility, ecological overshoot, and sociocultural commodification (Butler & Dodds, 2022; Milano et al., 2024). The Kelecung Eco Village case provides

rare longitudinal evidence from the Global South that rural digital nomadism can act as a conditional driver of rejuvenation. By integrating co-living, co-working, and authentic rural experiences, such an initiative could diversify household economies, extend visitor stays, and reposition peripheral destinations within global tourism flows, while aligning with the slow tourism values of immersion, reciprocity, and ecological restraint (Lonardi et al., 2024; Situmorang, 2022). However, the findings also reveal persistent vulnerabilities, including youth outmigration, limited financial sustainability, and the risk of gentrification, which highlight the need for anticipatory governance and sustained community engagement (Håkansson & Bejaković, 2023; Wibowo, 2024).

Relative to prior scholarship, this study both confirms and challenges existing knowledge. This confirms evidence from European and Mediterranean cases that digital nomadism can extend destination life cycles by stabilizing incomes and lengthening stays (Amaral et al., 2024; Lonardi et al., 2024), while also resonating with studies that underscore the role of digital infrastructure and collaborative governance in rural revitalization (Bosworth et al., 2023; Serpa et al., 2024). Simultaneously, it challenges narratives from Bali's urban hubs, such as Canggu, where nomadism has fueled exclusion and gentrification (Henkens, 2025; Wibowo, 2024). Unlike investor-driven enclaves, Kelecong illustrates how community-based initiatives can embed nomads into everyday life and mitigate socio-spatial segregation in Bali. Moreover, while rural limitations, such as modest infrastructure and slower Internet, are often treated as weaknesses (Zhou et al., 2024), this study suggests that they can be reframed as assets within the slow tourism paradigm, offering authenticity, tranquility, and a counterbalance to urban saturation.

Theoretically, this study extends the TALC framework to Global South contexts, which remain underrepresented in the literature. The findings highlight that digital nomadism can support sustainability only when nomads are actively embedded in local community structures rather than remaining in isolated expatriate enclaves (Bosworth et al., 2023; Serpa et al., 2024). This perspective reflects what this study terms *participatory nomadism*, in which nomads are integrated into community life rather than existing in exclusive bubbles. This framing aligns with broader debates on community-driven approaches to tourism and reinforces the connection between digital nomadism and slow tourism by demonstrating that rejuvenation is not automatic but highly contingent on governance capacity, community innovation, and ecological stewardship. In doing so, the study validates and complicates assumptions drawn from Global North experiences while revealing the distinctive conditions shaping tourism futures in the Global South.

Practically, the Kelecong case shows that grassroots innovation stays fragile without structural support. Community-driven efforts can preserve cultural authenticity, but they remain vulnerable when capital and institutional backing are missing. Because self-funded volunteerism could not yet sustain competitive living wages for local youth, the village pragmatically refocused on its established edu-ecotourism model, which proved more effective and more stable in the near term. This was a strategic decision, and the village still treats rural digital nomadism as its main direction for future development, to be revived as capital, skilled people, and governance support become available. The wider lesson is that without robust institutional backing, external funding, and youth retention, rural digital nomadism cannot mature and may reproduce the urban outmigration and inequality it set out to solve (Henkens, 2025; Yang, 2024).

Despite these contributions, this study acknowledges limitations. The qualitative sample was heavily weighted toward program organizers and local stakeholders, with digital nomad informants representing 32% of the total interviewees. While this was mitigated by triangulating findings with a broader feasibility survey of 85 respondents, the small number of in-depth nomad interviews reflects the nascent and exploratory stage of the initiative. Second, as a single-case study focused on Kelecong Eco Village, the findings may have limited generalizability to other rural contexts with different governance structures or cultural dynamics. These constraints highlight the need for further validation through broader empirical lenses.

For future research, comparative and multisite studies across Bali and other Global South destinations are recommended to assess the transferability of these findings. Longitudinal mixed-methods approaches can provide deeper insights into the long-term social, cultural, and ecological implications of rural digital nomadism, including the carbon paradox of high-mobility lifestyles (Yang, 2024) and the dynamics of gender and youth participation (Mao & Xu, 2024). Evaluating policy frameworks, particularly digital nomad visa schemes, is essential to determine whether they can redistribute flows and enhance competitiveness without replicating the harms of overtourism (Serpa et al., 2024).

Ultimately, this study argues that governance is the decisive factor shaping a destination's trajectory within the Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC). While overtourism exposes the exhaustion of a growth-dependent paradigm, rural digital nomadism offers a promising but conditional pathway for rejuvenation. The Kelecong experience proves that rejuvenation is never an automatic or organic outcome. Without formal policy support and consistent institutional backing, grassroots innovations stay vulnerable to the systemic pressures of mass overtourism pushing outward from urban enclaves. By articulating the concept of participatory nomadism, this study demonstrates that advancing

sustainable tourism futures in the Global South depends on anchoring community resilience within a concrete legal and financial framework.

Acknowledgements

The author is sincerely grateful to the community of Kelecong Eco Village for their hospitality and openness, and for generously sharing their time, knowledge, and experiences throughout this research. The author also thanks the RADIANT Co-Space team for their collaboration and support during fieldwork and data collection. This study would not have been possible without the trust and cooperation of the village's residents and partners, and the author remains committed to ensuring that the findings contribute meaningfully to their ongoing efforts in sustainable and community-based tourism.

Use of Generative AI

The author used OpenAI's ChatGPT for language checking and proofreading during manuscript preparation. No figures were generated using AI. All AI-assisted output was reviewed and verified by the author, who takes full responsibility for the manuscript.

Bibliography

- Adiputra, I. B. B., Hartati, R. S., & Ariastina, W. G. (2018). Estimasi Emisi Gas Rumah Kaca (GRK) Terhadap Konsumsi Energi di Provinsi Bali. *Majalah Ilmiah Teknologi Elektro*, 17(3), 359. <https://doi.org/10.24843/MITE.2018.v17i03.P09>
- Amaral, M., Albino, S., & Rodrigues, A. I. (2024). The potential of digital nomadism for tourism development in Alentejo. *Journal of Tourism & Development*, 163-188 Páginas. <https://doi.org/10.34624/RTD.V47I0.38814>
- Anom, I. P., Suryasih, I. A., Nugroho, S., & Mahagangga, I. G. A. O. (2017). Turismemorfosis: Tahapan selama seratus tahun perkembangan dan prediksi pariwisata Bali. *Jurnal Kajian Bali (Journal of Bali Studies)*, 7(2), 59–80. <https://doi.org/10.24843/JKB.2017.v07.i02.p04>
- Antara, M., & Sumarniasih, M. S. (2024). Structure Analysis and Growth Trends the Economy of Bali Province-Indonesia Post COVID-19 Pandemic. *Asian Journal of Agricultural Extension, Economics & Sociology*, 42(5), 82–98. <https://doi.org/10.9734/ajaees/2024/v42i52416>
- Artini, N. W. P., Antara, M., Susrusa, I. K. B., & Ambarawati, I. G. A. A. (2020). Impact of tourism on development in Bali Province. *International Journal of Life Sciences*, 4(2), 19. <https://doi.org/10.29332/ijls.v4n2.429>

- Back, A., Lundmark, L., & Zachrisson, A. (2025). Bridging (over)tourism geographies: Proposing a systems approach in overtourism research. *Tourism Geographies*, 27(2), 293–312. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2025.2502507>
- Bali Partnership. (2019). *Bali Partnership Platform*. Bali Partnership. https://www.balipartnership.org/en_gb/about/
- Bali Provincial Government. (2021, May 24). Wagub Cok Ace Jabarkan Langkah Pemprov Untuk Pulihkan Ekonomi Pasca Pandemi Covid-19 di Bali. *Bali Provincial Government*. <https://sensusadat.baliprov.go.id/berita/wagub-cok-ace-jabarkan-langkah-pemprov-untuk-pulihkan-ekonomi-pasca-pandemi-covid-19-di-bali>
- Blázquez-Salom, M., Cladera, M., & Sard, M. (2023). Identifying the sustainability indicators of overtourism and undertourism in Majorca. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 31(7), 1694–1718. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2021.1942478>
- Boháč, A., & Drápela, E. (2022). Overtourism Hotspots: Both a Threat and Opportunity for Rural Tourism. *European Countryside*, 14(1), 157–179. <https://doi.org/10.2478/euco-2022-0009>
- Bosworth, G., Whalley, J., Fuzi, A., Merrell, I., Chapman, P., & Russell, E. (2023). Rural co-working: New network spaces and new opportunities for a smart countryside. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 97, 550–559. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrurstud.2023.01.003>
- Bozzi, A. (2024). Digital nomadism from the perspective of places and mobilities: A literature review. *European Transport Research Review*, 16(1), 50. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12544-024-00663-z>
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2019). Reflecting on reflexive thematic analysis. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise and Health*, 11(4), 589–597. <https://doi.org/10.1080/2159676X.2019.1628806>
- Butler, R. (1980). The Concept of a Tourist Area Cycle of Evolution: Implications for Management of Resources. *Canadian Geographer / Le Géographe canadien*, 24 (1): 5-12. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1541-0064.1980.tb00970.x>
- Butler, R. (2024). Tourism destination development: The tourism area life cycle model. *Tourism Geographies*, 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2024.2325932>
- Butler, R., & Dodds, R. (2022). Overcoming overtourism: A review of failure. *Tourism Review*, 77(1), 35–53. <https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-04-2021-0215>
- Cook, D. (2023). What is a digital nomad? Definition and taxonomy in the era of mainstream remote work. *World Leisure Journal*, 65(2), 256–275. <https://doi.org/10.1080/16078055.2023.2190608>
- Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V. L. P. (2018). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (Third edition). Sage.

- Detik Bali. (2024, December 30). 226 WNA Terlibat Tindak Pidana di Bali Sepanjang Tahun, Terbanyak Asal A. *Detikbali.Com*. <https://www.detik.com/bali/hukum-dan-kriminal/d-7710356/226-wna-terlibat-tindak-pidana-di-bali-sepanjang-tahun-terbanyak-asal-a>
- Detik Bali. (2025, January 2). Imigrasi Denpasar Catat 138 Pelanggaran, Termasuk 15 Kasus Prostitusi Online. *Detikbali.Com*. <https://www.detik.com/bali/hukum-dan-kriminal/d-7713915/imigrasi-denpasar-catat-138-pelanggaran-termasuk-15-kasus-prostitusi-online>
- Diop, K. A. S., & Liu, E. (2020). Categorization of case in case study research method: new approach. *Knowledge and Performance Management*, 4(1), 1–14. [https://doi.org/10.21511/kpm.04\(1\).2020.01](https://doi.org/10.21511/kpm.04(1).2020.01)
- Diwanda, A. A., Setiawan, I. N., & Setiawan, W. (2021). Peramalan Kebutuhan Energi Listrik Jangka Panjang di Provinsi Bali Rentang Tahun 2020 – 2030 Menggunakan Neural Network. *Jurnal SPEKTRUM*, 8(2), 99. <https://doi.org/10.24843/SPEKTRUM.2021.v08.i02.p12>
- Drápela, E., Pánek, J., Boháč, A., & Böhm, H. (2025). Overtourism in the Bohemian Paradise UNESCO Global Geopark: Identifying Affected Sites Through Participatory Mapping. *Geoheritage*, 17(2), 53. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12371-025-01088-3>
- Fresa, A. (2024). *Cultural tourism: bridging heritage and places, learning and promoting sustainable practices*. <https://www.digitalmeetsculture.net/wp-content/uploads/2024/12/Cultural-tourism.-Bridging-heritage-and-places-learning-and-promoting-sustainable-proactices-AF.pdf>
- Gede, I. G. K., Marhaeni, K. E., Putrana, I. W., & Sanjiwani, I. G. A. M. (2021). A Model of Community-Based Development in Digital Nomad Tourism in Intaran Village Bali. *Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research*. International Conference on Applied Science and Technology on Social Science (ICAST-SS 2020), Padang, Indonesia. <https://doi.org/10.2991/assehr.k.210424.073>
- Global Institute for Tomorrow. (2023, June). *Creating a Circular Plastic Economy for Bali, Indonesia*. Global Institute for Tomorrow. https://global-inst.com/projects/2023_GLP_Executive_Summary.pdf
- Gorda, A. A. A. N. S. R., Sudharma, K. J. A., & Sutrisni, K. E. (2023). Melukat Ritual for Commercialization and Protection Toward Cultural Tourism in Bali. In I. N. P. Budiarta, A. Saptomo, P. Verhezen, S. H. Idris, C. Angela Soares, E. Lisdiyono, F. Santiago, E. Pratomo, A. Sudiro, & A. F. Susanto (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 3rd International Conference on Business Law and Local Wisdom in Tourism (ICBLT 2022)* (pp. 618–629). Atlantis Press SARL. https://doi.org/10.2991/978-2-494069-93-0_73

- Gumilang, G. P. (2024). *Navigating Coexistence: A Study of Local Communities and Digital Nomad's Perspectives on Digital Nomadism in Bali* [Erasmus Mundus Joint Master's Degree]. https://repositorio.iscte-iul.pt/bitstream/10071/32768/1/master_gieshania_pitaloka_gumilang.pdf
- Håkansson, P. G., & Bejaković, P. (2023). Can digital nomads solve the problem of tourist economy? The case of Croatian islands. *Eastern Journal of European Studies*, 14(Special Issue), 116–134. <https://doi.org/10.47743/ejes-2023-SI07>
- Handayani, C. I. M., Rahmaeni, N. K. D., Mustafa, F., & Billah, M. (2021a). *Status Daya Dukung Pangan Pulau Bali*. P3E Bali Nusra. <http://ppebalinusra.menlhk.go.id/wp-content/uploads/2022/11/Dokumen-Status-Pangan-Pulau-Bali-2021.pdf>
- Handayani, C. I. M., Rahmaeni, N. K. D., Mustafa, F., & Billah, M. (2021b, December 9). *Status Daya Dukung Air Pulau Bali*. Pusat Pengendalian Pembangunan Ekoregion Bali dan Nusa Tenggara (P3E Bali Nusra). <http://ppebalinusra.menlhk.go.id/wp-content/uploads/2022/11/Dokumen-Status-Air-Pulau-Bali-2021.pdf>
- Hannonen, O. (2024). Emergent geographies of digital nomadism: Conceptual framing, insights and implications for tourism. *Tourism Geographies*, 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2023.2299845>
- Hastuti, A. W., Nagai, M., Ismail, N. P., Priyono, B., Suniada, K. I., & Wijaya, A. (2024). Spatiotemporal analysis of shoreline change trends and adaptation in Bali Province, Indonesia. *Regional Studies in Marine Science*, 76, 103598. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rsma.2024.103598>
- Henkens, J. H. D. (2025). Digital nomadism from a life course perspective. *Advances in Life Course Research*, 64, 100673. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.alcr.2025.100673>
- Huang, T.-Y. (Tim), Chen, J. S., & Ramos, W. D. (2023). Slow tourism: The relationship between tourists' slow food experiences and their quality of life. *Tourism Review*, 78(1), 159–176. <https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-02-2022-0053>
- Indrawan, I. N. P., Widiatmaka, & Trisasongko, B. H. (2022). Land use land cover change in Badung Regency, Bali. *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science*, 950(1), 012096. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/950/1/012096>
- Jiwasiddi, A., Schlagwein, D., Cahalane, M., Cecez-Kecmanovic, D., Leong, C., & Ractham, P. (2024). Digital nomadism as a new part of the visitor economy: The case of the “digital nomad capital” Chiang Mai, Thailand. *Information Systems Journal*, 34(5), 1493–1535. <https://doi.org/10.1111/isj.12496>

- Kembali Becik. (2023). *Counting the Carbon Footprint of Your Bali Getaway*. Kembali Becik.
- Klarin, A., Park, E., Xiao, Q., & Kim, S. (2023). Time to transform the way we travel?: A conceptual framework for slow tourism and travel research. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 46, 101100. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2023.101100>
- Kusumawati, N. L. P. D., Rahayuningsih, D. L., Prabawa, P. D., Putra, I. D. G. A., Prayasta, I. G. H., Wijaya, G. H., & Purwa, T. (2024). *Potensi Pertanian Provinsi Bali Menuju Pertanian Berkelanjutan*. BPS Bali. <https://shorturl.at/ELAt4>
- Lane, B., Kastenholz, E., & Carneiro, M. J. (2022). Rural Tourism and Sustainability: A Special Issue, Review and Update for the Opening Years of the Twenty-First Century. *Sustainability*, 14(10), 6070. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su14106070>
- Lonardi, S., Buffa, F., & Martini, U. (2024). Digital nomadism and tourism development: Stakeholders' perceptions of an inner area. *Sinergie Italian Journal of Management*, 42(2), 91–107. <https://doi.org/10.7433/s124.2024.05>
- Mao, Q., & Xu, S. (2024). How Digital Nomad Communities Can Empower Rural Revitalisation. *Advances in Economics, Management and Political Sciences*, 105(1), 158–165. <https://doi.org/10.54254/2754-1169/105/20241997>
- MBO Partners. (2022). *The Aspirations and Reality for Digital Nomads..*
- Milano, C., Novelli, M., & Russo, A. P. (2024). Anti-tourism activism and the inconvenient truths about mass tourism, touristification and overtourism. *Tourism Geographies*, 26(8), 1313–1337. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2024.2391388>
- Narottama, N. (2016). Nyepi Holiday Package: Between Commercialization, Commodification and Revolting to Hegemony. *E-Journal of Tourism*. <https://doi.org/10.24922/eot.v3i1.20839>
- Negara, I. G. N. M. N., Budhi, M. K. S., Saskara, I. A. N., & Yasa, I. G. W. M. (2024). Analysis of the Impact of Changes in Economic Structure on the Welfare of the Community of Bali Province. *International Research Journal of Economics and Management Studies*, 3(9), 323–331. <https://doi.org/10.56472/25835238/IRJEMS-V3I9P136>
- Patton, M. Q. (2015). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods: Integrating theory and practice (4th ed.)*. SAGE.
- Pradnyadari, I. G. A., & Putra, H. S. A.-. (2025). From Ritual to Commercial: Commodification Barong Performing Art as a Form of Balinese People Negotiation towards Tourism. *International Journal of Research Publication and Reviews*, 4(2), 4.

- Putra, I. N. D., & Hitchcock, M. (2006). The Bali bombs and the tourism development cycle. *Progress in Development Studies*, 6(2), 157–166. <https://doi.org/10.1191/1464993406ps134oa>
- Råbu, M., & Binder, P.-E. (2025). The Single Case Study is a Crucial Bridge between Research and Practice. *Journal of Contemporary Psychotherapy*, 55(2), 119–126. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10879-024-09658-2>
- Rimba, A. B., Atmaja, T., Mohan, G., Chapagain, S. K., Arumansawang, A., Payus, C., & Fukushima, K. (2020). Identifying Land Use and Land Cover (LULC) Change from 2000 to 2025 Driven By Tourism Growth: A Case Study in Bali. *The International Archives of the Photogrammetry, Remote Sensing and Spatial Information Sciences*, XLIII-B3-2020, 1621–1627. <https://doi.org/10.5194/isprs-archives-XLIII-B3-2020-1621-2020>
- Salam, R., Samudra, A. A., Suradika, A., & Sumada, I. M. (2024). Future policy implementation to balance growth and sustainability: Managing the impact of mass tourism in Bali. *Journal of Infrastructure, Policy and Development*, 8(9), 7927. <https://doi.org/10.24294/jipd.v8i9.7927>
- Sari, W. P., Pandrianto, N., Azeharie, S., Sukendro, G. G., & Irena, L. (2024). The Existence of Tourism and Local Culture: A Study of the TALC Tourism Model in Bali. *Revista de Gestão Social e Ambiental*, 18(11), e09357. <https://doi.org/10.24857/rgsa.v18n11-051>
- Serpa, S., Sá, M. J., & Lalanda Gonçalves, R. (2024). Attraction policies for digital nomads: Some emerging issues. *Frontiers in Human Dynamics*, 6. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fhumd.2024.1435961>
- Situmorang, F. (2022). *Tourism Recovery Based on Digital Nomadism Post-COVID 19 in Ubud Tourism Area Bali*. Syiah Kuala University Press. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/361453835_Tourism_Recovery_Based_on_Digital_Nomadism_Post-COVID_19_in_Ubud_Tourism_Area_Bali
- Situmorang, F., & Karthana, E. T. (2021). Redesign Rural Tourism Product Based Digital Nomadism Postpandemic COVID-19 in Bali. *Jurnal Kepariwisata: Destinasi, Hospitalitas Dan Perjalanan*, 5(2), 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.34013/jk.v5i2.513>
- Situmorang, F., & Nugroho, S. (2020). Peran Kaum Milenial sebagai Cross-Cutting Interpreters dalam Pengembangan Desa Wisata Pelaga Kabupaten Badung Bali. *JURNAL DESTINASI PARIWISATA*, 8(1), 1. <https://doi.org/10.24843/JDEPAR.2020.v08.i01.p01>
- Sutama, I. N., & Suryawan, I. G. B. (2023). Policy to Limit the Transfer of Functions Agricultural Land. In I. N. P. Budiarta, A. Saptomo, P. Verhezen, S. H. Idris, C. Angela Soares, E. Lisdiyono, F. Santiago, E. Pratomo, A. Sudiro, & A. F. Susanto (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 3rd International Conference on*

- Business Law and Local Wisdom in Tourism (ICBLT 2022)* (pp. 653–661). Atlantis Press SARL. https://doi.org/10.2991/978-2-494069-93-0_77
- Suyadnya, I. W. (2021). Tourism Gentrification in Bali, Indonesia: A Wake-up Call for Overtourism. *Masyarakat, Jurnal Sosiologi*, 26(2). <https://doi.org/10.7454/MJS.v26i2.12930>
- Tjampan, K. M., Lavenia, V., Stirman, K. R., Sofyan, M. A. Z., Marindra, A. P., & Situmorang, F. (2021). RADIANT (Rural Digital Nomad Destination) Marketing Campaign. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/400906225_RADIANT_Rural_Digital_Nomad_Destination_Marketing_Campaign
- Wibowo, T. O. (2024). Dynamic of Migration lifestyle and settlement of nomad in Bali, Indonesia. *Indonesian Journal of Geography*, 56(2). <https://doi.org/10.22146/ijg.90856>
- Yahya, H. (2021, February 10). *Bangkit Melawan Pandemi, Menuju Bali Era Baru: Capaian Makro Ekonomi Provinsi Bali Tahun 2020*. <https://bulelengkab.go.id/informasi/download/bahan-laporan-indikator-makro-16.pdf>
- Yamamoto, E. M. S., Sayama, T., & Takara, K. (2021). Impact of Rapid Tourism Growth on Water Scarcity in Bali, Indonesia. *Indonesian Journal of Limnology*, 2(1), 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.51264/inajl.v2i1.14>
- Yang, Y. (2024). Urban Sustainability in the Age of Digital Nomads—Diverse Group Impacts. *Advances in Economics, Management and Political Sciences*, 112(1), 70–74. <https://doi.org/10.54254/2754-1169/112/20242277>
- Yin, R. K. (2018). *Case study research and applications: Design and methods* (sixth edition). SAGE.
- Zhou, L., Buhalis, D., Fan, D. X. F., Ladkin, A., & Lian, X. (2024). Attracting digital nomads: Smart destination strategies, innovation and competitiveness. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 31, 100850. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2023.100850>

Author Profile

Fransisco Situmorang is an independent tourism researcher, consultant, and practitioner with over five years of experience in sustainable tourism, consultancy, and project management. He currently serves as a Destination Manager at The TripGuru and a project-based consultant for Komaling Consulting, Indonesia. His research interests include rural tourism, digital nomadism, sustainability, and overtourism. He authored the award-winning book *Tourism Recovery Based on Digital Nomadism Post-COVID 19 in Ubud Tourism Area Bali* (Syiah Kuala University Press, 2022). Email: fransisco@komalingconsulting.id ; ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9408-7220>