The Influence of Local Residents’ Perceptions on Their Support for Volunteer Tourism Projects

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Degree Program in Tourism
Thesis
May, 2012
Volunteer tourism is considered as an innovative form of sustainable community development. The pure intention of voluntourists when participating in voluntourism is believed to bring more benefits to the host community. However, whether local people see a difference or have a preference for volunteer tourism is questionable. Therefore, understanding local perceptions is necessary to evaluate the implementation of voluntourism projects in the community. The researchers of this study were involved in several volunteer projects across our home country. The same personal interest in this field has brought the researchers together to implement this study.

Numerous practices and theories about residents' perceptions were examined in the study including Doxey Irridex Model and Social Exchange Theory. Based on these theories, a conceptual framework of residents' perceptions towards volunteer tourism in their community was built. The use of framework is to guide the collection as well as the analysis of the primary data.

The town which was chosen in the research was Sapa- mountainous area in Vietnam. Sapa has great potential of tourism development but the residents still suffer from poverty and illiteracy. In order to carry out the research, 160 questionnaires were sent to Sapa inhabitants between December 2011 and February 2012. 107 responses were received of which 12 were uncompleted. The result then was analysed with SPSS statistic software version 19.

The findings showed that the majority of respondents agreed with the positive impacts of voluntourism in their community but there were two major notices in the survey. The first one was about the level of economic dependency and the second was the residential characteristics. Furthermore, while respondents were supportive with voluntourism activities, they were reluctant to participate in the planning process. In order to achieve the goal of sustainability development, local policy makers and tour operators need to ensure that the varied voices of the community should be taken care of.

Key Words: volunteer tourism, voluntourism, community-based tourism, sustainable development, residents' perceptions, social exchange theory.
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1 Introduction

This chapter briefly outlines the main sections of the thesis. Firstly, background information is to provide the readers a general view on the thesis. Secondly, the research problem is raised. In this part, hypotheses are raised for later examination. Then, the readers are led to the core of the study by the aims and objectives of the research. Successively, justification of the study and research methodology are discussed respectively. The following part describes some key words of the thesis. Finally, the outline of the thesis is given.

1.1 Background of the study

Over the decades, tourism has proved its significant role in the economic development of many countries and states worldwide. After the years of global crises, the year 2010 witnessed a strong recover of international tourists which was raised by 7% crossing 940 million, following the 4% decline in 2009 and generated a new record of receipts of USD919 billion. The contribution of tourism to economic activity was valued at 5% of the world’s GDP at over USD1 trillion which placed tourism to be the world’s largest and fastest growing economic sectors (World Tourism Organization 2010, 10-11). Also according to the World Tourism Organization, this recovery was primarily driven by emerging economies. This has really meant that many developing countries have taken the advantages of tourism for being the key driver of the economic change. Indeed, as travelling towards developing countries and remote areas has become a trend for tourists, earnings from tourism represents the primary source of income for a vast majority of these states.

However, the biggest concern of the strong growth of tourism in the developing regions is the matter of sustainability. The majority of the world’s tourists are from industrialized countries. The affluent tourist-generating countries are hence the determination of the nature and the scale of tourism (Mowforth & Munt 2009, 54). The dependency on foreign demand has placed the less-developed countries in uncertainty. Additionally, the negative impact of tourism on the local community is undeniable. Srisang (1992, in Mowforth & Munt 2009, 55) describes the consequences of Third World tourism as following:

Tourism, especially Third World Tourism, as it is practiced today, does not benefit the majority of people. Instead it exploits them, pollutes the environment, destroys the ecosystem, bastardises the culture, robs people of their traditional values and ways of life and subjugates women and children in the abject slavery of prostitution.

Acknowledging the back side of tourism, many efforts have been made in order to foster tourism as a tool for truly local development and poverty alleviation. The Global Sustainable
Tourism states the foremost core objective for the minimum requirements of tourism was maximizing tourism’s benefits to local communities (World Tourism Organization 2010, 25).

Emerging as the new horizon of tourism, volunteer tourism has been believed to meet this priority. Many states are starting to develop voluntourism programmes in their community. Mintel (2005, in TRAM 2008, 45) indicates that Asia is the most used destination of volunteer projects at approximately of 40%. Also, there are around of 1.6 million trips a year for volunteering purpose which counts about 0.2% of international tourism activity. A survey conducted for the World Youth Student Educational Travel Confederation in 2007 discovered that the travel motivation of young people for 2002 and 2007 had experienced a significant growth of traveling to “help people and make contribution to the destination” (TRAM 2008, 46-48). Singh T.V and Singh S (2004, 183) explain voluntourism “as being more of a conscientious practice of righteous tourism - one that comes closest to utopia. At best, it may be regarded as an altruistic form of tourism, which has the capacity to uphold the highest ideals intrinsically interwoven in the tourism phenomenon”.

As such, engagement appeared as the core component of volunteer tourism since the basis of volunteer tourism has been formed on the direct interactive between hosts and guests (Alexander & Bakir 2011, 14). According to Singh S. and Singh T.V. (2004, 192), symbiosis between visitors and hosts is the underlying principle of volunteer tourism. Thus, the involvement of residents in voluntourism practices which is the key driver of the project’s success cannot be underestimated. The possible negative impact of voluntourism at the foremost comes from a neglect of local’s desires caused by the lack of local involvement. Evaluating local needs and perceptions is therefore the driving force in order to reach to the truly altruistic volunteer tourism.

Study on residents’ attitudes and perceptions to tourism in general had received attention by a great numbers of researchers (Williams & Lawson 2001, Kayat 2002, Andereck et al. 2005, Nunkoo & Ramkissoon 2011a&b, Brida, Osti & Barquet, 2011). Getz (1994, in Cordero 2007, 36) explains the importance of understanding residents’ perceptions in identifying and measuring the impacts of tourism. William and Lawson (2001, 270-271) also emphasize the value of residents’ perceptions to tourism as for the enhancement of life quality of the host community. As long as it is known the reasons why residents support or oppose the industry, it will help planners to select those alternatives which can minimize negative social impacts and maximize support for such developments. As a result, by this way only the goal of sustainable tourism can be reached.

This study is devoted to the residents’ perceptions toward volunteer tourism. Volunteer tourism is believed as a great solution of personal development and possesses a positive direct
impact on economic, social, nature, and sustainability (Wearing 2001). Nonetheless, whether local people see a difference or have a preference for volunteer tourism and if a volunteer is just another word attached to the description which in many cases has not being appreciated by the host community is a controversial topic. This issue emerges as an essential part of the research problem in this study following the next section.

1.2 Research problem and hypotheses

The fundamental question of the success of voluntourism is the ability of voluntourism to build community development while avoiding incompatibility between volunteer projects and local people. If the projects fail to satisfy community needs, the attitude of local people may change and become negative. It is therefore very important to search for local support by identifying their expectations to these projects. Hence the problem addressed in the research is:

*How can the residents’ perceptions influence their support for voluntourism projects in their community?*

Approaching the problem, following four hypotheses are introduced.

As Ap (1992, in Juan, Linda & Michela 2011, 363) states in the “social exchange theory”:

> Residents evaluate tourism in terms of social exchange, that is, evaluate it in terms of expected benefits or costs obtained in return for the services they supply. Hence, it is assumed host resident actors seek tourism development for their community in order to satisfy their economic, social, and psychological needs and to improve the community’s well-being.

In other words, when the host community notices that the benefit is higher than the cost, they will have positive attitude and support for tourism activities which occur in their area. Discovering whether the local community receives any benefits from voluntourism will help researchers to figure out their cooperation. Therefore, the first hypothesis is raised below:

**H1: Residents who perceive the benefits from voluntourism will tend to support its activities.**

In order to solve the problem, two major subjects will be investigated. The first subject is about the economic dependency. The reason is that tourism definitely has an impact on the income, employment, investment and development of the destination. According to Caneday and Zeiger (1991, in Bishnu & Pam 2009, 193), depending on tourism economically can influence residents’ attitude towards tourism. One of the purposes of voluntourism is to develop economy of local community. Thus, the second hypothesis is developed to examine whether economic dependency affect their support for voluntourism programme in the town.
H2: Residents who have economic dependency on voluntourism will be likely to perceive its benefits.

Socio-cultural exchange is the second subject to be discussed. The contact between tourists and local people results in the social and cultural exchange. Dogan (1989, in Kathleen, Karin, Richard & Christine 2005, 1058) also figures out that socio-cultural characteristics of residents such as habits, daily routines, social lives, beliefs and values are affected by tourism development. The influence may be either positive or negative. When both hosts and guests participate in tourism activities, they start to exchange their culture with each other. Consequently, local lifestyle will be influenced either positively or negatively. However, local community who is the center of volunteer programs expects to get most advantages from the programs. Whether residents’ attitude towards volunteer tourism depends on the benefits they gain is still a question. Thusly, the third hypothesis is built up to answer this doubt.

H3: Residents who have positive attitude towards socio-cultural exchange to voluntourism will be likely to perceive its benefits.

Wrong (1979, in Nunkoo & Ramkisson 2011, 970) defines power as the ability of one to influence policy decisions. In the context of tourism industry, Kayat (2002, 175) specifies the concept of power as the residents’ ability to control over required resources for tourism development including cultural and natural resources. Ap (1992, in Nunkoo & Ramkisson 2011, 970) describes that when there was an imbalance in the inter-relationship, the host perceptions would present as negative and disadvantaged. Ap also indicates that residences perceptions of impact depend on their perceived level of power regarding to the tourism industry. Likewise, Kayat (2002, 175) concludes the direct positive relationship between residents’ perceived level of power and their willingness and ability to exchange. This explanation could be applied in volunteer tourism as well since as mentioned above, volunteer tourism is the form of tourism which requires an intense contact between hosts and guests. Based on this discussion, the fourth hypothesis is developed:

H4: Residents who perceive the benefits of voluntourism will have a tendency of wanting to have more power to influence on voluntourism.

1.3 Aims and objectives of the study

The aim of this study is primarily to understand how the residents’ perceptions can influence their support toward volunteer tourism. Economic and social factors will be used as the tools of examining residents’ perception. The main objectives of this research are therefore to:

- Identify the different perceptions of local community towards volunteer tourism activities.
- Evaluate the economic and social factors that may influence local perceptions towards residents’ support for volunteer tourism projects.

- Determine the relationship between residents’ benefit and their response to voluntourism.

The authors will discuss these arguments by consulting the literature regarding the topic while the following section will briefly introduce the methodology adopted in this research.

1.4 Justification for the research

Many studies (Wearing 2001, 162-171; Singh S. & Singh T.V 2004, 181-194; Lyons & Wearing 2008, 3-12; Tomazos & Butler 2009, 196-211; Lockstone, Smith & Baum 2010, 111-127; Chan 2011, 71-90) have supported volunteer tourism as the solution of sustainable tourism. Nevertheless, the role of local people seems to be neglected by the tourism scholars. In fact, the impacts of volunteer tourism on local people are usually assumed rather than researched (TRAM 2008, 39). A study of local perceptions to a voluntourism project in the south east Sulawesi area of Indonesia (Sampson 2005, in TRAM 2008, 39) indicated that the locals only had a very general idea of the volunteers’ work and they were not certain about the economic benefits of those projects.

The consequence is that the limited understanding of the context including place, people and process where voluntourism takes place will lead to incompatibility between voluntourists and local community (Singh S. & Singh T.V. 2004, 191). Therefore in order to avoid the misleading of voluntourism in the host community, it is imperative to understand local perceptions towards its activities. These limited researches suggested a more concentrated study on the residents’ perceptions. Thus the authors have considered addressing the issue of local perceptions towards voluntourism so as to have a better understanding of the development and sustainability of volunteer tourism projects in the town.

Accordingly, the use of questionnaire survey which is a part of quantitative research method has the intention in collecting and understanding the different points of views of the local people who are directly or indirectly involved in voluntourism projects. The collected evidence will help to justify a number of hypotheses which are presented in order to specify the research problem. The result of this study will then provide tourism operators and local tourism planners with appropriate ideas on how to develop the voluntourism programmes that are most suitable to the local circumstance and meet the local expectations. The final aim of the study then would be improving the relationship between residents and local authorities to design and apply well-suited programmes for local development.
1.5 Research methodology in brief

The purpose of the study is to determine the inter-relationship between residents’ perceptions and their support towards volunteer tourism projects in their community. Since the study is not going to analyze the perceptions but rather to focus on the magnitude of the variable in order to quantify the problem and its prevalence, the authors have found quantitative research as the most appropriate method. Veal (2011, 34) mentions that measurements and amounts are the key attention of quantitative method. Creswell & Clark (2011, 6) also state that “Quantitative data includes closed-ended information such as that found on attitude, behaviour, or performance instruments”.

Additionally, hypothesis is also applied in the study. As such, using quantitative research in justifying hypotheses is considered as a suited one. It is considered as the tool for testing and verifying theory in quantitative research (Creswell 2003, 114-117& 125). Therefore, the design of questionnaire survey is chosen for hypothesis testing which has allowed reaching the information on a large scale in order to examine the theory as accurate as possible.

1.6 Definitions

The purpose of this section is to define some of the key terms which will be used in the various chapters of this study in order that the readers gain the basic knowledge concerning volunteer tourism and residents’ perceptions. These terms are presented in alphabetical order:

- Community-based tourism is a type of tourism that incorporates high levels of community involvement under the sustainability umbrella (Sharpley & Telfer 2008, 124)

- Pro-poor an approach to tourism development that attempts to enhance the linkages between tourism businesses and poor people in order to change the current distribution of benefits and increase tourism’s contribution to poverty reduction (Roe, Goodwin & Ashley 2004, 150)

- Residents’ perception residents’ responses over a behavioural continuum, the levels of resident response and threshold levels in proportion to the degree of tourism impact (Wall & Mathieson 2006, in Cordero 2007, 39)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Sustainability</strong></th>
<th>encompasses of 7 elements in tourism development including: cultural, social, environmental, economic sustainability; aid to conservation, educational and participation of locals (Mowforth &amp; Munt 2009, 101)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Volunteer</strong></td>
<td>voluntary service is an activity aimed at working for the common good. The volunteer takes part at home or abroad, in a continuous, full-time activity, following a free and informed personal decision (Association of Voluntary Service Organization-AVSO, in TRAM 2008, 9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voluntourism</strong></td>
<td>applies to those tourists who, for various reasons, volunteer in an organized way to undertake holidays that might involve aiding or alleviating the material poverty of some groups in society, the restoration of certain environments or research into aspects of society or environment (Wearing 2001, 1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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### 1.7 Outline of the thesis

This paper is divided into five chapters. The first chapter is the introduction to the thesis. This gives an overview picture of the whole research plan. The part explains briefly the background information, objectives and research methodology of the study. Besides, some definitions of the keywords are provided.

Chapter two is a literature review of the study. The first part of the theoretical part deals with the main concept of the context. Thereafter an overview of research on the topic is followed by the implication on the community. Then a theoretical background is presented which covers the influential factors on residents’ attitudes. Finally, a conceptual framework is developed for the analysis of the empirical data.

Following is the methodology with quantitative research approached by a questionnaire survey. Also, the data collection and analysis procedures are introduced in this chapter. Data reliability and validity are also discussed to justify the choice of using quantitative method for the study.

The fourth chapter presents all the findings and data collected under SPSS analysis. Based on these, the hypotheses of the study are justified. The purpose of the chapter is to clarify the study’s research problem in order to evaluate the residents’ reaction towards voluntourism in their community.
The fifth chapter ends with the conclusion based on the main findings and tested hypotheses. Accordingly, implication for tour operators and policy-makers is provided so that they can apply for voluntourism programme designing. The final part of chapter 5 gives suggestions for further development.
2  Literature review

This chapter presents the research literature which reinforces the understanding of the research problem. It consists of five parts. In the first part, the key term “volunteer tourism” is defined and explained in detail. Next, the impacts of volunteer tourism on host community are examined. The third part is intended to explain two theories of residents’ perceptions. The Doxey’s Irridex model of hosts-guests relationship is clarified firstly. Following is “social exchange theory” which is the theoretical framework of this study. Continuing the above discussion is the examination of factors affecting residents’ perceptions including economic dependency, residential social factors and level of participation. Afterwards, a conceptual framework is developed in the fifth part so as to capture the whole picture of the literature.

2.1  Volunteer tourism

In this section, the concept “volunteer tourism” is discussed. This definition is developed from the combination of volunteer and tourism. Furthermore, the comparison among volunteer tourism and other forms of alternative tourism is presented to point out the innovative idea of volunteer tourism among others. The criterion of this assessment is for the purpose of sustainable development.

2.1.1  Definitions of the key terms

The starting point for this study is to define the term “volunteer” and “tourism” in order to provide a clear conception of the problem before investigating other aspects of the topic. The word “volunteer” is defined firstly. According to Holmes and Smith (2009, 4) volunteering is basically an activity in which the donation of participants’ time is pivotal. UK Government’s National Survey of Volunteering and Charitable Giving (2007, 10) defines volunteering is “any activity which involves spending time unpaid, doing something which aims to benefit someone (individuals or groups) other than or in addition to close relatives, or to benefit the environment”. Apart from benefiting others, volunteer activities also bring advantages to the volunteers whose own free will, without coercion and financial payment (Volunteering Australia 2004, 1).

Secondly, the term “tourism” has been expounded since its inception in 19th century. Murphy (1985, 9) refers tourism as the travel of non-residents to a destination provided that their temporary stay does not turn into a permanent residence. However, his general definition has been modified with time. Hall and Lew (2009, 41) define that tourism is:
a form of voluntary human mobility associated with the temporary movement of persons from their usual home environment and subsequent return. Usual examples include: leisure holiday or vacation, visiting friends and relations (VFR, business travel, travel to second homes, health- & medical-related travel, religious travel and pilgrimage, travel for shopping and retail, volunteer tourism. A tourist is therefore someone who engages in tourism mobility.

Nevertheless, the duration of tourism was not mentioned in this interpretation. This point was overcome by WTO (World Tourism Organization 1995, 1). It is stated that one consecutive year in the host destination is the maximum estimated time of a tourist.

Voluntourism - the combination of “volunteer” and “tourism” is clarified in Wearing (2001, 1) as a term “applies to those tourists who, for various reasons, volunteer in an organized way to undertake holidays that might involve aiding or alleviating the material poverty of some groups in society, the restoration of certain environments or research into aspects of society or environment”. In another academic research, volunteer tourism is defined as “utilizing discretionary time and income to travel out of the sphere of regular activity to assist others in need” (McGehee & Santos 2005, in McGehee & Andereck 2008, 12).

Moreover, a general agreement is cited which is “the volunteer is one who offers service, time and skills to benefit other, voluntary personal aid for developing communities and gains mutual learning, friendship and adventure” (Beighbeder 1991, Clark 1978 & Gillette 1968, in Wearing 2001, 51). Having a more macro-approach, Uriely et al. (2003, in Lyons & Wearing 2008, 3) describe volunteering in tourism as an expression of other types of postmodern tourism which indicates the emergence of new concepts such as “alternative tourism”, “ecological tourism”, and “responsible tourism”. All in all, Wearing (2001, 1) and VolunTourism (2011) agree that voluntourism is a combination of offering voluntary service to the destination areas and along with the voluntourists’ personal development and directly influence on natural, socio-economic environments of the destinations. The duration of a volunteer tourist’s stay should be less than 18 months (TRAM 2008, 17).

2.1.2 Background of alternative tourism

Mass tourism is acknowledged to have begun in 1841 by Thomas Cook who organized the first conducted excursion train departure from Leicester station in northern Britain (Hall 1995, 38, in Wearing 2001, 4). From that time, travelling has grown rapidly as a prevalent phenomenon. World Tourism Organization (2011, 2) shows that international tourism is growing strongly with international tourists arrivals up 6.6% over 2009, to 940 million and tourist receipts reached $9191 billion. Even though tourism brings many attractions for tourists, mass tourism marginalizes the host communities from influencing on its construction (Lyons & Wearing 2008, 5). The authors also state that mass tourism is “highly consumptive, which has had an irre-
versible impact upon a range of natural and cultural environments globally”. Similarly, Wearing (2001, 27) reports that mass tourism has caused a number of problems and received criticism from many observers and researchers. Wearing (2001, 149) also lists some examples of negative impacts of mass tourism such as pollution, degradation, congestion, anti-social behaviours, crime, overcrowding. This leads to the search for another genre of tourism which is alternative, productive and sustainable. As a result, the so-called “alternative tourism” was invented and has been seen as a hope.

It is stated by Butler (1990, in Wearing 2001, 27) that alternative tourism offers ways to “the least desired or most undesired type of tourism”. Alternative tourism enables tourists to involve in activities that are mutually beneficial to host communities socio-culturally and environmentally; the tourists may gain life-changing experience or at least an effect on the self at some point (Butler 1990 & Wearing 2002, in Lyons & Wearing 2008, 6). In addition, the host offers alternative tourists accommodation directly or let the tourists stay in their houses. On account of that, a direct personal/ cultural intercommunication and understanding between hosts and guests are established, this is the goal of alternative/CBT (community-based tourism) (Dernoi 1981 & Holden 1984, in Wearing 2001, 28-29).

2.1.3 Volunteer tourism in comparison with other forms of tourism

To reveal the location of volunteer tourism in tourism industry, Mieczkowski (1995, in Wearing 2001, 29) designs a framework. As can be seen in the diagram, Mieczkowski distinguishes various specific forms of alternative tourism namely cultural, educational, scientific, adventure, agritourism. Volunteer tourism and ecotourism overlap and take place in these above forms. All of them are generally alternative to unsustainable tourism.
In other literature, alternative tourism has a variety of forms such as ecotourism (Wearing 2001, 6), volunteer tourism (Wearing 2001, 7), community-based tourism, soft tourism, green tourism, defensive tourism (Dernoi 1981, Mader 1988, Jones 1987 & Krippendorf 1982, in Wearing 2001, 28) and pro-poor tourism (Hall 2007, 34). Among them, ecotourism is currently “undergone the process of commodification over the last two decades and is now little more than another niche product that can be developed and sold to the mass tourism market” (Wearing et al. 2005, in Lyons & Wearing 2008, 6).

Meanwhile, responsible tourists nowadays seek for ethical holidays which achieve “the satisfaction of social needs: contact with other people and self-realization through creative activities, knowledge and exploration” (Krippendorf 1987, in Sin 2010, 984). As such, volunteer tourism has become a favourable and fastest-growing form of alternative tourism due to its ethical and responsible character (Lyons & Wearing 2008, 6; Yeoman 2008, in Holmes & Smith 2009, 13). Indeed, voluntourism in particular, alternative tourism in general is vitally aligned to sustainable development by limiting as much as possible the negative influences on the resources and destination (Wearing 2001, 7; Mieczkowski 1995 & Butler 1990, in Wearing...
Wearing (2001, 12) also admits that volunteer tourism is “a development strategy leading sustainable development and centring the convergence of natural resources qualities, locals and the visitors that all benefit from tourism activity”.

Callanan and Thomas 2005; Lyons and Wearing 2008; Wearing 2001, 2004 in Holmes and Smith (2009, 12-13) concur that “Volunteer tourism has been linked to, amongst others, the concepts of alternative tourism, ecotourism, sustainable tourism and sustainable development”. Ingram (2011, 211) points out that volunteer tourism create an opportunity for improving the host community in which volunteer activities are taken place: “In essence, to engage with development and poverty alleviation”.

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) (2010, 11) identifies the focus of tourism on the reduction of poverty. This view explains tourism is significantly meaningful in poverty alleviation. In developing countries, there is considerable interest in alleviating poverty by tourism. The term “pro-poor tourism” (PPT) is distinguished as an alternative approach to mass tourism. Pro-poor tourism can be considered as an approach to tourism development of which objectives are to generate net benefits for poor people (DFID 1999 & UNESCAP 2003:4, in Hall 2007, 38). For this perspective, pro-poor tourism is able to be approached by voluntourism.

Ashley et al. (2000, in Hall 2007, 39) state that ecotourism or green tourism concentrated on conserving the environment and culture of the destination. The main benefit which ecotourism offers to local community is the environmental protection. Concurrently, community-based tourism targets at local involvement in tourism (Hall 2007, 39). Based on the preceding theoretical discussion, volunteer tourism hence may embrace the concepts of pro-poor and community-based tourism. Moreover, from the above framework of Mieczkowski, it is illustrated that voluntourism occurs in fundamental fields. In this way, it is probably argued that volunteer tourism is inclusive of pro-poor tourism and community-based tourism.

2.2 Impacts of volunteer tourism on the community

Gursoy, Jurowski and Uysal (2002, 79) assert that life quality of the locals in a destination is influenced once there is development of tourism this community. The success of a destination is determined by not only its attractions but also the support of the host population (Gursoy & Rutherford 2004, in Nunkoo & Ramkisson 2011, 964). In the context of social exchange theory, Wang and Pfister (2011, 91) relate the residents’ attitude toward tourism to the evaluation of benefits and costs. This view means once the benefits exceed the costs, locals are likely to support tourism development. As a result, it is crucial to identify the impacts of tourism on
host destination, especially negative impacts in order to minimize the perceived costs and raise residents’ hospitality to tourism development.

Community consequences result from tourism development extensively in many areas. Gee, Mackens & Choy (1989); Gunn (1988); Gursoy, Chen & Yoon (2000); McIntosh & Goeldner (1990); Murphy (1985) (in Gursoy et al. 2002, 80); Andereck et al. (2005, 1057) find that the consequences are usually categorized into economic, socio-cultural and environmental. Yet, economy and socio-culture are recognized as the most important. As stated by Wearing (2001, 149) voluntourism should be evolved on economic development and social environment of the area in order to be successful. At same time, Wearing (2001, 160) emphasizes local communities to be the main beneficiaries of volunteer tourism.

Sofield et al. (2004, in Lyons & Wearing 2008, 24) also advocate that tourism industry has helped to develop economy and revitalize society for the least-developed countries in the world. “Volunteering generates benefits not only to the individual volunteer, but also, importantly, contributes to the broader economic and social goals of society” (Lyons & Wearing 2008, 26). In fact, since 1970s research in tourism studies has focused on utilizing tourism as an implement to develop economy in developing countries (Hall 2007, 2). Thus, positive and negative tourism impacts are examined on economic and socio-cultural aspects. In each section, general tourism impacts will be explored prior to volunteer tourism impacts on host communities.

2.2.1 Positive economic impacts

Given the positive economic effects such as employment opportunities, tax revenue, economic diversity, Andereck et al. (2005, 1056-1057) pronounce that tourism has been broadly acknowledged as “potential economic base”. Swarbrooke (2004, 61) lists numbers of multiplier economic effects of tourism, including job creation, increasing income of local economy, boosting local business, generating and restricting other industrial activities of the town. Correspondingly, Belisle & Hoy (1980); Davis, Allen & Cosenza (1988); Ritchie (1988); Tyrrell & Spaulding (1984); Var, Kendall & Tarakcoglu (1985) in Gursoy et al. 2002, 83) conclude that tourism is an employment opportunities generating industry. OECD reports that since 1976 there was a 400% growth in investment, which was US$ 389 million in more than 18,000 volunteers for 1986 (Beighbeder 1991, in Wearing 2001, 50). Tax revenue and personal income are additionally improved. As such, tourism is perceived to enhance the quality of economic life. (Haralambopoulos & Pizam 1996; Mc Cool & Martin 1994; Perdue, Long & Allen 1990, in Andereck et al. 2005, 1058). It is praised that The Third World nations can “finance their development and reduce their foreign debt” thanks to tourism. Thus tourism is believed to be one of the strong boosters (Hall 2007, 5).
In addition to the above positive impacts, volunteer tourists are believed to bring more economic benefits to community. The reason is that when volunteer tourists contact directly with local residents, their injections to resources are less leaked (McGehee & Andereck 2008, 22). With volunteer tourism, pro-poor strategy could hence also be best approached. Broad (2003, in Holmes & Smith 2009, 58) further indicates that local economy gained more profit from the travel expense of volunteer tourists at the destination. More importantly, the economic benefit from voluntourism is mostly seen from the angle of the money paid by volunteer tourists to run development projects in the host country. Also, the majority of local staff is employed for working in these development projects (Fee & Mdee 2011, 229).

2.2.2 Negative economic impacts

Together with positive effects on economic development, tourism has brought some disadvantages to the host areas. Davis Smith et al. 2005; Sherraden et al. 2008 (in Holmes & Smith 2009, 58) argue that international tourism could be more harmful than good or even make the existing problems worse. The negative economic impact of tourism on the community is considered as the opportunity costs. These opportunity costs are often known as low paid job, seasonal job and the need to invest in expensive infrastructure which may only be required for part of the year (Swarbrooke 2004, 61).

There has been an assumption that volunteering will be beneficial to host communities more or less (Raymond 2008, 49). Holmes and Smith (2009, 15) doubt the meaningful contribution of voluntourists because volunteer tourism emphasizes on travel and takes place in limited time. When volunteer tourists visit a destination, local communities have to provide specialized goods and services to tourists’ special needs through importation. This leads to reducing profits to host communities (Wearing 2001, 144). The practices of voluntourists may also result in the decline of employment opportunities in the destination (Holmes & Smith 2009, 58) because the paid employees can be replaced by the tourists.

More importantly, economic dependency is likely to develop because the residents start to count on the aid of the volunteer tourists (McGehee & Andereck 2008; Sherraden et al. 2008; Simpson 2004, in Holmes & Smith 2009, 58). The economic dependency issue is also addressed by N. Mc Kinney (2006); Los Ninos & Esperanza (2006), in McGehee & Andereck (2008, 18). The author gives an example that an organization wanted to give used clothing for free to the local families. However, McKinney, Director of Development of the McDowell County Mission, explained that the mission did not stand for any sorts of free handouts. In this case the organization had a good intention but they did not understand it created the economic dependency of the local residents. The term “pettin’ the critters” was invented by McKinney to de-
fine these types of voluntourist activities. This phenomenon can be transferred and perpetuate to the next generation (McGehee & Andereck 2008, 22).

The summary of positive and negative economic impacts of voluntourism is illustrated in the figure below:

![Figure 2: Positive -negative economic impacts of voluntourism](image.png)

2.2.3 Positive socio-cultural impacts

Tourism development creates more restaurants, natural and cultural attractions and outdoor recreation opportunities for communities. More than that, on account of tourism progress, community services, natural parks, recreation facilities, cultural heritage and activities are enhanced (Brunt & Courtney 1999; Gilbert & Clark 1997; McCool & Martin 1994, in Andereck et al. 2005, 1057-1058). Powell (1978) in Murphy (1985, 30) believes that travel was the best bridge to connect people, ideas, ideologies, cultures and fostered the mutual insight within a country and between countries. Enriching the community fabrics, cultural values and heightening self-esteem were supplemented to cultural impacts (Stronza & Gordillo 2008, in Nunkoo & Ramkissoon 2011, 967).

Volunteer tourism has been seen as a new way to obtain sustainable development for local community not only economically but socio-culturally as well. Because one of its characteristics is to stress different culture in tourism, voluntourism is a mean to preserve authenticity and cultural assets (Wearing 2001, 149). Meanwhile, local people also develop their pride and recognition of their culture and environment when they celebrate culture events for tourists (Holmes & Smith 2009, 57). McIntosh and Zahra (2008, 178) conduct a study on volunteer tourists and locals in an indigenous community in New Zealand. The findings figure out that the hosts perceived voluntourism as positive cultural exchange. A Maori member of the Awa-
tapu community admitted that volunteer tourists helped the children develop their culture identity and pride in their Maori culture. Furthermore, to Maori children, the voluntourists were seen as a positive “role models” through their interactions and conversations.

Another noteworthy contribution of voluntourism is that the quality of life for individuals or host community is improved through volunteer tourist projects e.g. education and health (Holmes & Smith 2009, 57; McGehee & Andereck 2008, 22). A Cambodian resident memorized that volunteer tourists helped to rebuild her kindergarten from an old house (Sin 2010, 986). Sin also told another case in Northern Vietnam where voluntourists’ project doubled the capacity of the kindergarten. Therefore, more children were able to attend the school. Voluntourism has been valued as altruism (Ingram in Benson 2011, 215; Mustonen 2007, 105). The act of voluntourists was described in Realgap (2009 in Fee & Mdee 2011, 225):

As in many developing countries, Ghana has a large number of abandoned children and orphans. The care and attention needed by these children is often not received due to lack of staff and government funding. Volunteers are able to make a significant difference to the lives of orphans by offering them the love and attention that so many are missing.

The quote above invoked the sense of caring and loving that voluntourism has brought to the host community. This is the way that volunteer tourism can make a difference to poverty and deprivation by sending the sign of passion and sympathy to the needy.

In the context of volunteer tourism, the socio-cultural impact is perceived as the main dimension since the determination of volunteer travel experience is to be involved with host community (Brown 2005, in Ingram 2011, 215). The intensive host-guest interactions, the exposure to local cultures and the cross-cultural experiences are posed as the major benefits from volunteer tourists’ expectation (Wearing, 2001). Hence, in return, the host community is believed to be given more chances for exposing and presenting their local culture to the guests. For that reason, mutual understanding, appreciation and friendship are built up between volunteer tourists and the community (Brown & Lehto 2005, in Holmes & Smith 2009, 59). The Asian-Pacific Economic Corporation (APEC) Ministerial Meeting (2000) declares the importance of cultural understanding and appreciation in tourism development. The conference assembly “recognizes and values the many non-economic benefits that tourism provides...in particular fostering cross-cultural understanding, promoting local and indigenous cultures, arts and heritage, high-lighting the need to preserve the social and cultural fabric and integrity of host communities”.

2.2.4 Negative socio-cultural impacts
The socio-cultural aspect of tourism has been given a special attention in the sustainable tourism debate. According to Swarbrooke (1999, 69), the social impact of sustainable tourism is considered the focus on the host community. This impact is often invisible and happens slowly over time, but once it has taken place there would be little or no opportunity to reverse the change. The presence of tourism in a host community will affect residents’ habits, daily routines, social lives, beliefs and values which may result in the psychological friction of the host (Dogan, in Andereck et al. 2005, 1058).

Another study by Ap and Crompton (1993); McCool and Martin (1994) (in Andereck et al. 2005, 1057) shows that crowding, traffic and parking problem, crime increase, and tension between tourists and residents can be included in negative socio-cultural effects of tourism. The authors even name more negative influences which were proved by many previous studies “effects on traditional family values (Kousis 1989), cultural commercialization (Cohen 1988), crime (Brunt & Courtney 1999; Tosun 2002), drugs (Haralambopoulos & Pizam 1996; Mok, Slater & Cheung 1991; Tosun 2002), degradation of morality (Mok et al. 1991), alcohol, openness of sex (King, Pizam & Milman 1991), increased prostitution (Cohen 1988; Lankford 1994; Lindberg & Johnson 1997; Mok et al. 1991), gambling (Pizam & Pokela 1985), crowding of public facilities and resources (Brunt & Courtney 1999; Lindberg & Johnson 1997; McCool & Martin 1994)”. (in Andereck et al. 2005, 1059)

Additionally, tourism contributes to destroying the authenticity of the destination. The reason is that host organizations tend to commercialize tourism products and service to live up to tourists’ expectation (Van den Berghe & Keyes 1984; Graburn 1984, in Murphy 1985, 30). Hall and Lew (2009, 157) concur that entrepreneurs were likely to associate with image and values globalization to develop commerce.

As to volunteer tourism, one negative noticeable impact is reducing human capacity of the destination communities. Tasks and skills which should actually be practiced and developed by residents are performed by volunteer tourists (Holmes & Smith 2009, 58). Side by side, in the study of the two communities in the United States and Mexico, McGehee and Andereck (2008, in Holmes & Smith 2009, 59) explore that “well-intentioned but misguided actions by volunteers, which can offend the dignity of local residents and create dependency issues”.

Due to the fact that volunteer tourists and locals in host communities have different living conditions, it causes conflict in caring relationship between hosts and guests. Wearing and Grabowski (2011, 205) report that there would be more problems than helps created by immaturity of volunteers. To some extent, poverty is being commodified by volunteer tourism and as consequences, the power imbalance between hosts and guests is raised (Ingram 2011, 219). Most volunteers come from the more developed regions, which can result in the supe-
rior attitude of viewing themselves to local residents. This, in turn, leads to a “one sided domination and exploitation of members of visited societies by the privilege classes” (Cheong & Miller 2000, 219). Sin (2010, 988) reports that Singaporean volunteer tourists wanted sleep on mattresses but the Cambodian hostess bought them straw mats because mattress was too expensive. When a breakdown in the relationship between local communities and tourists happens, the tourism industry may “peak, fade and self-destruct” (Haywood 1988, in Wearing & Grabowski 2011, 198).

For clearer illustration, the figure below summarizes the positive and negative socio-cultural impact of volunteer tourism:

![Figure 3: Positive-negative socio-cultural impacts of voluntourism](image)

2.3 Theories of residents’ perceptions

The part describes the theories of residents’ perceptions which are considered as the foundation of the study. The two theories which are introduced are Doxey’s Irridex Model and Social Exchange Theory. While Doxey’s Irridex Model explains the residents’ perceptions as a whole in the context of tourism area life cycle, Social Exchange Theory analyses the residents’ perceptions as each individual which the reaction of one citizen is influenced by their personal status in the community.

2.3.1 Doxey’s Irridex model
Young (1973, in Murphy 1985, 124) believes that an area had a saturation level or human capacity, and if tourist activity exceeds this level, the costs of tourism commence to outweigh the benefits. This leads to the residents' dissatisfaction of tourism development. The process gradually develops from the inception of tourism activity to the deteriorating phase of a region. This perception was described by Doxey (1975) with the “irridex” model which identified four stages of residents and visitors relationship.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Euphoria</th>
<th>Social relationships</th>
<th>Power relationships</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Visitors and investors welcome</td>
<td>Little planning or formalized control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Greater potential for influence to be exerted by locals (not often taken)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apathy</td>
<td>Visitors taken for granted</td>
<td>Marketing is the prime focus of plans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More formal relationships between hosts and guests</td>
<td>Tourism industry lobby grows in power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annoyance</td>
<td>Residents misgivings about tourism</td>
<td>Planners attempt to control by increasing infrastructure rather than limiting growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Range of saturation points approached</td>
<td>Local protest groups develop to challenge institutionalized tourism power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antagonism</td>
<td>Irritations openly expressed</td>
<td>Remedial planning fighting against pressures of increased promotion to offset declining reputation of destination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residents perceive tourists as the cause of the problems</td>
<td>Power struggle between interest groups</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Doxey’s Irridex Model of Host Irritation (Doxey 1975, in Beeton 2006, 40)

The model suggests that in the early stage of tourism development, residents welcome the new visitors and new investment is expected to trickle into the community. In this outset stage, little tourism planning called “euphoria” takes place. Harrill (2004, 256) explains this period is for emerging destination when visitors find their way to the destination mostly through word of mouth and the community itself offers little tourism facilities. However, over time, when the volume of tourists increases, the interrelation changes to the “apathy” stage.
where residents begin to take commercial advantage of tourism development with more marketing activities and specific infrastructure for the visitors. As the development continues and surpasses the tolerance of communities, their “apathy” turns into “annoyance”. During this phase, residents can become irritated by the numbers of tourists and show their concern about the presence of tourism in their community. At the same time, the commercial advantage of tourism is being exploited from the private entrepreneurs, public economic developers and also commercial and real estate business from outside. Finally, the last stage is shown by “antagonism” of local communities. They express their hostility to tourism activities and travellers. At this stage, the tourism development in the community has become a tourism economy based on volume of tourists. From this point, the destination continues to decline or rejuvenates itself through redevelopment and remarketing, as describe by Butler’s tourism area life cycle of evolution model (Butler 2011, 6; Latkova 2011, 51).

In support of the Irridex model, Smith and Krannich (1998) use the concept of tourism dependence to examine the residents’ attitudes in four rural communities in the Rocky Mountain West, United State. The study concluded that in a “tourism-hungry” type, the residents strongly desire more tourism to contribute to their economy and may perceive tourism as being more important than it actually is at the present time. In contrast, a “tourism-saturated” type which has reached some threshold level of development and where residents desire little or no more tourism. In addition, a “tourism-realized” type has a moderate but increasing level of tourism and a growing ambivalence among residents regarding the desirability of more additional tourism activities. A “non-tourism” type has low level of tourism performance in the community and residents perceive tourism to be significantly less important to their economy (Smith & Krannich 1998, 791-793).

Applying to volunteer tourism, Sin’s research is based on interviews with fourteen correspondents consisting of local people, non-government organizations and missionary workers. Sin (2010, 986) depicts all respondents had hosted at least one Singaporean volunteer group (20 to 40 students/group). The findings discovered that the majority of locals in Cambodia in Sin’s research were happy and touched by voluntourists’ aspiration and good intentions. One of volunteer tourists also reported that he/she received warm hospitality and enthusiasm from Cambodian residents because they had memorable experience with the previous volunteer tourist.

Lyons and Wearing (2008, 21) give an example in the study of McGehee & Andercreek to show residents’ annoyance towards voluntourism. One of their research communities was MCDowell County located in West Virginia, USA. It was estimated by Mustard Seeds and Mountains (2001) that there was approximately 10,000 volunteers per year which numbered one-third of the country’s population. This revealed that the area was saturated with voluntourists. Jay Wilson,
Executive Director of McDowell Mission (J. Wilson, Welch, West Virginia, 2007, personal communication) shared that “Volunteers have been coming to this part of the country for thirty years, I have been here for six years, and while I am sure that the volunteers reap benefits from the experience, I honestly don’t see a change in the community”.

2.3.2 Social exchange theory

Many researchers have been importing the social exchange theory as the primary theoretical framework in order to examine the residents’ perceptions towards tourism (Kayat, 2002; Andereck, Valentine, Knopf & Vogt 2005; Gursoy & Nunkoo, 2011; Nunkoo & Ramkisson, 2011; Ward & Berno, 2011; Vargas-Sanchez, Porras-Bueno & Plaza-Melja, 2011). According to Ap (1992, in Stockton 2011, 25), social exchange theory helps to clarify residents’ attitudes towards tourism from both a positive and negative perspective. The theory suggests that

When exchange of resources (express in terms of power) between residents and tourism is high and balanced, or high for the host actor in an unbalance relation, tourism impacts are viewed positively by residents. When exchange of resources is low in either the balanced or unbalanced exchange relations, the impacts are viewed negatively.

This explains why residents are in favour or not in favour of tourism activities in their community. Need satisfaction, exchange relation and consequences of exchange are the key components of the social exchange process model.
If the residents perceive positive consequences prior to exchange, they will likely enter the exchange. In contrast, if the residents perceive negative consequences from a previous exchange, they will not enter a similar exchange again. Furthermore, these perceptions of the residents originate from their need which is the motive for the exchange initiation. The exchange process includes tangible and intangible exchanges. This comprehensive approaching of the theory allows it to examine the residents’ attitudes from all aspects of tourism aspects, including economic, environmental and socio-culture (Stockon 2011, 25-26).

Social exchange theory is also an effective tool for scholars to analyse residents’ perceptions towards sustainable tourism since sustainable tourism considers residents’ satisfaction as the root for its development. Based on the theory, a variety of determinants of residents’ support
towards tourism has been investigated by researchers. In particular, twelve published research studies utilizing this methodological tool have been summarized (Table 2). Although diverse differential factors have been used, all of these dimensions are investigated from the same perspective of evaluating the perceived costs and benefits of local residents.

Personal perceived costs and benefits are the key dimensions of social exchange theory which enables residents to evaluate the socio-cultural, environmental and economic impacts of tourism from both positive and negative angle. As a result, Latkova (2008, 50) states the advantage of social exchange theory as being able to consider heterogeneity between community and as such can explain the different attitudes of residents within the same community. Gursoy and Rutherford (2004, in Nunkoo & Ramkisson 2011, 176), in the support of the social exchange theory conclude that residents will have a tendency of supporting tourism development if they perceive more benefits than costs from the industry.

Napier and Bryant (1988, in Kayat 2002, 174) explicate the underlying principle of exchange theory as based on the reward-seeking and punishment-avoiding creatures of human beings. Consequently, people are motivated by profits (rewards minus costs) expectation. Rewards are not solely being considered as monetary returns, but also in social and psychological aspects. Therefore, “perceived” benefits and “perceived” costs are the determination for an individual to decide to enter a social exchange. Additionally, in every exchange transaction, each participant’s purpose is to gain much at little cost (Blau 1967, in Kayat 2002, 174).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors and year of publication</th>
<th>Variables used in the study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kayat, 2002</td>
<td>Residents’ level of power (ability to take advantage of benefits from tourism and level of dependence of tourism)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ko and Steward, 2002</td>
<td>Personal benefits from tourism development, perceived positive tourism impacts, perceived negative tourism impacts, overall community satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andereck, Valentine, Knopf and Vogt, 2005</td>
<td>Sense of community, including: Community environment, community problems, community life, community image, community services, and community economy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharma and Dyer, 2009</td>
<td>Perceived impact of tourism: positive economic, negative socio-economic impact, positive cultural impact, negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author(s)</td>
<td>Variables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brida, Osti and Barquet, 2010</td>
<td>Economic impact, positive environmental impact, negative environmental impact, positive socio-cultural impact, negative socio-cultural impact, local and regional effect.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nunkoo and Ramkisson, 2010</td>
<td>Economic dependency, occupational identity, community attachment, level of power, gender relations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nunkoo and Ramkisson, 2011a</td>
<td>Satisfaction with neighbourhood conditions, community commitment and satisfaction with community services.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nunkoo and Ramkisson, 2011b</td>
<td>Trust in tourism institution, power to influence tourism, neighbourhood conditions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vargas-Sanchez, Porras-Bueno and Plaza-Mejia, 2011</td>
<td>Personal benefits from tourism, Perceived impact of tourism, Satisfaction with the community, level of tourism development, tourist identity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward and Berno, 2011</td>
<td>Attitudes toward tourists, the level of frequency of contact with tourist, perception of social, economic or political threat from tourism, stereotype, intergroup anxiety.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stockon, 2011</td>
<td>Tourism knowledge (perceived tourism impact of economic, socio-cultural and environmental), community attachment, contact with tourists, length of residency, location of residency, demographic variables (age, gender, education, employment, income).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Summary of the Literature Review on Social Exchange Theory

Indeed, there are plenty of variables have been used in order to examine residents’ attitude toward tourism. In the context of volunteer tourism and for supporting the purpose of the study, the three elements of social factors, economic dependency and level of local participation in tourism activities in their community will be explained further. These variables are
chosen in correspondence with the four hypotheses which have been presented in the previous chapter.

2.4 Determinants on residents’ support

This section analyses three factors which are predicted to influence on residents’ perceptions, namely: economic dependency, resident’s social factor and level of local participation in volunteer tourism activities in their community. There has always been a controversial debate of the influence of these factors on residents’ attitudes. Many scholars have been searching for its universal model but it seems there is no such proved model existing until now. In this study, the main purpose of examining these factors is building a theoretical background for a specific chosen research area.

2.4.1 Economic dependency

Sirakaya et al. (2002, in Nunkoo & Gursoy 2011, 2) mention that there are differences in the determinants of residents’ support for tourism between the developed and developing regions. Ward and Berno (2011, 1564-1565) through their research between Fiji and New Zealand- two developing and developed states respectively indicate that residents who belong to a growing economic region have more positive attitude toward tourism activities in their community. Although Fijians acknowledged some negative consequences of tourism, generally they held a positive view of tourism. In contrast, New Zealanders were more ambivalent and uncertain about the personal benefits of tourism for their own wills although they did not deny the economic benefit that tourism has brought to their state.

Economic factor is quite complex determination affecting residents’ support for tourism activities. Nelson (2010, 64) mentions the exchange process in volunteer tourism is a reciprocal exchange between volunteers and community members. This hence needs to take into consideration whether both partners are sharing the same level of power that enables them to benefit from the exchange. However, Blau (in Kayat 2002, 175) proposes that the partner in a social exchange with less power of alternative opportunities (or the so-called “no-power” residents) is prone to be more dependent on the exchange relation. This explains why in a poverty-stricken area, residents might not be in favour of tourism but due to the struggle for living, they may still engage in this exchange process (Robin & Haywantee 2010, 55). Kayat (2002) conducts his study in Langkawi Island, which was one of the least developed districts in Malaysia but has been undergoing substantial changes in its economy thanks to tourism. He finds out that the “no-power” respondents who presented strong support for tourism also showed great dependence on this industry. In fact, these dependent residents have no alternative than tourism to sustain themselves. In their perception, the money and material
wealth that tourism brought to them were so important that any other negative impacts were underestimated or neglected (Kayat 2002, 181-182).

However, Mc Gehee and Andereck (2004, 136) reveal that residents who benefit economically from tourism also reported its negative impacts. Their research was conducted in twelve communities in Arizona and the finding was that respondents who are living in more tourism dependent communities are more likely to agree that tourism has negative impacts than residents of less tourism dependent communities. Supporting this result, Latkova and Vogt (2011, 62) in a study of three rural areas in Midwest expose that there is a positive relationship between tourism dependence and tourism ‘negative impacts’. In order to clarify these results, Nunkoo and Ramkisson (2010, 56) explain that residents depending on tourism who display negative attitude towards the industry might believe that their local economy is strong enough not to depend on tourism and there could be other possibilities for them to make income rather than tourism sector. The perceived local economic level therefore is more likely to influence tourism dependent residents on their perceived tourism impacts.

To what extent one economically benefited from tourism predict perceived positive or negative impacts of tourism is questioned to examine the authentic meaning of tourism development in an area. In the context of volunteer tourism that benefitting the poor is the core objective, residents’ perceptions hence could be stereotyped when the economic benefit might be over evaluated than other impacts. It is therefore very important to apply both social and economic factors in order to gain a more precise insight into residents’ perceptions towards tourism development generally and volunteer tourism specifically.

2.4.2 Residential social factors

There has been a controversy about the influence of social factors on residents’ attitudes towards tourism. While some researchers have found a significant difference in residents perceptions related to some social elements such as age, length of residency, ethnicity, contact with tourists, others recognized a relatively minor role of these factors in explaining residents’ attitudes toward tourism development. However, these variables are considered as standard part of survey implementation (Harrill 2004, 252). The social factors have helped many studies in forming different clusters within a community. Brida et al. (2010) demonstrate that this way of dividing into cluster groups allows “easy identification of group membership, so the positives about tourism development and possible solutions to potential negative impacts can be distributed to key people”.

Some studies indicated that gender is a determinant of residents’ attitudes toward tourism. Nunkoo and Gursoy (2011, 18) report that residents with feminine identity were more aware
of the negative impacts of tourism and more supportive for tourism development in the community. The explanation lies in the fact that femininity is more community-oriented, emphasizing on sensitivity and concern for others. Regarding age, McGehee and Andereck (2004, 136) discover that the older the respondent is the more likely he or she is to agree with the positive impacts of tourism. Similarly, Ward and Berno (2011) also find that older people show more tolerant to tourists and have more positive attitude toward them. However, Williams and Lawson (2001, 283) in their findings conclude that the older group tend to least approve of tourism in the town. They are considered the most “community oriented” group as they care for natural environment, community values including the role of local people in maintaining control over their community.

Community attachment has been applied in many studies as an important determinant in tourism perceptions (McGehee & Andereck 2004, Andereck et al. 2005, Nunkoo & Ramkisson 2010, Latkova & Vogt 2011, Stockon 2011). McCool and Martin (1994, in Nunkoo & Ramkisson 2010, 56) define community attachment as the “extend and pattern of social participation and integration into community life, and sentiment or affect toward the community”. Community attachment was measured by the length of residency, birthplace (McGehee & Andreck 2004). Nunkoo and Ramkisson (2010) use the concept of community commitment instead of community attachment. This is characterized “as the extent to which local residents internalized the community as their own, feel loyal to it and would not consider moving away from the area at will” (Grzeskowiak et al. 2003, Theodori 2001, in Nunkoo & Ramkisson 2010, 177). Similarly, Stockon (2011) besides length of residency, attempts to modify the dimension of community attachment by the questions of belonging, emotional bond and fond memories about the community. Latkova and Vogt (2011) add two more features in this category as social and environmental attach (family ties, local culture and tradition, natural landscapes, opportunities for outdoor recreation as well to be involved in community). Harrill (2004, 259) concludes that in general, the tourism researchers have discovered a direct negative relationship between community attachment and residents’ perceptions towards tourism. It is explained by the fact that tourism is an industry with the potential consequences of degrading community life quality. Therefore the more attached residents are to their community, the more negative they are feeling towards tourism development. However, in the case of four researchers under this study, except Stockon (2011), there are some inconsistent results as Mc Gehee & Andreck (2004) and Latkova& Vogt (2011) discover a contradictory result while Nunkoo and Ramkisson (2010) do not find any relationship between community attachment and residents’ tourism perceptions.

Generally, there is no consistent relationship when testing the correlation between social variables and attitudes. This might be because these variables are applied in different areas in which the geography, the tradition as well as the tourism development level vary greatly.
Thus, these results are only related to specific environments and cannot be generalized to other states. For a particular community in this study, an examination of social factors should be also investigated in order to clarify which social factor would have effect on the local residents’ perceptions towards volunteer tourism.

2.4.3 Level of local participation

Local participation is one principle of sustainability in tourism. This element is considered as the key difference between conventional mass tourism and sustainable forms of tourism (Mowforth & Munt 2009, 101-107). The involvement of local community in decision-making process has not only enhanced individual learning but also for potential future endeavours of the community development (George et al. 2009, 168). Local participation has been appeared in so many community development projects that Jules Pretty (1995, in Mowforth & Munt 2009, 225) points out:

In recent years, there have been an increasing number of comparative studies of development projects showing that “participation” is one of the critical components of success... As a result, the terms “people participation” and “popular participation” are now part of the normal language of many development agencies, including non-governmental organizations, government departments and banks. It is such a fashion that almost everyone says that participation is part of their work.

The importance of local involvement in area-developing projects could not be therefore under-estimated. Supporting for this cause, Kayat (2002) discovers that the more power local residents in Langkawi, Malaysia is given, the more favourable and supportive attitude they express towards future tourism development of the town. Similarly, Nunkoo and Ramkisson (2011b) in their study of Grand-Baie- a tourist resort in Mauritius find out a direct positive relationship between residents’ perceived level of power to influence tourism and the perceived benefits of the industry.

Harsanyi (1971) and Nagel (1975) (in Kayat 2002, 175) identify the resources owned by residents as an important source of power because they imply the residents’ ability to influence the tourism development (such as labour, capital, cultural and natural resources) in their state. Consistent with social exchange theory, these resources represent residents’ power in an exchange with tourism development to satisfy their needs (Kayat 2002, 175). Ap (1992, in Nunkoo & Ramkisson 2010, 57) also agrees that study of residents’ power in tourism is necessary since it determines the residents’ capacity to take advantage of tourism benefits. Figure below illustrates the different levels of community power on tourism development policies:
Figure 5: The ladder of community influence (Swarbrooker 2004, 126)

Whether the community is involved passively or could actively participate in tourism policy-making process is dependent on the barriers of community capacity in tourism development which includes the lack of community participation opportunities, the power imbalance between local authority, the lack of tourism knowledge and the availability of short-term funding programmes (Hunt 2005, in Aref & Redzuan 2009, 22). The study of Shiraz, Iran, Aref (2011, 1249-1250) reveals that community power could not have an effective role in tourism development. The local expected to be involved more in tourism development activities but there was no or little support from government. In addition, the finding also shows that the residents in Shiraz saw inconsistent activities in terms of tourism planning in their community.

The purpose of involving the variable of residents’ participation in this study is to examine the level of local power that “to make people central to the development by encouraging beneficiary involvement in interventions that affect them and over which they previously had limited control and influence” (Cooke & Kothari 2001, in Nunkoo & Ramkisson 2010, 57).

2.5 Conceptual framework of the study

The previous section of this chapter has analysed the morals of volunteer tourism which “ideally suited for the development of sustainable, community-based tourism” (Wearing 2001, 147) and also acting as the solution of “aiding or alleviating poverty of some groups of society”
Possessing the components of community-based and pro-poor tourism, volunteer tourism is expected to be an innovative form of alternative tourism.

The impact of volunteer tourism is complex since the genuine value of development is locating the root cause of problem otherwise helping is not enough. The merit of each voluntourism project is to determine its impacts on host community that whether it is truly making a difference. In order to be confirmed as innovative development, it is a need of conducting extensive research into the impacts of volunteer tourism on local residents (Ingram 2011, 216-220). As a result, understanding residents’ perceptions towards volunteer tourism is the way of identifying the root causes of their problems and possible solutions.

In an attempt of measuring residents’ attitudes towards tourism, a number of models have been developed (Kayat 2002, Nunkoo & Ramkisson 2010, Nunkoo & Ramkisson 2011 a & b, Vargas-Sanchez, Porras-Bueno & Plaza-Mejia, 2011, Latkova & Vogt, 2011). In this study, three variables are adapted including residential social factors, economic dependency (personal economic level and regional economic stage) and the level of local participation in tourism policy-making process to examine the influence of residents’ perceptions towards their support for the voluntourism projects of the community. The application of these three variables is developed in parallel with the social exchange theory. The idea is to measure the perceived costs and benefits of residents so as to clarify the four hypotheses which were raised in the previous chapter.

![Conceptual framework of residents' perceptions towards voluntourism](image)

In conclusion, the scope of this chapter is to clarify the concept of volunteer tourism, identifying its impacts on the host community, and developing a conceptual framework of residents’
perceptions towards voluntourism according to the literature related. The next chapter introduces and justifies the methodology of gathering data for the study.
3 Case description

The aims of chapter 3 are to give general information of Sapa and depict voluntourism situation in the town.

3.1 General information

Sapa is a district of Lao Cai province located in north-west Vietnam, close to the border with China. The town is 350 kilometres from Hanoi, the capital of Vietnam. Sapa has Fansipan Mountain, the highest peak in the Indochina Peninsula, which has been a popular trekking destination for tourists. In addition, a giant area is covered by thick forest with rich wildlife. It was developed as a nature conservation area which attracts many scientists, foresters and visitors. Sapa is also famous for breathtaking landscapes. At about 1,600 meters above sea level, the township of Sapa was built into a summer resort by the French colony. Hence, it is well-known as “Tonkinese Alps”. The magnificent scenery includes steeped high mountains with sharp cuts and large valleys, many streams of water, sloping terraced paddies. (Sapa 2011)

Sapa is the home of great diversity of ethnic minority people. According to Vietnamese national census 2009, there were six main ethnics in Sapa, namely Hmong (51.65%), Yao (23.04%), Kinh (ethnic Vietnamese) (17.91%), Tay (4.74%), Day (1.36%), Xa Pho (1.06%) and the rest (0.23%). The Kinh immigrating to the region mainly live in town and work in government offices, schools, hospital, enterprises (hotels, shops, restaurants). Meanwhile, other ethnics inhabit in small villages in the mountains and valleys around Sapa town. They earn their livings in agriculture, forest and handicrafts. The Hmong and Yao had practiced slash and burn agriculture which destroyed the nature until middle of 20th century. Nowadays, they change to intensive farming on sloping terraces planting rice and corn. Nevertheless, their farming is self-sufficient, coupled with harsh weather and climate conditions. Consequently, the productivity is not high which leads to food shortage. (Lao Cai 2012a).
Sapa is also attractive to tourists due to its characteristic of cultural diversity. Each minority group has their own languages and customs. They often gather and celebrate many cultural activities and festivals during the year such as “Gâu xtao” of the Hmong, “Lễ tết nhảy” của the Yao, “Xưởng động” the Day, “Mừng đuợc mùa” dance of the Xa Pho, “Hát then” of the Tay, “Ruốc đèn, mưa lăn, tê lê” of the Kinh. Besides, “Love market” is not only a market place but also a tradition of mountainous people. This social event is an opportunity for young villagers to find their matches. (Lao Cai 2012b)

Thanks to the development of tourism in the area for two decades, the local people have experienced great changes and gained valuable benefits. Sapa nowadays looks clean, well-managed and serviced. Hotels, restaurants and souvenir shops have been built. Physical infrastructure has been improved with e.g. spacious sidewalks, straightened streets, and underground storm water drain. This is rather contrary to 10 years ago when Sapa was seen as a dusty provincial Vietnamese hamlet. The streets were dark and quiet with street dogs at night. Even worse, the whole place was smelly under harsh sunlight (Michaud & Turner 2006, 791-792).

In fact, Sapa’s economics greatly depends on tourism industry. The total tourists arrivals to Sapa has increased from 200.024 in 2005 to 405.00 in 2009, making up of VND409 billion which
equals to about €15 million for the total tourists receipts (Appendix 1). Clearly, tourism has brought a huge economic benefit for the town development, and also a substantial increase in tourists receipts could be expected in the following years. The local government is also planning to continuously develop the town as a tourism destination for its future plan. (Lao Cai 2012c). However, the income level of Sapa residents is still considered as the lowest income area of the country. The income per capital level in Sapa is dived into 5 quintiles from the lowest level of VND197,100 to the highest level of VND1,739,100. The average income level of Sapa residents falls into VND549,600 which is less than 3 times compared to the lowest income quintile of urban areas (General Statistic Office 2010). The rate of poverty is high among other regions in the country with 24% in 2009. The reason why the area has the lowest average income is possibly due to the inconvenient geography with high mountains, separation and inadequacies of transportation infrastructure. (Household income report 2011).

3.2 Volunteer tourism in Sapa

Tourism development has improved the income of highlanders. On the other hand, it has negative impacts on the local community, especially children. They drop out of school to earn money through tourism activities such as selling handicrafts and guiding tours for tourists. Most of the children have little schooling, or they are even illiterate. Vietnam International Volunteer Placement Service (2010) reports that some children have to walk approximately 10 kilometres every day from their villages to Sapa town to sell trinkets and embroidery; others would sleep wherever they can.

To aid the needy locals, there are many organizations offering volunteer programs to both Vietnamese and international tourists. Sapa O’ Chau is one of the most popular organizations which are well-known by foreigners. The centre was established by Shu Tan, a young single mother from the Black Hmong tribe with the help of four Australian tourists. The mission of Sapa O’ Chau is to improve the standard of living of the minority through education, vocational training, and career opportunities. Besides that, the organization encourages local families to start up their own enterprises and participate more in tourism development in order to support the children continue their school for the long run. Based in Sapa town, Sapa O’ Chau centre have accommodated 35 students and daily supported above 70 students since January 2012. It comprises classrooms, an administration office, five dormitories, a kitchen and a vegetable garden. The students are signed up for free English, Vietnamese Literacy, Arts & Crafts and Life Skills classes. Vocational training is supplied through the centre’s activities and connections with local enterprises and NGOs. Volunteer tourists are organized individually into teaching English or Vietnamese, developing websites, writing articles, fundraising according to their skills and students’ needs. In addition, tourists can be hosted in the
Sapa O’ Chau homestay or join the students’ meals. The relationship between local residents and visitors is thus enhanced. (Sapaochau 2012).

Another community-based tourism training project is going on in three villages (Ta Phin, Lao Chai, Ta Van) of Sapa simultaneously. The project is a collaboration of PATA Foundation (Pacific Asia Travel Association) and Capilano University. The students and alumni of Capilano University volunteer faculty are working with students of Hanoi Open University to reinforce the capacity of the local ethnic groups, small business enterprises, village government, and community. Furthermore, participants in the projects cooperate with the youth and community leaders to find proactive solutions to minimize the harmful influence of tourism on local destinations. (Community Based Tourism Vietnam 2012).

There are also a great number of travel agencies, NGOs, associations organizing short-time trips or projects to aid Sapa. To illustrate, “volunteers in Vietnam” designs two-week programs to help hill tribe children in Sapa through teaching English, supporting local nurses or doctors, and constructing small buildings (Volunteerinvietnam 2008). VFCD (Volunteer for Community Development and Environment Education) is a non-profit volunteering organization based in Hanoi, Vietnam. Its projects focus on developing communities and promote natural conservation (Workcamp 2009). “Noi Vong Tay Lon” group went to Sapa to donate clothes, books, stationeries, toys to poor residents in Sapa (Vicongdong 2010)

In general, volunteer tourism activities have been increased in Sapa. The volunteer programs diversify in duration, area and type. However, how these voluntourism projects influence on local residents has been an important determinant for the need of additional volunteer tourism activities in the future.
4 Methodology

This chapter presents the methodology adopted to collect the data, which will be used to evaluate the three factors arisen from the literature review regarding the residents’ perceptions and their support towards volunteer tourism. The first section will present the position of research method applied in the study. As the greatest concern of quantitative research is about the honest answers from the respondents, a justification for the selection of quantitative method in the study is explained. Successively, the data collection procedure and data analysis procedures are described. As the largest concern of qualitative research is about the honesty answers from the respondents, a further section of this chapter will justify the reason for selecting quantitative method in the study. Finally the last section is going to examine the reliability and validity of the method.

4.1 Quantitative research position

Conventionally, social research methods are divided into two types: qualitative and quantitative. These two methods are in contrast to each other. While quantitative method involves numbers, quantities, qualitative methods rely on words, and images for data analysis (Veal 2011, 125). Henderson’s analysis finds out the dominance of quantitative method in the American leisure journals over the period 1992-2002. However, the use of qualitative method remains strong in British journals. In fact, these two approaches complement one another (Veal 2011, 36-37).

According to Veal (2011, 257), contemporary leisure and tourism are often mass phenomena in which quantified information is more reliable for governmental, non-profit and commercial organizations to make decisions. Furthermore, quantitative research is an effective tool of portraying a complete picture of a participant’s patterns in leisure and tourism environment which “encompass a wide range of activities, with a range of characteristic, such as frequency, duration and type of participation, expenditure, location, level of enjoyment and aspirations”. Supporting for this, Payne G. and Payne J. (2004, 183) state that for the basic frequencies about how many people experience certain condition, accurate counts are needed more than highly sophisticated and detailed studies. Developing numeric measures and studying the behaviour of individuals is paramount in quantitative methods in order to produce results that can be expressed as the “laws” of social behaviour (Creswell 2003, 7). Furthermore, questionnaire-based survey is probably the most common used method in leisure and tourism research because it is easily understood and mastered, also quantified statement is preferred by most executive (Veal 2011, 127).
The strength of quantitative research is used to examine the regularities of social behaviour rather than seeking out and interpreting the individuals’ interaction. Quantitative research operates with less detail than qualitative methods but with a wider scope and more generalized level (Payne G. & Payne J. 2004, 182). While qualitative methods are best suited for exploring attitudes, meanings and perceptions on an individual basis, quantitative in general and questionnaire survey in particular “provides the means to gather and record simple information on the incidence of attitudes, meanings and perceptions among the population as a whole, thus indicating not only that certain attitudes exists but also how widespread they are” (Veal 2011, 257). For this purpose, the study primarily wants to generalize the perceptions of residents in a specific area of Northern Vietnam towards volunteer tourism in their community.

Creswell (2003, 21) emphasizes that if the study problem is identifying factors that influence an outcome or understanding the best predictors of outcomes quantitative research is recommended. Hypotheses which are used in quantitative research are predictions of the researcher about the relationship among variables. They are numeric estimates of population values based on data collected from samples (Creswell 2003, 108). As such, based on the four hypotheses, the focus of this study is to identify the factors that affect the residents’ supports to the voluntourism activities in their community.

Another element to consider when choosing between quantitative or qualitative research is the influence from the previous studies about residents’ perceptions towards tourism (Fredline & Faulner 2000, McGehee & Andereck 2004, Andereck et al. 2005, Sharma & Dyer 2009, Brida et al. 2011, Latkova & Vogt 2011, Nunkoo & Ramkisson 2011 a&b, Vargas-Sanchez et al. 2011, Ward & Berno 2011). Since there does exist information that can be used as a foundation of the research’s questionnaire and later for the comparison of the results, a quantitative method is employed in this study. This is to ensure the objectivity of the study. Although absolute objectivity is impossible, the questionnaire method provides a transparent set and fairly structure of data which can be re-analysed by others if extending research or alternative interpretation is needed (Veal 2011, 257). While qualitative research generally concentrates on generating theories, quantitative approach focuses on theory testing. Researchers can test hypotheses over and over again in different settings and with different populations. Thus, theory is able to be developed at advance knowledge in particular fields (Creswell 2003, 119-121). The intent of this research, referring to a set of theory related to residents’ perceptions, is to investigate the applicability of the theory in Sapa residents.

4.2 Data collection procedure
In this section, the study location is described. Firstly, an overview picture about the town of Sapa and the situation of volunteer tourism activities in the town are presented. Following, the survey method and study sample are addressed. The measurement of variables is successively examined in order to ensure the survey is handled in a proper academic way.

4.2.1 Survey method and study sample

Data collection was preceded with a questionnaire survey. Since both of the authors could not fly back to the home country during this time (January and February 2012), the survey was managed by the help of a friend who is currently taking part in one volunteer project in the town. The survey was conducted in two approaches: face-to-face interview and mail delivery. Both approaches have advantages and disadvantages. Hence, using two approaches will compensate for the disadvantages of the other. On one hand, a face-to-face interview has an advantage of giving more accurate and immediate responses from the interviewees. On the other hand, it may consume a substantial amount of time from the interviewers (Veal 2011, 260). Moreover, the participants’ responses are possibly biased by the interviewers’ personality and influence (Sharma & Dyer 2009, 196). Concurrently, a mail survey was regarded as having the problem of low response rates; the best advantage of this approach is the capacity of involving a large sample of respondents. It is also very helpful for the participants to be given the opportunity to “have their say” in an anonymous way (Veal 2011, 268).

A total of 160 hand-delivered questionnaires were directed to Sapa residents. 20 of them were interviewed face-to-face. The questions were strictly aligned with the design questionnaire. There was only a minor explanation from the interviewers in case the respondents wanted to clarify more the questions. The sample was chosen randomly and at least 18-year-old participants were approached. The interviews were conducted in the market of Sapa town because Sapa town is the most diversified town which provided the interviewer more opportunities to contact with the locals. Each interview lasted about 10-15 minutes.

The rest 140 questionnaires were sent via mail attached with stamped pre-addressed return envelops randomly to every two households of a street in Sapa town. The survey was undertaken between December 2011 and February 2012. After the first three weeks, if the selected participants had not replied, they would be sent a reminder mail. In return, there were 87 responses received, of which 12 were uncompleted. As such the response rate in the case was approximately 62%. With 20 questionnaires completed by face-to-face interview, totally there were 107 responses received.

4.2.2 Measurement of variables
The designed questionnaire (Appendix 2) is mostly derived from the questionnaire of several authors as below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Question number</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Residents' characteristics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Modified from McGehee &amp; Andereck (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of residency</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude towards voluntourism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic impacts</td>
<td>8-12</td>
<td>Modified from Brida, Osti &amp; Faccioli (2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socio-cultural impacts</td>
<td>13-22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation of impacts</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Modified from Pham &amp; Kayat (2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support for voluntourism</td>
<td>24-28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Measurement of variables

In the first section of the questionnaire, demographic characteristics consist of 7 items considered as potential predictor variables of attitudes namely age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, length of stay, income, education.

In order to measure local community’s perception and support to voluntourism, a series of 21 items was evolved and measured by four-point agreement scale in the next sections. 1 represents “totally disagree”, 2 stands for “disagree”, 3 symbolizes “agree” and 4 “totally agree”. Andereck et al. (2005, 1064) suggest that the “neutral” or “do not know” category should not be included because participants’ perceptions rather than factual knowledge were meant to be measured. From the reviewed literature, four items are identified to measure how residents perceive economic impacts of voluntourism. They comprised of increasing standard of living, attracting more investment, creating more jobs. Personal economic benefit from voluntourism is measured by statement 11.

Regarding perceived socio-cultural benefits, ten items were identified with four variables from “strongly disagreement” to “strongly agree”. At the end of each sections (economic and socio-cultural impacts), a statement was presented to measure the positive and negative influences of voluntourism. Additionally, the general balance between benefits and costs of volunteer tourism is measured with one statement.
Lastly, five items as types of tourism development were added to measure perceived power to influence of respondents. According to Andereck and Vogt (2000, in Nunkoo & Gursoy 2011, 11), “asking residents their level of support/opposition for different types of tourism development is considered to be an ideal way to measure the construct”.

4.2.3 Analysis procedure

SPSS programme was used to analyse the collected data. The software allows a researcher to create complex graphs and illustrations from statistical data. With SPSS, hundreds of different variables can be tested to evaluate how figures or performance would change under different circumstances.

Before entering the information from the questionnaire into SPSS, all the responses were coded. The entire data was first accessed into Excel and then analysed with SPSS software. Simple descriptive statistical tools such as frequency distribution graphs, percentage analysis, bar charts and cross tabulation were extensively applied to study the residents’ perceptions mentioned in the research question. For finding the relationship between two ordinal variables, Pearson correlation test is suggested (Veal 2011, 466). This is accompanied with scatterplot. These tools were chosen for easier explanations and comparison.

4.2.4 Reliability and Validity

Payne G. and Payne J. (2004, 196) propose two main questions about the credibility of a research:

The first addresses whether we would get similar results if the study were repeated. The second question is more challenging: even if the same results were obtained, would they be right, i.e. have we actually measure what we needed to look at, in a way that accurately captures its characteristic? The first question is about reliability, the second about validity.

Reliability is about the replicable of the study results. For reducing the reliability threat of the research, care was taken to make sure the questions are understood in the same way by all the respondents. Thus, the questions were simplified at most. Ambiguity, bias and leading questions were avoided while designing the questionnaire. The questionnaire is also managed strictly to be within the purpose of the study. All the variables in the study are imported from various studies of previous articles about residents’ perceptions towards tourism in general. According to Payne G. and Payne J. (2004, 199), it is generally supported that quantitative research is better at handling reliability on a practical level.
Validity determines the faithfulness of the results. Validity is grouped into internal and external validity. Internal validity is about the survey procedures, the experiences as well as the characteristics of the participants. External validity is concerned with the applicability of the findings beyond the subjects of the research (Creswell 2003, 171). Payne G. and Payne J. (2004, 235) indicate three level of validity tests. The most demanding is predictive validity, which requires being able to predict in advance that if one thing happens subsequently with another. Theoretical element is involved in the test. Following this, the responsibility of this study is to test the social exchange theory as the main prediction for the study result. The second test is referred to as practical test covering the survey procedures to ensure the truthfulness of the study. Veal (2001, 308) claims that people may be reluctant to provide information or provide incomplete, inaccurate information on private/sensitive matters. Also the natural desire to impress others of human being results in exaggeration of good points and down-playing bad points. In order to minimize these flaws, the study has taken into account the coding of the questions, the clarity of language and the risk of non-responses. The last validity test is actually about the consistency or reliability of the result, which called concurrent validity.

Veal (2011, 310) mentions that if actual information can be managed, questions in regard to the validity of responses on attitudes and aspirations may arise the problems of validity in the research. Therefore, validity problems should be taken into account in questionnaire based data. In addition, the number of received respondents in this survey is only 107 of which it is not surely representative sample of the whole population of Sapa.

Overall, this chapter has presented the methodology adopted by this study, featuring both advantages as well as disadvantages that can arise when apply theoretical data into empirical findings. The next chapter will present the analysis of data collected by the researchers.
5  Data analysis and findings

The chapter 5 is to present the findings and analyse the data collected in the survey. The results are discussed in six separate parts. The first two parts depict the descriptive results of respondents’ profile and their perceptions towards volunteer tourism. The relationship between economic level and residents’ perception is figured out in part four. Afterwards, part five is intended to explore how locals’ perception relates to socio-cultural exchange. Whether the involvement level of host community and their perceptions are interdependent is investigated in part six. Finally, examining the correlation between the perception of residents and support for voluntourism is the aim of the last part.

5.1  Profile of respondents

This part includes four tables listing the frequency and percentage of each variable in every item. Along with them are some explanations for the results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>51,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>48,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td>Mong</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>47,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yao</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kinh</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tay</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Day</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Xa Pho</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing responses</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>Not married</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>40,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>59,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing responses</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Gender, ethnicity and marital status of respondents (N=107)

The results for the residential social factors are analyzed by descriptive technique which is shown in table 1. The proportion of female and male in the sample are fairly equal, 48,6% and 51,4% respectively. Among them, 59,2% are married while 40,8% are unmarried. In terms of ethnic background, the proportion of Mong ethnic group was dominant in the sample (47,1%),
followed by Kinh (15.4%), Yao (16.3%), Tay (11.5%), Day (4.8%) and Xa Pho (4.8%). From the case description above, Mong ethnic group constitutes the largest number in Sapa. That explained why the majority of respondents are Mong.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Less than 20 years</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20-30 years</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>31.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31-40 years</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>31.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-50 years</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Over 50 years</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of residency</td>
<td>Less than 1 year</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16-20 years</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Over 20 years</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>44.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing responses</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Age and length of residency of respondents (N=107)

Age cohorts are classified into 5 groups as less than 20 years (12.1%), 20-30 years (31.8%), 31-40 years (31.8%), 41-50 years (15.9%) and over 50 years (8.4%). Furthermore, the results show that the majority of respondents have been residing in the area for over 20 years with 44.3%. This indicates most of residents in Sapa are long-time inhabitants. The others may be considered as immigrants due to the economic revolution 15 years ago. Besides, the percentage of immigrants to Sapa who have been living there for 1-5 years occupied 19.8% of the total. 16-20 year length of residency is slightly lower with 17.9% which is almost double the percentage of people inhabiting 11-15 years in the town. The last two groups were 6-10 years and less than 1 year of residency with 6.6% and 2.8% respectively.
Table 6: Income of respondents (N=106)

Monthly income of the participants is indicated by six categories from less than VND200.000 to more than VND2.000.000. As can be seen, 42.5% earn from VND200.001 to VND500.000 which is the largest group. This income group is also the most representative income group of Sapa residents. Following is 17.9% of total participants who have VND500.001-1.000.000 income. Another noticeable variable is “below VND200000” which comprises 16%. The category “VND1.000.001-VND1.500.000” and “above VND2.000.000” are equivalent with 6.6% while “VND1.500.001-VND2.000.000” consists of 10.4%.

Table 7: Highest education of respondents (N=104)

Lastly, respondents having secondary school diploma as highest education constitutes 26.9% which is slightly higher the percentage of respondents possessing elementary education level (22.1%). Both “no formal education” and “high school” are composed of 18.3% each. College degree respondents occupies 11.5% and 2.9% of study participants have university degree. The overall picture reflects the limited capacity to education access of Sapa residents. The majority of the respondents (67.3%) is only attending from secondary school and below.

5.2 Residents’ perceptions towards volunteer tourism

The following tables reveal the responses to 21 statements about perceptions towards volunteer tourism impacts by the percentage of each scales, means and standard deviation. The
items are divided into three sections economic impacts, socio-cultural impacts and voluntourism development support. As can be seen from these tables below, almost all responses concentrate in scale 2 and 3 which are “disagree” and “agree”. Hence, residents have moderate perceptions toward volunteer tourism impacts and level of willingness to support for voluntourism development.

5.2.1 Residents’ perceptions towards economic impacts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly disagree (%)</th>
<th>Disagree (%)</th>
<th>Agree (%)</th>
<th>Strongly disagree (%)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In term of economic effects, residents have tendency to disagree that volunteer tourism brings benefits to local economy (m=2,476) because 46.6% of respondents are against the statement. In addition, most of the participants agree that the economic benefits are only brought to a small group of people (m=2,505). 57% of respondents do not see that voluntourism attracts investment to their community. Remarkably, 43% disagree that voluntourism projects have helped to increase their standard of living which makes the mean score rather low (1,972). Nevertheless, 48.6% believe that volunteer tourism create more jobs for local residents which is highest score in this section. All in all, volunteer tourism appears to bring benefits to local community to some extent. Notwithstanding, the respondents do not have favourable attitude towards economic impacts of voluntourism.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly disagree (%)</th>
<th>Disagree (%)</th>
<th>Agree (%)</th>
<th>Strongly disagree (%)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic impacts</td>
<td>VT projects have helped increase our family’ standard of living.</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>43.0</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT has attracted more investments to our community</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>37.4</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT brings economic benefits to a small group of people</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT creates more jobs for people in the community</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In general, VT benefits to our local economy</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>46.7</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing responses 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: Voluntourism economic perception items and composite scales (N=107)
5.2.2 Residents’ perceptions towards socio-cultural exchange

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly disagree (%)</th>
<th>Disagree (%)</th>
<th>Agree (%)</th>
<th>Strongly agree (%)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contact with volunteer tourists from all over the country and from abroad is definitely a valuable experience</td>
<td>12,1</td>
<td>30,8</td>
<td>43,0</td>
<td>14,0</td>
<td>2,589</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VT has helped to improve the facility of our community</td>
<td>14,0</td>
<td>31,8</td>
<td>41,1</td>
<td>13,1</td>
<td>2,533</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VT encourages a wide variety of cultural activities (craft, art and music)</td>
<td>3,7</td>
<td>43,0</td>
<td>47,7</td>
<td>5,6</td>
<td>2,551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voluntourists exert an undesirable effect on the way on locals habits</td>
<td>8,4</td>
<td>72,0</td>
<td>19,6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2,112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VT causes changes in the traditions and culture of our community</td>
<td>11,2</td>
<td>58,9</td>
<td>29,9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2,187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voluntourists are interested in learning the culture of Sapa</td>
<td>1,9</td>
<td>36,4</td>
<td>56,1</td>
<td>5,6</td>
<td>2,654</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>During the interaction with voluntourists I learn about their culture</td>
<td>7,5</td>
<td>34,6</td>
<td>49,5</td>
<td>8,4</td>
<td>2,589</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VT causes security and crime problems</td>
<td>15,9</td>
<td>63,6</td>
<td>19,6</td>
<td>0,9</td>
<td>2,056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our culture is presented to voluntourists in an authentic way</td>
<td>5,7</td>
<td>28,3</td>
<td>59,4</td>
<td>6,6</td>
<td>2,670</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In general, VT brings positive effects towards our local society and culture</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>29,0</td>
<td>55,1</td>
<td>15,9</td>
<td>2,869</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9: Voluntourism socio-cultural perception items and composite scales (N=107)

As for socio-cultural influence, the respondents obviously perceive positive impacts of volunteer tourism to local society and culture (m=2,869) with 55,1% agree, 15,9% strongly agree, 29% disagree and nobody strongly disagrees with the statement. Table 6 demonstrates that the proportion of sample consent with the socio-cultural benefits of voluntourism is over 40% in each statement. Especially, 59,4% of respondents admit that local culture is presented
authentically. This finding indicates that volunteer tourism has increased their pride in local
culture. 72% oppose the undesirable effects of voluntourism on locals’ habit is another signifi-
cant point. Simultaneously, the majority of participants refuse that volunteer tourism is the
cause of security and crime problems (63,8%) and change the traditions, culture of host com-
community (58,9%). As a result, it seems voluntourism has not had major negative impacts on host
residents’ society and culture. Even better, volunteer tourism encourages cultural activities
and interaction with voluntourists.

5.2.3 Residents’ perceptions towards the benefits and costs of voluntourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly disagree (%)</th>
<th>Disagree (%)</th>
<th>Agree (%)</th>
<th>Strongly agree (%)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall, the benefits of VT are greater than the costs for the local population</td>
<td>6,5</td>
<td>32,7</td>
<td>38,3</td>
<td>22,4</td>
<td>2,766</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10: Perception of benefits and costs voluntourism (N=107)

Another prominent finding of this survey is that most respondents tend to perceive the bene-
fits exceed the costs of volunteer tourism (m=2,766). The percentage of the sample agree and
strongly agree with the statement is 60,7% in total. On the other hand, 32,7% do not concur
and 6,5% are strongly disagreeable to the statement. It shows clearly that the sample has
gained more benefits than costs of volunteer tourism.
5.2.4 Residents’ perceptions towards voluntourism development support

Every statement in the last section is agreed by a large percentage of study participants (m>2,5). Those residents suggest that there should be more volunteer tourists (56,1% totally) and support from authority for voluntourism development (64,5% totally). More importantly, the locals are willing to support volunteer tourism projects by sharing their accommodation and show historical, cultural events to voluntourists (57%; 61,7% respectively). The last major finding is that surveyed residents are even obliging to take part in future planning for volunteer tourism in Sapa region with 50,9% agree and 13,2 strongly agree with the statement. In contrast, there are a few number of people passive in planning for voluntourism planning with 35,9% totally. Generally speaking, the respondents are pleased to support and involve in planning for voluntourism development.

In terms of the mean score of respondents’ ratings, among 21 statements, there are six statements opposed by the respondents (m<2,5). Three of them are in the economic impact section. The first item (VT increases standard of living) has the lowest mean score which is only 1,972. The mean score of second statement is higher (m=2,364). This leads to the unfavoured perception towards economic effects of voluntourism (m=2,476). The other three statements which are about effects on locals’ habit, cultural change, and crime cause are refused by most of participants (m=2,112; m=2,187; m=2,056 respectively).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly disagree (%)</th>
<th>Disagree (%)</th>
<th>Agree (%)</th>
<th>Strongly agree (%)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am willing to see more tourists as volunteers in the town</td>
<td>7,5</td>
<td>36,4</td>
<td>34,6</td>
<td>21,5</td>
<td>2,701</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am willing to share my accommodation with volunteers</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>41,1</td>
<td>15,9</td>
<td>2,579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am willing to present more cultural and historical events to tourists</td>
<td>7,5</td>
<td>30,8</td>
<td>42,1</td>
<td>19,6</td>
<td>2,738</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The authority should support VT development in Sapa region</td>
<td>2,8</td>
<td>32,7</td>
<td>42,1</td>
<td>22,4</td>
<td>2,841</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am willing to be a part of tourism planning for Sapa in the future</td>
<td>1,9</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>50,9</td>
<td>13,2</td>
<td>2,755</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing responses 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11: Voluntourism development support perception items and composite scales (N=107)
Among 15 agreed statements, statement 15 gains the peak mean score (m=2,869) which reveals that local residents receive more benefits than cost in socio-cultural exchange. The second leading mean score is of item 20 (m=2,841). Accordingly, the residents clearly need more support from the authority to develop volunteer tourism projects in Sapa area. Statement 16, 17, 19 and 21 have the mean score approximately 2.7. The mean score of the other statements is roughly 2.5 and 2.6.

To sum up, it can be seen obviously that volunteer tourism does not bring about economic benefits to local community. In spite of that fact, they perceive the upside of voluntourism is greater than the downside. Side by side, socio-cultural exchange in voluntourism is perceived positively by most of respondents. Thus, it is reflected by their willingness to back the development of volunteer tourism. Last thing is that authority’s support is highly important in the progress of voluntourism in Sapa in respondents’ opinion.

5.3 Residents’ perceptions in relation to economic level

This part is going to examine the hypothesis 2 of the study which presents the relationship between the economic dependency of the respondents on voluntourism and their perceived benefits of its activities. The measurement of economic dependency used in this study is income level. In order to test the hypothesis, the income level is placed in comparison with the perceived economic benefit and the overall voluntourism benefit in which the perceived economic benefit of the respondents shows their level of economic dependency on voluntourism.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>% within income</th>
<th>Economic benefit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>Below 200000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>200001-500000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>500001-1000000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1000001-1500000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1500001-2000000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Above 2000000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8,7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12: Crosstabulation of income and economic benefit (N=104)
As can be seen from the table, with 5.9% “strongly disagree” and 17.6% “disagree” that counts for 23.6% in total, the lowest income group level is the group that least disagrees with the statement. This group also holds the highest “strongly agree” rate with the economic benefit of voluntourism at 29.4%. The reason could be that the target group of voluntourism projects in Sapa is mainly for this group as being mentioned in the case description. This is the group of which economic level of the respondents somewhat depends on voluntourism. Therefore as a result, the majority of respondents in this group see an economic contribution of voluntourism to their situation. However, the gap of disagreement and agreement between the lowest income level and other groups is quite large. The disagreement (disagree and strongly disagree) differences of the income group below VND 200,000 and the other groups are 30.9%; 44.9%; 33.5%; 58.2% and 26.4% respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly disagree (%)</th>
<th>Disagree (%)</th>
<th>Agree (%)</th>
<th>Strongly disagree (%)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 200000</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>58.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200001-500000</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500001-1000000</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>47.4</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000001-1500000</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1500001-2000000</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 2000000</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13: Crosstabulation of income and voluntourism benefit (N=107)

As being pointed out in the previous table, the group of income level below VND 200,000 is the group at some extend economically depends on voluntourism. In this table 5, the group also presents the least disagreement with the statement of overall voluntourism benefits. There are only 5.9% of respondents in this group at “disagree” level and no one presents at the stage of “strongly disagree”. This suggests that there is the relationship between the economic dependency of the respondents on voluntourism and their perceived benefits of its activities. In other words, the ones who have economically dependent on voluntourism will likely perceive its benefit. The hypothesis 2 is hence supported.
However, the gap of disagreement and agreement between the lowest income level and other groups is still significant. The disagreement (disagree and strongly disagree) differences of the income group below VND 200.000 and the other groups are 38.6%; 46.7%; 22.7%; 39.6% and 37% respectively. As this big gap also appears in the previous table, this shows a strong influence of economic dependency on the respondents’ perceptions of the benefits of voluntourism. The support for the hypothesis 2 is therefore strengthened.

5.4 Residents’ perceptions in relation to socio-cultural exchange

The aim of the section is to test the hypothesis 3 which states that the residents who perceive a positive socio-culture exchange of voluntourism will likely to perceive its benefit. As being discussed in the literature review, the conceptual thinking of socio-cultural exchange might be influenced by the residential social factors. In this study, some of residential factors are examined consisting of age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, length of residency, income and level of education. The table below exhibits the mean scores of different residential social factors towards the perceived socio-cultural benefits of voluntourism.

Furthermore, based on the frequency of respondents to socio-cultural benefit of voluntourism by residential characteristic, there are some findings being noticed (Appendix 3):

- There is little difference in frequency of respondents by gender (male 2,800; female 2,942), ethnicity (Mong 2,735; Yao 3,063), marital status (unmarried 2,786; married 2,902), and income (VND500.001-1.000.000 group 2,737; VND1.000.001-1.500.000 group 3,143).

- In the category of age, the oldest group of over 50 years is the least supportive the statement of socio-cultural benefits of voluntourism and the most supportive group is the youngest group of less than 20 years (over 50 years 2,556; less than 20 years 3,154).

- Regarding the length of residency, people who are living in Sapa less than 1 year are less in favour of the positive impacts of the socio-cultural aspect of voluntourism while there is little difference in frequency of respondents from other groups (less than 1 year 2,333; the rest around from 2,762-3,000).

- In term of education, people who hold university level disagree most with the statement while there is little difference in frequency of respondents from other groups (university 2,333; the rest around from 2,739-3,105).
Among of them, the most noticeable result is the relationship between age and socio-cultural benefit.

% within age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Disagree (%)</th>
<th>Agree (%)</th>
<th>Strongly disagree (%)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 20</td>
<td>15,4</td>
<td>53,8</td>
<td>30,8</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>26,5</td>
<td>47,1</td>
<td>26,5</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>32,4</td>
<td>58,8</td>
<td>8,8</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>29,4</td>
<td>64,7</td>
<td>5,9</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 50</td>
<td>44,4</td>
<td>55,6</td>
<td></td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>29,0</strong></td>
<td><strong>55,1</strong></td>
<td><strong>15,9</strong></td>
<td><strong>100,0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14: Crosstabulation of age and socio-cultural benefit (N=107)

The above table shows the differences via cross tabulation the way the various age groups react towards perceived socio-cultural benefits. There are only 15,4% of respondents in the age less than 20 years disagree with the statement. 26,5% and 32,4% are the disagreement percentage of respondents in 20-30 years and 31-40 years. A small reduction of 3% falls to the group of 41-50 years and the percentage of disagreement jumps up to 44,4% with the over 50 year old group. At 44,4% this group presents as the group have the highest disagreement rate in the category. The over 50 years old group also holds the lowest percentage of agreement at 55,6% and there is no “strongly agree”. Overall, the finding suggests that the older the respondents are, the more he or she shows the disagreement to the perceived socio-cultural benefits of voluntourism. In this study, age reveals is the only residential social factor that has an influence to the respondents’ perceptions.

For testing the hypothesis 3, the figure 8 illustrates the relationship between the perceived socio-cultural exchange and perceived overall voluntourism benefit based on scatterplot. The upward line in the graph shows that there is a positive relationship between the variables.
The strength of the relationship is examined by Pearson correlation as in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Socio-cultural benefit</th>
<th>Voluntourism benefit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Socio-cultural</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>benefit</td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voluntourism</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>benefit</td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 15: Relationship between socio-cultural benefit and overall voluntourism benefit

To interpret a correlation between 0 and 1, a correlation of 0 indicates no relationship at all and a correlation of 1.0 indicates a perfect positive correlation. Cohen (1988, in Pallant 2010, 134) suggests the following guideline for Pearson Correlation:

- Small $r = .10$ to $.29$
- Medium $r = .30$ to $.49$
- Large $r = .50$ to $1.0$
The r = above .6 in this correlations demonstrates a positive relationship between perceived socio-cultural benefits and voluntourism benefits. In other words, the more a respondent perceives a gain in socio-cultural exchange, the more likely he or she will agree that voluntourism has more positive than negative impacts. As such, the hypothesis 3 is strongly supported.

5.5 Residents’ perceptions in relation to level of involvement

The section is putting the hypothesis 4 in testing. The hypothesis assumes that the residents who perceive the benefits of voluntourism will likely want to be involved in its planning process. Pearson correlation is again employed to examine the relationship between perceived overall voluntourism benefit and the wish for planning participant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Voluntourism benefit</th>
<th>Planning participant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Voluntourism benefit</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning participant</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 16: Relationship between voluntourism benefit and planning participant

The r=above 2 points out that there is low relationship between the perceived benefits of voluntourism and the expectation to be more involved in future planning. The expectation to be involved in future planning is not influenced by the perceived benefits of voluntourism. The figure 9 below provides a weak relationship between the variables as the distance of the lowest value and the highest value of the line in the graph that either the variable can take is very narrow. The hypothesis 4 is therefore lightly supported.
However, a surprising result from the statistic is the relationship between age and the willingness of voluntourism planning participation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>% within age</th>
<th>Planning participant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Less than 20 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20-30 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31-40 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-50 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Over 50 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 17: Crosstabulation of age and planning participant (N=106)

As the table displays, the older the respondent is the less likely he or she wants to take part in the planning phase. The percentage of disagreement arises constantly from 15, 4% for the group less than 20 years to 66,7% of the group over 50 years. Also, while the group of less than 20 years reaches the highest percentage of strongly agree with the statement at 38, 5%, this scale does not happen for the group over 50 years. In contrast, they present as the group having the biggest percentage of strongly disagreement at 11,1%. This finding consistently aligns with the previous finding of the relationship between age and perceived socio-cultural benefit. The older the respondent is the less likely he or she perceives the positive impact of
voluntourism in terms of its socio-cultural aspect. As a result, they are also the group who less likely want to be involved in the voluntourism development planning of the community.

5.6 Residents’ perceptions in relation to support for voluntourism

The part is testing the hypothesis 1 which presents that residents who perceive the benefits of voluntourism will have tendency to support its activities. The table below investigates this relationship based on the four predictions of supporting, namely: expecting more voluntourists and more authority support for voluntourism in the town as well as the willingness to share own accommodation and local culture to the guests.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Voluntourism benefit</th>
<th>More voluntourists</th>
<th>Accommodation sharing</th>
<th>Cultural sharing</th>
<th>Authority support</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Voluntourism benefit</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.659**</td>
<td>.434**</td>
<td>.481*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.551**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 18: Relationship between voluntourism benefits and support for its activities (N=107)

The table shows the Pearson Correlation between the perceived benefits of voluntourism and the support for its activities of Sapa respondents. The r1 correlation of perceived voluntourism benefits and expecting more voluntourists in the town is above .6 and r4 correlation of perceived voluntourism benefits and expecting more authority support is above .5. This suggests a strong correlation between these variables. The r2 correlation of perceived voluntourism benefits and accommodation sharing and r3 correlation of perceived voluntourism benefits and cultural sharing are both above .4, which implies a moderate relationship between the variables. The result displays that the more respondents perceive the positive impacts of voluntourism, the more they are willing to support its activities. A clear illustration can be seen from the figure 10 below.
The finding reveals that the hypothesis 1 is supported.

Furthermore, as can be recognized from the table:

Concerning to the act of the residents themselves, r2 and r3 are in the medium range of Pearson correlation, but concerning to the act of others (voluntourists, government) r1 and r4 are in the Pearson correlation’s large scale.

This appears that the respondents seem to expect the act from others more than actively being engaged themselves in the supporting phase. As such, a planned action from local government and other organizations is needed to be taken care properly and carefully in order to excite the residents’ act at a more commitment level.
6 Conclusion

This final chapter is to conclude the whole study. The discussion on hypotheses is in the first part. From the conclusion of the hypotheses testing, research question and conceptual framework are discussed and sum up. Based on the previous parts of the chapter, implication is suggested for planning in the future. Finally, the chapter is ended with limitation and recommendation for future study.

6.1 Discussion on the hypotheses

The aim of the study is to understand how the residents’ perceptions can influence their support to volunteer tourism. In order to clarify this aim, four hypotheses have been presented in the study. The testing result from the previous chapter shows that all the hypotheses are supported; however the level of supporting for each hypothesis is at different level. While hypotheses 1, 2 and 3 are strongly agreed, hypothesis 4 is slightly approved.

Regarding the hypothesis 2, it reveals that residents who have economic dependency will be likely to perceive its benefit. The lowest income group of below VND200.000 is the group that most agrees with the economic benefits of voluntourism and also the group that holds the highest agreement percentage of the overall benefits of voluntourism. As mentioned in the case description part, the foremost purpose of tourism in Sapa is poverty alleviation. The poorest group of income below VND200.000 is considered as the main target group of any tourism stimulation. Under this act, voluntourism is not an exception. In fact, this has been valued as the economic helper for this group to some extent. The personal economic benefit could be seen as the strong indicator of perceiving voluntourism benefits since the study discovers a big gap of benefit perception between this income group and others. In the study of Kayat (2002), he finds out that the “no power” respondents are the one who strongly support the tourism activities in their community since for them money and material wealth is so important that other negative impacts are neglected. This could be used as the explanation for the Sapa residents’ perceptions as well.

With respect to the relationship between socio-cultural exchange and voluntourism attitude, the hypothesis 3 is supported. However, most of the residents’ characteristic variables do not predict perception of the voluntourism impact. The only one exception in this study is age. The study finds out that the older the respondent is, the less likely he or she is to agree with the positive socio-cultural impact of voluntourism. A possible explanation might be that as the residents get older, they will become increasingly cognizant of negative community impacts. It is mentioned in the literature review that the older group is considered the most
community oriented group as they care for community values which might be degraded by the act of tourism (William & Lawson 2001, 283). The presence of voluntourism which is often believed as the new horizon of hosts-guests’ engagement in socio-cultural exchange seems not to really convince this most community oriented group. Indeed, they still reveal a certain doubt with the socio-cultural benefits of voluntourism.

Another noticeable result is that although the economic benefit of volunteer tourism is not well recognized by the majority of the respondents, its socio-cultural benefit is highly evaluated at the highest mean score among the statements and in general, the respondents are giving a positive attitude towards the overall benefits of voluntourism in their community. However, with 39.2% disagree and 60.8% agree with the statement, there is a tendency of ambiguity among residents about the voluntourism’s favour (Table 10). The possible explanations could be that: (1) Although the Sapa residents in general are so pleased with the perceived socio-cultural impact of voluntourism, its economic contribution still makes many of them wonder the voluntourism’s overall benefit; (2) As mentioned in the previous paragraph, the positive socio-cultural impacts of voluntourism is also being doubted by many experienced residents who have been going through with many tourism programmes in the community.

The hypothesis 4 testing the relationship between residents’ perceived benefits of voluntourism and the willingness to be involved in voluntourism planning is lightly supported. This means a perceived voluntourism benefits is still greatly uncertain that whether the respondent wants to be involved in voluntourism planning. The study finds out that the three groups which are presenting the most disagreement to participate in voluntourism planning have no formal education (73, 7%), elementary school (43, 5%) and university level (50%) (Appendix 4). The explanation for the discomfort to participate in local development plan of the two groups no formal education and elementary school could be due to the low level of education, these people are not confident with their knowledge to be part of the so-called “decision making process”. For the university level, it is a questionable result for the researchers. Since the frequency of this level in the study presents only 3 times out of 104 responses. It is hardly to be considered as representative sample for this group.

The testing of the hypothesis 1 of the relationship between perceived benefit and support for voluntourism development holds true in this study. This illustrates the concept of social exchange theory, that is, there is a relationship between personal gain and support for development. However this finding is particularly interesting in that the majority of respondents do not have the personal economic gain from volunteer tourism. Their gain mostly is shown in the socio-cultural part although in fact, Sapa residents do still need financial trigger to improve their living standard. As being mentioned in the case description, the income level of
Sapa residents is very low compared to other regions of the country. Therefore, their support for voluntourism in the town means that the citizens have an expectation and vested interest in development.

6.2 Discussion on the research question and conceptual framework

The research question of the study is: How can the residents’ perceptions influence their support to the voluntourism projects in their community? The study uses economic dependency and perceived socio-cultural impact as the predictors of residents’ attitudes towards voluntourism. These predictors are measured based on the social exchange theory. Nevertheless, support for social exchange theory is mixed in this study. Residents who perceive the benefits of voluntourism are at the same time ready to support for its development but less active in its planning. McGehee & Andereck (2004) use these two concepts as synonym in assuming residents’ reactions towards tourism in their research. They imply that residents who show their support for tourism development also involve in tourism planning. However, in this study, the same assumption does not happen. Many residents are reluctant to take part in planning process even though they are supportive its activities. The concern for the research is to encourage residents be part of this stage because this is as important as building the foundation for sustainable tourism. The social exchange theory only generalizes that those who perceive to receive more benefit than cost in one trade will be willing to enter this exchange but do not mention at which level the exchange is taken place.

The Sapa respondents show a positive attitude towards voluntourism in general. However, an ambiguity among the residents has happened. As described by Smith & Krannich (1998), this is called “tourism-realized” type. Volunteer tourism’s expectation as the solution of poverty alleviation and sustainable tourism happens to reveal its shortcoming in the residents’ perceptions. When voluntourism is just a part of the whole tourism policy of the town, the residents’ perceptions towards tourism in general might affect their perceptions and their support towards voluntourism as well. Therefore, if the residents do not see the difference between voluntourism and other kinds of tourism that are also happening in the town, they cannot justify their opinions. This remains concern for the study when doing research about an area which is experiencing different types of tourism activities at the same time. However, what the study discovers is that the Sapa residents show an unconditional interest in voluntourism development in their community which plays an influential role in their support. The underlying reason for this could due to the great economic dependency of the town to tourism in general, so that the residents do not want to miss an opportunity with voluntourism which might also bring more benefit to them in the future.

The conceptual framework of the study is clarified after the revealed results as below:
6.3 Implication for planning

From the literature point of view, this study enriches the literature sources and provides references for similar studies. Utilizing social exchange theory as a theoretical framework, a conceptual model and proposing hypotheses are developed to assist voluntourism organizations in identifying the tendency of their support for voluntourism activities.

Based on the preceding theoretical discussion, the support of local community plays an important role in the development of tourism. Gursoy, Jurowski and Uysal (2002, 98) emphasize that “a friendly, hospitable local population is a critical factor in the success of the tourism industry”. As a result, it is vital for policy makers and tours operators to understand the fac-

Figure 11: Conceptual framework of Sapa residents’ perceptions towards voluntourism
tors affecting residents’ support for tourism progress. In addition, if the residents do not approve the proposed development plan, its investment will probably meet strong disagreement. The result of this study is therefore to help tourism planners get a glimpse of Sapa residents’ perceptions towards voluntourism projects for future practical implications.

On one hand, the results indicated that residents who perceive the benefits from voluntourism will tend to support for its activities. On the other hand, the findings surprisingly showed the respondents expect the contribution and support from external parties rather than actively participating in the process. The leading role of authority and voluntourists are therefore inevitable in encouraging residents to support voluntourism. Consequently, local authority and volunteer tourists should approach and offer local people their most demand first.

However, even though the residents are very supportive for voluntourism development, they quite hesitate to get involved in the planning process of voluntourism in the town. The search revealed that level of education plays a very important role in this decision. Therefore, the projects which focus on education aspects such as formal education and vocational training should be more emphasized so that the residents are able to be equipped with necessary education level. As a result, they might be able to gain more confidence in willingness to participate in the planning stage of voluntourism projects in their community. This involvement is very imperative because local participation is the key element of any community-based development, including volunteer tourism. Referring to the ladder of community influence (Swarbrooker 2004, 126), the involvement of Sapa residents is just at the very first step of the ladder. As such, there are a big room of improvement to reach to the higher level which requires a lot of effort from local government to be able to gain trust, confidence and support of the residents.

The study also implies that economic dependency has impacts on residents’ support for voluntourism to some extent. In other words, when local income depends on the voluntourism, local community perceives its economic benefits and thus tends to support it. According to stakeholder theory, as long as the interest of the stakeholders is concerned, their support for development process will be maintained (Sharma & Dyer 2009, 209). Nunkoo and Gursoy (2011, 19) illustrate that residents should be regarded as stakeholders whose attitudes and interests play a notable role in developing tourism. However, the analysis results that only the group whose monthly income below VND200,000 are dependent on voluntourism economically. It proves that government has paid attention to this group and enabled them to improve their living standard by voluntourism. Accordingly, government can raise the awareness of economic benefits among community by internal marketing techniques and publicizing successful stories in voluntourism. As a result, those who do not directly gain the economic benefit from
voluntourism also notice that voluntourism would improve the local economy by helping the neediest in the population.

More importantly, long-term economic benefit projects should be developed so that every citizen regardless of directly or indirectly gaining economic support from voluntourism would acknowledge the contribution of voluntourism to their local economy. In order to achieve the long-term economic goals, it is necessary to assess and address the community needs. As such, the implementation of the projects could be able to match with the community priorities otherwise the time, effort and labour work are wasted.

As for tour operators, even though making profit is their main aim in doing business, they should take part in corporate social responsibility initiatives by donating funds for community development. In addition, the commodification of volunteer tourism is problematic issue nowadays. Many local voluntourism providers require voluntourists to make a large payment to be able to participate in one programme. Nevertheless, whether the money is really going to be invested in the community is still questionable. Government have to seriously concern and make plans to control this problem. For example, local authority can have right to supervise whether tour operators make use of local people or not. Another way is creating criteria which tour operators must follow to ensure the decommodification of voluntourism. Voluntourism guideline project is carried out by TIES (The International Ecotourism Society) to assist international volunteer tourism organizers to plan and manage their programs responsibly and sustainably (Ecotourism society 2011). Yet, the best way is that tour operators must see the ethical value in their business to decommodify their voluntourism programs.

Not only the economic condition but also socio-cultural exchange influences the support of residents to volunteer tourism. The findings pointed out residents strongly perceive socio-cultural benefits and have positive attitude towards social cultural exchange to voluntourism. This can be seen as one of the success of volunteer tourism in Sapa. The plan which has been implemented in this dimension should be kept and improved sometimes by asking residents’ feedback after every voluntourism events. Moreover, this policy should be widespread so that other areas can take its advantages. However, local characteristics of each place should be considered.

Another finding is that no residential social factors influence residents’ attitudes towards voluntourism except age. The elder have tendency to refuse the positive socio-cultural impact of voluntourism. In order to gain their trust, it is necessary to help them to acknowledge the bright side of volunteer tourism in the town. Perhaps, it takes long time for old people to believe in voluntourism. However, if volunteer tourists keep making progress in the host community, old people will notice and stand for voluntourism.
One prominent point is that volunteer tourism is one of many types of alternative tourism. Thus, the information of the findings can be implemented in other forms of alternative tourism such as community-based tourism, pro-poor tourism or eco-tourism. Most importantly, the above implication suggestions should be put in detail plans and taken into effect as soon as possible otherwise they are just plain implication and the validity also decreases by time. This issue was reflected by McGehee and Andereck (2004, 139) as:

a great deal of progress has been made in the study of residents’ attitudes towards tourism, but a great deal is left to be done. No matter what future direction resident attitude research takes, the most important goal must be to assure that the varied voices of the community are heard.

6.4 Limitation and recommendation

The research is conducted in only three community constructs namely economic dependency, socio-cultural exchange and influencing power. As a result, the future study is possibly developed in other constructs such as environmental impact, community satisfaction, and community commitment to reinforce the predictive power of the conceptual framework. The survey is conducted in a small area which makes the validity of the conceptual framework limited. Thus, in order to enhance its external validity, it is recommended to undertake the investigation in other regions.

The selected sample is quite small compared to the population of Sapa. Therefore, the data would become more reliable if the survey was carried out in larger number of sample. Another considerable limit is that the researchers of this study were not able to be on site to conduct the survey. It was risky to rely on the outside help. In addition, it is difficult for the researchers to have clear image of the data collection procedure. This aspect should be paid particular attention in future studies.

Because there are a number of illiterate residents, mail survey method is impossible to reach this type of group. For that reason, it is advised to increase the number of face-to-face interview so that this illiterate group is taken into account. Furthermore, Sapa area is composed of scattering small villages geographically, so future study can explore residents’ perceptions in relation to their geographic locations at a large scale. By this way, residents’ perceptions can be indentified in many dimensions. In addition, due to the diversity of ethnicity in Sapa, study in the future can further apply focus group methodology to better understand the perceptions of each minority group.

Surprisingly, old group of the respondents are less likely to perceive socio-cultural advantages of volunteer tourism. This result brings up more research questions for this group in future
studies. For example, why do old residents tend to not perceive the benefits of voluntourism and how to gain their support? How do age factor influence on residents’ perceptions towards voluntourism? The findings of those questions will be beneficial to voluntourism organizations and researchers. Also the concern of education or tourism knowledge should be taken into further study.

McGehee and Andereck (2008) declare that “Those who may have a negative view of voluntourism should not be ignored, but rather should be embraced and included in the process, because those are the folks who can most help voluntourism to become stronger and better”. It is important to increase the support of host community by minimizing the negative impacts of voluntourism. The data of this research is collected by structured questionnaire survey which limits the opportunity for respondents to express their thoughts about voluntourism impacts. Hence, qualitative research method with in-depth interviews can be undertaken in further research to collect more insightful information about what the negative impacts of volunteer tourism are. After the negative impacts are figured out, they can be remedied to improve the quality of volunteer tourism projects. As long as the drawbacks are controlled, negative perceptions of residents will change to favourable attitudes.

Additionally, it is debatable that volunteer tourists are truly helpful to host population. Specifically, whether voluntourists in Sapa improve the quality of residents’ life? What volunteer tourists do to bring benefits to host community? How is the interaction between hosts and guests? Are there big misunderstanding between them due to different cultures? Those are important issues which need to be researched in the future. This dissertation only depicts the situation on one side of the scenario. Therefore, getting volunteer tourists’ perspectives is necessary for voluntourism planners and tour operators to see the whole picture.

Even though the study has limitations, hopefully it will be starting step for future study in volunteer tourism in Sapa which has become an increasingly popular destination for volunteer tourists. As described in the case description chapter, the number of voluntourism projects and voluntourists coming to Sapa are on the rise. There is accordingly an urgent need to make careful plans for these programs. In conclusion, the role of host community is indispensable in the success of any volunteer tourism projects based on the literature and the results of this research. Moreover, their support is especially influenced by their economic states and socio-cultural exchange in voluntourism. It is strongly suggested that voluntourism organizations should take long-term perspectives of local community into consideration when making plans or decisions.
References


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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Year</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Total tourists arrivals</td>
<td>200.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth every year % previous year</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>International tourist arrivals</td>
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<tr>
<td>Domestic tourist arrivals</td>
<td>138.424</td>
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<td>Weight %</td>
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<td>2 Tourists Receipts Billion VND</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1 Euro = VND27.000)

Tourism development in Sapa 2005-2009 (Lao Cai 2012c)
Appendix 2

Hello, we are Ha Nguyen and Thao Nguyen- students in hospitality management program in Haaga-Helia University of Applied Sciences and Laurea University of Applied Sciences respectively in Helsinki, Finland. We are conducting a survey on volunteer projects in order to understand your feelings towards volunteer tourism in your community. As such, we hope a better volunteer tourism planning which could fully meet your needs and expectations in near future.

We truly appreciate your help in completing this questionnaire. Remember that this enquiry is completely anonymous and that your personal data are just used for objectives related to the research work.

Firstly, we would like to deliver you the general concept of voluntourism (VT): the integrated combination of voluntary service to a destination with the traditional elements of travel such as arts, culture, geography, history, and recreation and many more. (www.voluntourism.org)

It will not take more than 5 min to complete this questionnaire. Your honest answer will represent an important role for future volunteer tourism projects in the town!

PART I: Personal information

1. Age: less than 20 years □ 20-30 years □ 31-40 years □ 41-50 years □ over 50 years □
2. Sex: Male □ Female □
3. Ethnicity: 
4. Marital status: Not married □ Married □
5. How long have you been living in SAPA? Less than 1 year □ 1-5 years □ 6-10 years □ 11-15 years □ 16-20 years □ Over 20 years □
6. What is the approximate sum of your monthly income? (1 USD= 21 000 VND)
   - Below VND 200,000 □
   - VND 200,001 - 500,000 □
   - VND 500,001 - 1,000,000 □
   - VND 1,000,001 - 1,500,000 □
   - VND 1,500,001 - 2,000,000 □
   - Above 2,000,000 □
7. What is your education level? (Pick up your latest finished degree)
   - No formal education □
   - Elementary school □
   - Secondary school □
   - High school □
   - College □
   - University □
   - Other:

PART II: Your opinions

Please read each of the statement below and show your level of AGREEMENT or DISAGREEMENT (1- strongly disagree 2- disagree, 3-agree and 4- strongly agree)
Economic impacts of VT

8. VT projects have helped increase our family’s standard of living. (Family in this case is understood as “nuclear family” which includes only parents and children).
9. VT has attracted more investments to our community
10. VT brings economic benefits to a small group of people
11. VT creates more jobs for people in the community
12. In general, VT benefits to our local economy

Socio-cultural impacts of VT

13. Contact with volunteer tourists from all over the country and from abroad is definitely a valuable experience
14. VT has helped to improve the facility of our community
15. VT encourages a wide variety of cultural activities (craft, art and music)
16. Voluntourists exert an undesirable effect on the way on locals habits
17. VT causes changes in the traditions and culture of our community
18. Voluntourists are interested in learning the culture of Sapa
19. During the interaction with voluntourists I learn about their culture
20. VT causes security and crime problems
21. Our culture is presented to voluntourists in an authentical way
22. In general, VT brings positive effects towards our local society and culture

Benefits and costs (disadvantages) of VT

23. Overall, the benefits of VT are greater than the costs for the local population

VT development support

24. I am willing to see more tourists as volunteers in the town
25. I am willing to share my accommodation with volunteers
26. I am willing to present more cultural and historical events to tourists
27. The authority should support VT development in Sapa region
28. I am willing to be a part of tourism planning for Sapa in the future

Thank you for your co-operation! ☺
PHÍmü ĐỊµU ĐỊµU TRA


Chúng tôi thành thật trân trọng sự giúp đỡ của anh/chị. Phí müu đo mực này đặc biệt một điều quan trọng và các thông tin cá nhân chắc chắn sẽ đong cho mục đích có liên quan đến việc nghiên cứu.

Đầu tiên, chúng tôi xin đăng ra một định nghĩa chung về du lịch tình nguyện (DLTN):

Phí müu đo mực này đặc biệt một nhân có ý nghĩa quan trọng trong việc hỗ trợ lãnh đạo các a dân DLTN ở thể xã:

1. Thông tin cá nhân

   1. Tuổi: ít hơn 20 tuổi ☐ 20-30 tuổi ☐ 31-40 tuổi ☐ 41-50 tuổi ☐ trên 50 tuổi ☐

   2. Giới tính: Nam ☐ Nữ ☐

   3. Dân tộc:

   4. Tình trạng hôn nhân: Chưa kết hôn ☐ Đã kết hôn ☐

   5. Anh/chị sống ở đâu đã đắc bao lâu?

   • joven 1 năm ☐ 11-15 năm ☐

   • 1-5 năm ☐ 16-20 năm ☐

   • 6-10 năm ☐ Trên 20 năm ☐

   6. Thu nhập hàng tháng của anh/chị khoảng bao nhiêu?

   • Đã kinh VND 200,000 ☐ VND 1,000,001 - 1,500,000 ☐

   • VND 200,001 - 500,000 ☐ VND 1,500,001 - 2,000,000 ☐

   • VND 500,001 - 1,000,000 ☐ Trên 2,000,000 ☐

   7. Trình độ học vấn:

   • Không đi học ☐

   • Tiểu học ☐

   • Trung học cơ sở ☐

   • Trung học phổ thông ☐ Khác:

Xin đặc kí các câu sau và đánh dấu vào ô trống mà anh/chị cho là hợp với ý kiến của mình nhất (1=kiến quát phân định, 2=phân định, 3=đúng, 4=hoàn toàn đúng)

➢ Đánh giá về một kinh tế của DLTN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>8. DLTN giúp tăng mức sống của gia đình anh/chị (Gia đình đã dạy là gia đình hết nhận, bao gồm ba mẹ và con cái)</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

| 9. DLTN thu hút nhiều điều tốt cho cộng đồng | |

| 10. DLTN đếm được ich kinh tế cho các nhóm dân tộc | |
11. DLTN tạo thêm việc làm cho công dân

12. Nhìn chung, DLTN đem lại lợi ích kinh tế cho công dân các anh/chị

-  ảnh hưởng về mặt xã hội văn hoá của DLTN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13. Tiếp xúc với du khách tình nguyện trong và ngoài nước là kinh nghiệm đáng giá</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. DLTN giúp cậy thiện VT has helped to improve the facility of our community</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. DLTN đã động hóa các hoạt động văn hóa (thücken, nghệ thuật và âm nhạc)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Voluntourists exert an undesirable effect on the way on locals habits</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Du khách tình nguyện gây ra nhiều thay đổi về truyền thống và văn hóa công cộng đáng giá</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Du khách tình nguyện quan tâm học hỏi văn hóa địa phương</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Trong khi giáo dục du khách tình nguyện anh/chị học được văn hóa cả nhà</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. DLTN gây ra các vấn đề về an ninh và tội phạm</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Văn hóa địa phương phải giữ vững theo đúng truyền thống của nó</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Nhìn chung, DLTN ảnh hưởng tích cực đến xã hội và văn hóa địa phương</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Lợi ích và bớt lợi của DLTN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>23. Tóm lại, DLTN đem lại lợi ích nhiều hơn là thiệt hại cho người dân địa phương</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Đóng góp cho việc phát triển DLTN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>24. Tôi muốn thấy nhiều khách tình nguyện hiện trong xã</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Tôi sẵn lòng chia sẻ chia sẻ du khách tình nguyện</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Tôi sẵn lòng giúp đỡ những sự kiện văn hóa và lịch sử dân du khách</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Cả quan nhận rằng họ cho việc phát triển DLTN ở khu vực này</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Tôi sẵn lòng tham gia vào việc lên kế hoạch cho các dân DLTN ở thị xã trong tương lai</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cảm ơn sự hợp tác của anh/chị 😊
### Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2,942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 107</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 20 years</td>
<td>3,154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-30 years</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40 years</td>
<td>2,765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50 years</td>
<td>2,765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 50 years</td>
<td>2.556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 107</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Ethnicity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mong</td>
<td>2,735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yao</td>
<td>3,063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinh</td>
<td>2,882</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tay</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Day</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xa Pho</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 104</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Marital status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not married</td>
<td>2,786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>2,902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 103</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Length of residency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of residency</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>less than 1 year</td>
<td>2,333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>2,762</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10years</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15years</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20years</td>
<td>2,789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>over 20 years</td>
<td>2,936</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 106</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Income</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>below 200000</td>
<td>3,118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200001-500000</td>
<td>2,822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500001-1000000</td>
<td>2,737</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000001-1500000</td>
<td>3,143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1500001-2000000</td>
<td>2,818</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>above 2000000</td>
<td>2,857</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 106</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

Frequency of socio-cultural benefits by residential social factors
### % within highest education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highest education</th>
<th>Planning participant</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree (%)</td>
<td>Disagree (%)</td>
<td>Agree (%)</td>
<td>Strongly agree (%)</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No formal education</td>
<td>5,3</td>
<td>68,4</td>
<td>21,1</td>
<td>5,3</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary school</td>
<td>43,5</td>
<td>39,1</td>
<td>17,4</td>
<td>100,0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school</td>
<td>10,7</td>
<td>78,6</td>
<td>10,7</td>
<td>100,0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>5,3</td>
<td>26,3</td>
<td>47,4</td>
<td>21,1</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College</td>
<td>33,3</td>
<td>50,0</td>
<td>16,7</td>
<td>100,0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>50,0</td>
<td>50,0</td>
<td>100,0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1,9</strong></td>
<td><strong>35,0</strong></td>
<td><strong>49,5</strong></td>
<td><strong>13,6</strong></td>
<td><strong>100,0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Crosstabulation of education and planning participant