Kinh and Ethnic Minority Stakeholder Perspectives of Tourism Development in Sapa, Vietnam

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THESIS DECLARATION

I, Nguyen Van Huy, certify that: This thesis is my own account of my research and contains as its main content work which has not previously been submitted for a degree or diploma in my name, in any university or other tertiary institution.

Signature:

Date:
ABSTRACT

This thesis compared the perspectives of Kinh and Ethnic minority groups in terms of the impacts of tourism, participation, collaboration, and their motivations for participating in tourism planning in Sapa, Lào Cai, Vietnam. The rationale for focusing on these groups is that Ethnic minorities account for more than 80% in Sapa, while Kinh people represent 86% of the wider population, but they are the minority in Sapa, making up 18%. Tourism development is primarily in the management of Kinh stakeholders, in Vietnam. The decision-making process is dominated by the Kinh in a top-down approach, and Ethnic minorities with little education are rarely part of the tourism planning process. This thesis employed pragmatism as a research paradigm and employed the exploratory sequential mixed method including semi-structured interviews with key tourism stakeholders and a follow-up survey with broader involvement of Kinh and Ethnic minorities.

The differences between the two groups are that Kinh people perceived the effects of tourism in generic ways, whilst Ethnic minorities responded very specifically and personally. Both groups perceived that participation in tourism planning followed a top-down approach in Sapa. There are differences in perceptions of participation in tourism planning between lower level Ethnic minorities and higher level Kinh government positions. The findings showed that there is a limited collaboration among stakeholders in tourism planning. This current study confirmed that some conditions including; (1) a recognition of interdependence among stakeholders; (2) a recognition of mutual benefits derived from a collaboration process; (3) a need for a convener to facilitate collaboration in tourism planning as suggested by Jamal and Getz (1995) occur in the current Sapa tourism planning scenario. Both groups reflect similar responses when asked about the aspects facilitating or hindering their participation in tourism planning. These aspects comprised of the government policy, economic benefits and distribution of the benefits, social and cultural benefits for local residents, socio-cultural and environmental costs.

The original contribution of this study is that Social Exchange Theory (SET), stakeholder and collaboration theory have been applied in a destination with diverse ethnic groups and rapid changes in tourism development. Future research should incorporate power and trust variables in the SET, since they are considered important influences on the social exchange processes. Some limitations of this study related to language issues, and the length of time allocated for ethnographic fieldwork.

Keywords: tourism impacts, SET, stakeholder theory, collaboration theory, Kinh, Ethnic minorities, Sapa, Vietnam
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Publications during the Ph.D. process

Journal Articles

Early versions of some chapters in this thesis have been published as a journal article.


Journal Articles in Process


Refereed Conference papers


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<th>Abbreviation</th>
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<tr>
<td>ASEAN</td>
<td>South East Asian Nation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIA</td>
<td>Central of Intelligence of America</td>
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<tr>
<td>DCST</td>
<td>Department of Culture, Sports and Tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Products</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITDR</td>
<td>Institute for Tourism Development Research</td>
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<tr>
<td>MCST</td>
<td>Ministry of Culture, Sport and Tourism</td>
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<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non – governmental Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>PATA</td>
<td>Pacific Asia Travel Association</td>
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<td>PPC</td>
<td>Provincial People’s Committee</td>
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<tr>
<td>SNV</td>
<td>Netherlands Development Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>TITC</td>
<td>Tourism Information Technology Centre</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Program</td>
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<td>UNWTO</td>
<td>United Nations World Tourism Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>VISTA</td>
<td>Vietnam Society of Travel Agents</td>
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<td>VITA</td>
<td>Vietnam Tourism Association</td>
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<td>VHA</td>
<td>Vietnam Hotel Association</td>
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<td>VNAT</td>
<td>Vietnam National Administration of Tourism</td>
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<td>Vietnam Tourism Review</td>
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<td>WTO</td>
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This dissertation is dedicated to my parents, beloved spouse Elise & my daughters Ruby and Bonnie, my older brother and sister-in-law, for their love, empathy, patience and support during my Ph.D. journey.
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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

1.1.1. International context for research

It is evident that tourism has both positive and negative impacts on the economy, society, and culture of host communities (Archer, Cooper, & Ruhanen, 2005). It also requires a significant amount of resources and an involvement of many stakeholders. In developing countries, tourism plays an important role in improving the rural residents’ quality of life as well as promoting peace and stability through creating jobs, generating income, diversifying the economy, protecting the environment, and promoting cross-cultural awareness (Honey & Gilpin, 2009). However, tourism results in many negative impacts for communities such as crime, prostitution, gambling, commercializing culture, religion, and disrupting of family structures (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003). Negative environmental impacts include degradation of soil, water and air pollution, waste, forest devastation (Sharma, Chaurasia & Bhattacharya, 2016).

It is beneficial for all tourist destinations to maximize the positive impacts of tourism and mitigate the negative aspects. In order to achieve sustainable tourism development, Byrd, Bosley, and Dronberger (2009) indicated that sustainable tourism requires the support and involvement of stakeholders in the whole destination planning process. Furthermore, in order to build better communities, local governments should involve residents and stakeholder groups in a planning process (Choi & Murray, 2010).

The tourism industry has been recognized as both highly fragmented and diffused in nature (Hall, 2008), every element in the tourism industry is also highly interdependent of each other. Tourism is extremely complex, and various principles and issues all interact and affect one another, thus all those organizations with their own various objectives are interrelated and dependent upon one another to a greater or lesser degree (Elliott, 1997). Since tourism is fragmented in nature, there are diverse stakeholders involved in tourism development, they interrelate with each other, and those relationships are dynamic (Choi, 2005). Thus, it is necessary to view tourism in the context of social and political relationships between various stakeholder groups pursuing their own goals and interests.

Tourism destinations comprise a variety of different groups that have different perspectives and interests. Each group may also hold different views of the role and future of tourism at the destination. Therefore, tourism policymaking could be a political process of conflict resolution and consensus in which power relationships between stakeholders
affect the consequence of the process. As a result of this, public policies for tourism cannot be neutral, instead they are likely to be affected by different sets of values which compete with each other to influence or control the tourism policy agenda. One of the problems in public policy making is clientism which means that government officials and politicians favor their supporters in decision-making on resource distribution (Healey, 1997). Supporters could receive favors including access to government funds and favorable decisions on land use and environmental regulation. Accordingly, Healey (1997) indicated that clientelism could hinder fair trade and the equal distribution of benefits, as it depends on the personal relationship between politicians and clients rather than achieving general policy objectives. To overcome the problem of clientelism, Reed (1997) suggested the collaboration among diverse stakeholders could improve the power relations by involving all stakeholders in a process that meets their needs. Furthermore, Healey (1997) proposed horizontal forms of collaboration which could help legitimate stakeholders who often conflict the interests engaging in consensus building in order to get over the systematic constraints such as power inequalities and bias in government towards powerful interest groups. Thus, there is a need for collaboration among diverse stakeholders in the context of tourism which is highly fragmented and diffused.

Planning in tourism is essential in order to widen the social, economic, and environmental benefits of tourism development (Pjerotić, Rađenović, & Tripković-Marković, 2016). Planning also helps to balance economic, social, cultural, and environmental considerations and offers a chance for stakeholders in communities to voice their perceptions (Jordan, Vogt, Kruger, & Grewe, 2013). Tourism planning and development, which utilizes local community input, is considered beneficial to all stakeholders (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011). Early research has indicated that in order to provide an informed tourism planning strategy which is effective, equitable and legitimate, the involvement of a variety of stakeholders is required (Murphy, 1988; Simmons, 1994). Jamal and Camargo (2014) addressed the importance of active involvement of a destination’s stakeholders who are indigenous, low income, diverse and minority groups in development activities. Crane and Ruebottom (2011, p. 83) used social identity roles based on race, ethnicity, nationality to categorize stakeholders, this approach reflects that “minority or vulnerable social groups that often do not carry power … but may have legitimate interests”.

There is a growing number of studies within the tourism planning literature that highlight the importance of involving diverse stakeholders in the participatory process of consensus building and partnership formation (Lin & Simmons, 2017; Bramwell & Lane,
Several scholars call for stakeholder identification and involvement early in the planning process (Sautter & Leisen, 1999; Simpson, 2001). In sustainable tourism development, cooperation between government, industry and community is very important. This cooperation could be achieved through community participation and consultation. Furthermore, community consultation is a form of collaboration where individuals and stakeholder groups work together in a joint effort to reach a consensus on a particular issue such as tourism planning (Jamal & Getz, 1999). Collaboration between stakeholders is a way to resolve problems and redistribute power from local authorities to the community (Tosun, 2000). Collaboration could overcome power imbalance by involving all stakeholders in a process that meet their needs (Reed, 1997, p. 567).

There is an emerging body of research that argues that tourism destinations management can be managed better through stakeholder collaboration (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999; Choi, 2005). Hence, it is necessary for academic research to explore this issue of collaboration among stakeholders in tourism planning, because in developing countries, tourism development policies are largely driven by local and central government without or with token community participation, making sustainable tourism difficult to achieve. Moreover, the development of the tourism industry in developing countries is more often undertaken in an unplanned (Hall, 2008) or very centralized manner (Tosun, 2000; Yüksel, Yüksel, & Bramwell, 2005).

As indicated by Waayers, Lee, and Newsome (2012), the current nature of the tourism industry is characterized by high levels of fragmentation and interdependency across geographical spaces, resulting in a renewed focus on the need for coordination and collaboration between different actors linking tourism planning to governance frameworks. Therefore, an understanding of how different tourism stakeholders are involved in a transparent system with a well-documented decision-making structure for a destination can facilitate participation of local communities in tourism planning is of central importance. However, effective implementation of a collaborative model for stakeholder participation, in many situations, requires further investigation and research (Iorio & Corsale, 2014).

Interorganizational collaboration theory has been applied in several studies focused on the field of business in developed countries. A few researchers (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999; Jamal & Getz, 1995) have applied the collaboration theory approach for the community-based tourism planning developed by Gray (1989). However, in Vietnam this concept has not been used to date to assess stakeholder collaboration in tourism planning. It is intended that this research would add to the limited existing literature on the subject by
employing this collaboration theory in tourism planning to the Vietnamese context. This study presents a study of Sapa in Lào Cai Province, Vietnam, as a case study to explore the issue of stakeholder participation and collaboration in tourism planning.

1.1.2. Local context for research

Sapa is situated in the mountainous province of Lào Cai, 38 km from Lào Cai city center, approximately 400 km from Hanoi, and has a population about 54,000 (SPC, 2017). Throughout this study, “Sapa” is used to indicate the name of the district. The district covers an area of 68,329 ha and it is 1,600 m above sea level. Vietnam’s highest mountain, Fansipan (3143 m) is located within the district and acts as a unique tourist attraction due to the possibility of snowfall at that altitude. There were many reasons why Sapa was chosen as a case study in this thesis.

Firstly, ethnic minority groups\(^1\) account for more than 80% (52% Hmong, 23.04% Dao, 5% Tày, 1.36% Giáy, and 1% Xa Phỏ) of Sapa’s population, while the dominant Kinh people represent 86% of the wider Vietnamese population but are a minority in Sapa (17.91%) (CIA, 2018; Duy, 2015). The Kinh group is the most powerful in the government (Fujii, 2018) and is primarily involved in administration, tourism, education while most ethnic minority groups have traditionally depended on agricultural activities. Almost all of the Kinh group in Sapa lives in Sapa Town, which is the economic and administrative centre.

Secondly, Vietnam is structured in many layers of governance below the central government in the capital, Hà Nội. There are 61 provinces, 598 districts and 10,500 rural communes, semi-urban townships and urbans wards. At each of these administrative levels, the people’s committees represent the executive branches of government which are controlled by Communist Party structures (Mattner, 2004). The Communist Party controls all political and ideological matters including cultural policies for minority groups (of which 54 ethnic groups are recognized by the government) (CIA, 2018; Michaud, 2013). In Sapa, a rigid top-down decision-making structure is dominated by the Kinh group, and tourism planning is primarily conducted by government entities and large-scale developers which comprise mainly Kinh. Ethnic minority residents, mostly Hmong and Dao farmers with little formal education, are rarely part of the decision-making process (Michaud & Turner, 2017). Nonetheless, there is a need of stakeholder collaboration in Sapa because The Lào Cai

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\(^1\) An ethnic group is a socio-cultural distinct group of people who share a common history, culture, language, region and way of life (Yang, Wall, & Smith, 2008, p. 752). The term ethnic minority in this study refers to a number of linguistic and culturally diverse groups who represent significant minority populations in contemporary Vietnam and who traditionally had relative autonomy from the state and its dominant majority Kinh ethnic group.
Tourism Planning document for 2015-2020, and setting out its vision to 2030, indicates that “the coordination between local authorities and localities are not effective in construction of hydro-power and natural resource exploitation which lead to conflict among stakeholders that affects sustainable tourism development” (Vtoco, 2015, 22, 26).

Lastly, tourism development in Sapa is strongly influenced by the interests of Kinh who moved to Sapa with the rapid expansion of tourism “to capitalize on every opportunity” (Michaud & Turner, 2006, p. 787) and big external investors such as Sun Group² which is the largest real estate developer in Vietnam with its main activities of resort development, setting up attraction parks and luxury real estate (Lam, 2019). Hence, “…. Tourism in Sa Pa is in the hands of the elite, the wealthy, powerful, and enterprising 15% Kinh minority, rubber stamped by a handful of Party-agreeable minority representatives” (Michaud & Turner, 2006, p. 803). Furthermore, Cuong (2020, p. 15) indicated that “The contradictions between ethnic minorities and other stakeholders occur not only in the economic and political aspects but also in the anthropology, psychology, and behavior sociology aspects”. This undoubtedly influences differences in perceptions between Kinh and Ethnic minority groups regarding tourism development. Therefore, it is necessary to compare the perspectives of the Kinh and the Ethnic minority people regarding the impacts of tourism development in order to explore the potential for more collaborative approaches in Sapa.

The Vietnamese government has elevated Sapa to the rank of a major domestic and international tourist destination. As a result, the expansion of tourism infrastructure in Sapa has significantly increased the number of hotels, restaurants and home stays, providing more jobs for local people (Diep, 2018 ), but placing pressure on local culture and environment. Despite the large number of ethnic minority groups in this District, government plans to modernize Sapa demonstrate the role of powerful Kinh agents and their corporate collaborators, in planning decisions designed to serve their own political and economic interests (Michaud & Turner, 2017). Truong, Hall, and Garry (2014) suggest that the situation is worsened by exclusion of poor local residents from decision-making processes and tourism development plans in Sapa. The voice of indigenous local residents in Sapa needs to be heard in tourism development (Bott, 2018). Thus, this study investigates stakeholder perspectives on the tourism impacts, participation and collaboration in tourism.

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² Sun Group was established in Ukraine in 1998 by a group of Vietnamese people. In 2007, this group officially invested in Vietnam. The Sun Group operates in many fields such as real estate, infrastructure investment, recreation and entertainment. The group has invested in many massive projects in Vietnam; Sun World Ba Na Hills in Da Nang, Sun World Fansipan Legend in Sapa, Lao Cai, and Hon Thom Cable Car System …etc. More details can be found at [https://www.sunigroup.com.vn/en/about/](https://www.sunigroup.com.vn/en/about/).
planning in Sapa. The current form of participation in tourism planning among tourism stakeholders in Sapa is also explored in this thesis.

Although some academic studies have analyzed tourism development and poverty reduction in Sapa (Bott, 2018; Le, 2014; Michaud & Turner, 2017; Truong, 2014), very few studies have focused on ethnic minority tourism stakeholders and local community engagement in tourism planning. Therefore, this study aims to contribute to the current and limited body of knowledge about Kinh and Ethnic minority tourism stakeholders’ participation and collaboration in tourism planning in the context of rapid tourism development. Thus, it is important to investigate the perspectives of ethnic minority tourism stakeholders in tourism planning in the context of tourism strongly influenced by Kinh imperialism. Furthermore, Truong et al. (2014) suggested that there was a need to include local people in decision-making processes, development planning, and project design and implementation in Sapa. There is particularly a need for further work that includes the voice of indigenous stakeholders and local community engagement in tourism development planning (Bott, 2018; Powell et al., 2017). Therefore, it is important to explore the Kinh and Ethnic minority tourism stakeholders’ participation in formulating and implementing tourism planning within the Sapa context. The aims of this study are twofold:

1. To provide a theoretical and comparative basis for understanding the value of tourism stakeholders’ participation and collaboration in tourism planning
2. To investigate perspectives and outcomes of tourism stakeholders’ participation and collaboration in the tourism planning process in Sapa, Vietnam.

1.2. Research Questions

1. What are the similarities and differences in the perceptions of Kinh and Ethnic minority tourism stakeholders regarding tourism impacts?
2. What forms of participation in tourism planning currently exist among tourism stakeholders in Sapa?
3. What factors motivate/facilitate or hinder tourism stakeholders’ participation in tourism planning in Sapa?
4. What is the current stakeholder collaboration in tourism planning in Sapa?

1.3. Objectives

1. To synthesize and extend stakeholder theory, collaboration theory and their implications for tourism impacts in the multi-ethnic context of Sapa development.
2. To identify stakeholder perceptions toward the impacts (economic, socio-cultural, environmental) of tourism development in Sapa, Vietnam.
3. To investigate whether there are differences in perceptions of tourism’s impact on a community between two stakeholder groups: the dominant Kinh and Ethnic minority groups.

4. To explore the forms of participation in tourism planning that currently exist among tourism stakeholders in Sapa.

5. To determine the factors that motivate or hinder stakeholders’ participation in tourism planning in Sapa, Lào Cai?

6. To examine the current extent of stakeholder collaboration in tourism planning in Sapa?

1.4. **Significance of the Study**

Governments, tourism businesses, tourists and local residents need to collaborate to develop sustainable forms of tourism. Especially in Vietnam, there is a lack of research conducted on this subject in the Sapa area. Moreover, there are only few studies have been conducted in Sapa regarding community based-tourism development and poverty alleviation (Le, 2014; Truong, 2014). An understanding of both Kinh and Ethnic minority tourism stakeholder perspectives about tourism development is crucial for sustainable tourism planning and development in Vietnam. In particular, to date there is no research comparing the perceptions/perspectives of stakeholders toward tourism impacts in Sapa. Therefore, the findings obtained from this research make a significant contribution to both theory and practice.

In terms of theory, this research extends the knowledge of the role of participation and collaboration among stakeholders in tourism by synthesizing theories of stakeholder theory, collaboration theory, and social exchange theory (SET) in relation to concepts and assumptions regarding sustainable tourism development and impacts of tourism.

In terms of practice, the study provides a deeper and richer understanding of the perspectives of both Kinh and Ethnic minorities arising from their experiences of the impacts of tourism development. Based on the literature review and synthesis of the views of stakeholders in Sapa, this current study provides recommendations for policymakers to guide sustainable tourism development in Sapa, Vietnam.
1.5. Structure of the Thesis
This thesis is organized into seven chapters as follows:

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION - provides background information and an overview of the thesis. It sets out research problems, research questions and research objectives. This chapter also argues for the importance of comparing perceptions of tourism stakeholders, particularly between dominant and minority ethnic groups.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW - contains a review of academic literature regarding theory and empirical studies relating to tourism stakeholder participation internationally and in the Vietnamese context to reveal knowledge gaps in comparing the perceptions and experience of tourism stakeholders in Sapa.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY - describes the research methodology applied in this thesis. The research design includes two stages: A qualitative semi-structured interview in the first stage and quantitative survey in the second stage. This chapter also provides details of data analysis.

CHAPTER 4: SAPA CASE STUDY – presents an overview of the history of Sapa, background on ethnic minorities, tourism development in Vietnam as well as Sapa, political structures of tourism planning, as well as government policies toward highland people.

CHAPTER 5: INTERVIEW RESULTS – elaborates the results from semi-structured interviews with stakeholder representatives.

CHAPTER 6: SURVEY RESULTS – presents results from community questionnaires and aims to corroborate and quantify the findings in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION – provides a discussion of each research question and contributions of this thesis to theory and practice. It includes a discussion of the limitations and implications of the study results.
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter provides a review of related literature in terms of tourism impacts, social exchange theory, stakeholder and collaboration theory which have been applied in tourism planning. It also discusses the benefits and constraints of community participation, the form of participation in tourism development, citizen participation in the Vietnamese context, and the participatory and collaborative planning approach in tourism. The barriers of stakeholders’ participation and sources of conflict in tourism planning are presented in this chapter. At the end of the chapter, a theoretical framework for this study was developed based on the discussions and analysis of those above theories.

2.1. The Impacts of Tourism

Tourism impact studies began to emerge in the 1960s with a focus on the positive economic impacts of tourism (Pizam, 1978). The research shifted to studies about the socio-cultural and environmental impacts of tourism in the 1980s (Butler, 1980; Kemper, 1981). Later, in the 1990s, more studies expanded the focus on the economic, social, cultural and environmental impacts of tourism (Jurowski, Uysal, & Williams, 1997). During the first decade of the 21st century, a number of studies researched tourism impacts by exploring the attitudes of local residents in many countries such as the United States of America, Ghana, and Turkey (Sheldon & Abenoja, 2001; Sirakaya, Teye, & Sonmez, 2002; Tosun, 2002). In addition, one of the main principles in the WTO’s conceptualization of sustainable tourism development is the constant monitoring of the impact of tourism in the community (WTO, 2005). Thus, systematic analysis of tourism impacts was developed to provide tourism planners with a database to establish effective tourism plans which address local concerns and issues (Lankford, Ap, & Crompton, 2001). The need for tourism impact monitoring is reinforced by Wall and Mathieson (2006), because tourism grows rapidly and changes over time as a destination develops (Butler, 1980). Hence, perceptions of local residents about the impacts of tourism received considerable attention in the tourism literature. However, there has to date been little research that includes comparisons of multiple stakeholders’ perspectives of tourism impacts (Andriotis, 2005; Byrd et al., 2009; Poudel, Nyaupane, & Budruk, 2016).

2.1.1. Economic impacts of tourism

It cannot be denied that tourism brings a lot of benefits to world economies. The travel and tourism sector contributed US$ 8.9 trillion and provided 330 million jobs to world GDP in 2019 (WTTC, 2019). In terms of contributions to national economies, Zurub,
Ionescu, and Constantin (2015) pointed out that in many developed economies, tourism is a fundamental industry for economic growth because tourism is connected to other communications sectors, such as road infrastructure development. Goeldner and Ritchie (2003) also indicate that tourism helps governments to collect tax revenues, attract foreign currency, and promote the diversification of the economy. At the same time, it may also cause inflation or unbalanced economic development. The tourism sector in Vietnam has been a major factor in job creation, economic development and poverty alleviation. Tourism contributed 5.9% of GDP for Vietnam in 2017 and is forecast to rise by 6% per annum from 2018 to 2028 (Turner, 2018). The economic impacts of tourism are very important and influence the participation and support of local residents, because through their participation, they seek some economic benefits (Hanafiah, Jamaluddin, & Zulkifly, 2013). At the local level, tourism results in significant economic benefits for local residents and tourism businesses. However, tourism also results in negative economic impacts such as inflation, and an increase in the cost of living. The main positive and negative economic impacts of tourism are summarized in table 2.1.

**Table 2.1. Economic Impacts of Tourism**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic Impacts</th>
<th>Findings</th>
<th>Authors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Positive Impacts</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal and Household Income</td>
<td>Increase household income</td>
<td>(Liu, Liu, Hu, Wu, &amp; Dai, 2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living standard</td>
<td>Increase living standard for local residents in community</td>
<td>(Liu &amp; Var, 1986), (Haralambopoulos &amp; Pizam, 1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaining foreign currency</td>
<td>Contribute to the host nation’s foreign exchange</td>
<td>(Ap &amp; Crompton, 1998)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local government revenue</td>
<td>Increase government revenue</td>
<td>Lickorish, 1994; Chen &amp; Chiang, 2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local and foreign investment</td>
<td>Attract foreign investment</td>
<td>(Jenkins, 1983)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic growth in destinations</td>
<td>Tourism contributes to economic growth</td>
<td>(Liu et al., 2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Negative Impacts</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase cost of living in areas</td>
<td>Tourism results in increased cost of living for host community</td>
<td>(Andereck, Valentine, Knopf, &amp; Vogt, 2005)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase prices</td>
<td>Tourism causes increasing price of local commodities</td>
<td>(Lawson, Williams, Young, &amp; Cossens, 1998), (Williams &amp; Lawson, 2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unequal distribution of economic benefits from tourism</td>
<td>Economic benefits from tourism are unequal among tourism stakeholders</td>
<td>(Sirakaya et al., 2002b), (McDowall &amp; Choi, 2010), (Stoeckl, Greiner, &amp; Mayocchi, 2006), (Chok, Macbeth, &amp; Warren, 2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inflation</td>
<td>Tourism results in significant inflation for economy</td>
<td>(Pérez &amp; Nadal, 2005)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seasonal employment</td>
<td>Tourism results in a lot of seasonal jobs.</td>
<td>(Tosun, 2002)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.1.2. Socio-cultural impacts of tourism

Tourism has socio-cultural impacts which can affect the habits, customs, social life, beliefs and values of residents in tourist destinations (Almeida García, Balbuena Vázquez, & Cortés Macías, 2015). Tourism helps to revitalize, protect and preserve traditional cultures in destinations (Ryan, Chaozhi, & Zeng, 2011). Tourism development also creates significant social and cultural benefits such as broadening education for local communities, fostering cultural exchange and improving feelings of self-worth. In addition, tourism helps to reinforce the preservation of heritage and tradition, provides recreational facilities that may be used by local people, assists in the breakdown of language barriers, socio-cultural barriers, class barriers, racial barriers, political barriers, and religious barriers (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003).

The negative impacts on local communities can be crime, prostitution, gambling, commercializing culture, and the disruption of family structure (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003). Tourism also brings negative social impacts such as increased traffic congestion (Pham Hong, 2012), individual crimes, drug addiction and alcoholism (Milman & Pizam, 1988). In contrast, Huttasin (2008) argued that residents see tourism positively in terms of its capacity for job creation, and they do not think that tourism increases prostitution, vandalism, burglary and drug abuse. The positive and negative socio-cultural impacts of tourism are highlighted in the following table.

**Table 2.2. Socio-cultural Impacts of Tourism**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive socio-cultural impact of tourism</th>
<th>Findings</th>
<th>Authors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Help to understand different cultures</td>
<td>Local residents gain understanding of different cultures</td>
<td>(Ap &amp; Crompton, 1998), (Liu, Sheldon, &amp; Var, 1987).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revitalize traditional culture</td>
<td>Tourism helps to revitalize and preserve traditional cultures.</td>
<td>(Ryan et al., 2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help to promote cultural exchange</td>
<td>Tourism could attract many tourists with diverse cultural values to host destinations, which promotes cultural exchange.</td>
<td>(Ryan et al., 2011), (Liu et al., 1987), (Williams &amp; Lawson, 2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in recreational facilities</td>
<td>Recreational facilities could be improved due to tourism</td>
<td>(Williams &amp; Lawson, 2001), (Pizam, 1978)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Tourism results in overcrowding, crime, pollution, noise and social conflicts

Host community suffer from negative socio-cultural impacts regarding socio-cultural such as overcrowding, crime, pollution, noise, social conflicts.

(Milman & Pizam, 1988), (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003), (Sharma, Dyer, Carter, & Gursoy, 2008), (Amuquandoh, 2010), (Pham Hong, 2012)

Commercialization of culture

Tourism results in commercialization of local culture.

(Hoa & Lan, 1999), (Hung et al., 2017), (Bott, 2018)

2.1.3. Environmental impacts of tourism

Tourism activities have both negative and positive impacts on the environment. The positive is raised awareness of people about environmental values, this helps many tourist destinations to issue environmental standards and guidelines such as effective waste management, recycling. The positive environmental impacts are protection and conservation of landscape and wildlife (Almeida García et al., 2015; Zhong, Deng, Song, & Ding, 2011). In contrast, tourism activities for instance transportation, catering, and accommodation leads to energy consumption, which causes emitting a high level of CO₂ to the environment. According to UNWTO (2019), transport-related CO₂ emissions from tourism are forecasted to increase from 1597 to 1998 million tons between 2016 and 2030, accounting for 25% of the rise.

There can be other negative environmental impacts such as an exploitation of natural resources, degradation of soil, water and air pollution, waste and devastation of natural vegetation (Sharma, Chaurasia & Bhattacharya, 2016). Long (2012) shows that tourism has resulted in solid waste, air, water, and soil pollution in Ha Long Bay, Vietnam. Tourism results in forest degradation due to building tourist facilities and performing recreational activities within the forest (Kuvan & Akan, 2005). A study on the environmental impacts of tourism by Sharma et al. (2016) supports the claim that tourism may bring negative impacts to the environment in terms of ecological imbalance, damage to flora and fauna, etc. However, according to Amuquandoh (2010) residents expressed their uncertainty about the negative impacts of tourism on the environment such as pollution of the lake because they found it hard to evaluate the damage.

2.1.4. Relationship between personal benefits, tourism impacts, and support for tourism

The relationship between personal benefit and perception of tourism impacts; and personal benefit from tourism and support for additional tourism development have been intensively examined in the research of Perdue et al. (1990), Ko and Stewart (2002), McGehee and Andereck (2004), Wang and Pfister (2008), Vargas-Sánchez et al. (2009),
Látková and Vogt (2012) amongst others. Personal benefit can, for example, be understood in terms of economic values, such as tax revenues, employment, personal income, consumer spending, the level of economic dependency (Wang & Pfister, 2008) or noneconomic values such as relaxation, educational benefit, better understanding of other people and culture, as well as environment conservation (McIntosh, 2002). Thus, the personal benefit could be considered as an important factor influencing on the support for tourism development in specific destinations.

Personal benefit is recognized to directly affect perceptions of tourism’s impact in the research models of Perdue et al. (1990), and McGehee and Andereck (2004). The results of the primary research suggest a direct correlation between benefit and perception of impacts. When individuals or their family members work in the tourism industry, the economic value domains are often conceived clearly and are identifiable (Jurowski et al., 1997; Wang & Pfister, 2008). Ko and Stewart (2002) suggest that while personal benefit from tourism contributes to positive perceptions of tourism impacts, it does not significantly affect perception of negative tourism effects. Although these findings contrast with the suggestions of Perdue et al. (1990) and McGehee and Andereck (2004), that personal benefits from tourism predict both positive and negative effects of tourism, all appear to share common ground with the general conclusion that residents who receive more personal benefits from tourism tend to perceive higher levels of positive impacts (Andereck et al., 2005; Gursoy, Jurowski, & Uysal, 2002).

There are varying opinions about the relationship between perceived personal benefits and support for tourism development. Perdue et al. (1990) and McGehee and Andereck (2004) showed that this relationship is significant. However, Vargas-Sánchez et al. (2009) found the opposite result indicating that direct personal benefit does not impact locals’ support for tourism development. McGehee and Andereck (2004) examined the factors predicting residents’ attitudes toward tourism in a dozen communities in Arizona. They found that residents who rely on tourism development are likely to have a higher level of positive impacts of tourism and often support tourism development. Furthermore, Perdue et al. (1990) and Látková and Vogt (2012) studied residents’ attitudes toward tourism development. The results revealed two kinds of response for tourism “Support for additional tourism development” and “Support for restriction on tourism development”. In the Vietnamese context, Huong and Lee (2017) indicated that local residents’ attitude of support for tourism development does not depend on the perceptions of negative economic impacts.
and the personal economic benefits from tourism do not correlate with support for tourism in Ba Be National Park.

2.2. Stakeholders’ Perceptions and Attitudes of Tourism Impacts

Perspectives of stakeholders refer to their attitudes, opinions and perceptions about tourism development relating to both positive and negative impacts on the community and the individual benefits arising through tourism (Sánchez Cañizares, Castillo Canalejo, & Núñez Tabales, 2016). Sharma and Dyer (2009) indicated that stakeholders’ support of tourism policy depends on their attitudes toward tourism impacts on economic, social, cultural and environmental values in a given destination. Thus, it is necessary to understand the attitudes and interests of stakeholders in the planning and management of sustainable tourism. Tourism planners should consider the interests of all stakeholders before proceeding with development efforts (Hardy & Beeton, 2001; Sautter & Leisen, 1999; Vincent & Thompson, 2002). Incorporating stakeholder views in tourism planning adds value by drawing on the knowledge and insights of stakeholders, which is likely to reduce the costs of conflict resolution in the longer term (Healey, 1998). Yuksel et al. (1999) argue that the incorporation of stakeholder views and interests could help to reduce conflicts in the long term by “drawing on the knowledge and insights of stakeholders” (p. 359).

The inclusion of stakeholders in a community is one key to the sustainable development of tourism (Byrd et al., 2009). Without the support of stakeholders in a community it is difficult to develop tourism in a sustainable manner (Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Ap, 1992; Gursoy et al., 2002). For instance, the attitudes of locals toward tourism in Williams, Arizona have become more negative overtime as a large corporate tourism operation expands rapidly without consideration of community adaptation and social carrying capacity. As a result, local residents did not support further tourism development, thus, this is difficult to achieve sustainable tourism development (Davis & Morais, 2004).

Several studies which compare perceptions and attitudes of residents and entrepreneurs (Andriotis, 2005; Pizam, 1978), residents and tourists (Puczkó & Rátz, 2000), residents, entrepreneurs, and tourists (Kavallinis & Pizam, 1994), residents, entrepreneurs and government officials (Lankford, 1994) reveal substantial differences among stakeholder groups. The results of Pizam (1978) indicated that residents and entrepreneurs in Cape Cod, Massachusetts had different views regarding the impact of tourism on the community’s quality of life; however, the two groups shared perceptions on the negative impacts of tourism on traffic congestion, the price of goods and property cost. In contrast, Andriotis (2005) found in Crete that there were not many differences between residents and
entrepreneurs in their perceptions of tourism impacts. But there were statistically significant differences between residents and tourists in terms of tourism impacts found in Hungary (Puczkó & Rátz, 2000). The perceptions of residents differed from government officials and entrepreneurs in terms of local roads, promotion and support, and environmental impacts; but there were no differences between government officials and entrepreneurs regarding tourism development (Lankford, 1994). While Byrd et al. (2009), comparing the perceptions of four stakeholder groups found significant differences between government officials and residents on tourism development.

Perceptions of specific stakeholder groups about tourism impacts are intensively researched in the literature. These include studies on tourists (Andereck, 2009; Sidali, Huber, & Schamel, 2017; Towoliu & Takaendengan, 2015; Yankholmes & Akyeampon, 2010; Zhang & Chan, 2016), residents (Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Diedrich & García-Buades, 2009; Gursoy et al., 2002; Long, Perdue, & Allen, 1990; Tosun, 2002), businesses owners (Carlsen, Getz, & Ali-Knight, 2001; Frey & George, 2010) and local government officials (Djaballah, Hautbois, & Desbordes, 2015; Gard McGehee, Meng, & Tepanon, 2006). However, comparative multiple stakeholders’ perceptions are rarely taken into account in research and analysis of tourism development, and none of these above compare the perceptions of different ethnic stakeholder groups. This study aims to fill that gap by comparing perceptions of the Kinh and Ethnic minority groups about tourism impacts in Sapa, Lào Cai, Vietnam.

Furthermore, those studies comparing tourism stakeholder perceptions mainly use surveys to collect data (Byrd et al., 2009; Pérez et al., 2017; Poudel et al., 2016), rather than applying qualitative methods to obtain in-depth personal and emotional foundations of tourism stakeholders’ perceptions of tourism impacts. Thus, this study employs the exploratory sequential mixed method approach which includes semi-structured interviews and a follow-up survey.

2.3. Social Exchange Theory (SET)

SET was first introduced in the early 1960s, and widely accepted in several disciplines such as sociology, anthropology and social psychology. SET can be defined as “The exchange of activity, tangible or intangible, and more or less rewarding or costly, between at least two persons” (Homans, 1961, p. 13). This theory argues that individuals act in a rational way in their social relations and accumulate the benefits and costs that they encounter. Furthermore, from the perspective of economics, under free competition and open markets, humans could rationally measure and pursue maximum utility from a transaction or exchange.
In the field of tourism, SET could be understood as “A general sociological theory concerned with understanding the exchange of resources between individuals and groups in an interaction situation” (Ap, 1992, p. 668). That is, residents interpret the impacts of tourism within the context of costs or benefits that they expect in return for the resources they provide for tourism. Consistent with much of the literature discussed in Section 2.1.4, SET suggests that attitudes of individuals towards tourism and their subsequent level of support for its development will be influenced by their evaluations of the outcomes of tourism for themselves and their communities (Ward & Berno, 2011). In other words, the more dependent a person or community is on tourism development, the more positive their attitudes are likely to be toward tourism development and vice versa (Weaver & Lawton, 2013, p. 168).

Since the introduction of SET to mainstream tourism research by Ap (1992), there have been numerous community attitude papers published utilizing this conceptual framework (Látková & Vogt, 2012; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Nunkoo & So, 2016). Specifically, relevant to this research, Maruyama, Keith, and Woosnam (2019, p. 1127), point out that most SET research has focused on economic costs and benefits suggesting the need for exploration of emotional exchange issues particularly in destinations where the ethnic community acts as a tourism commodity. Maruyama et al. (2019) argue that it is crucial to understand the perspectives of multiple groups of people in the community, because, groups may have different feelings toward one another and the tourism environment in their community. This research aims to contribute to the current and limited body of knowledge by employing SET to explain the Kinh and the Ethnic minority perspectives on tourism impacts and their implications for sustainable tourism development in Sapa.

SET helps to explain the attitudes of residents as key stakeholders in tourism, based on personal benefit, and perception of tourism impacts as a result of tourism development (Perdue, Long, & Allen, 1990). Local residents who perceive themselves as benefiting from tourism, are likely to view it positively, while residents who perceive themselves as incurring costs are likely to view tourism negatively (Jurowski, Uysal, & Williams, 1997; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Perdue et al., 1990; Wang & Pfister, 2008). This view is supported by Látková and Vogt (2012) and Ap (1992), who found that residents get personal value from tourism and believe that as long as the costs associated with tourism do not exceed the benefits residents are likely to support tourism development. In order to let stakeholders such as residents, civic leaders and entrepreneurs participate in tourism development exchanges, these must produce rewards that are valued and costs that do not exceed rewards (Skinmore,
This assumes that values can be more or less quantitatively measured and compared and raises questions regarding the limits of the SET approach. A study by Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) revealed that a person who has a strong exchange orientation might be more accepting of tourism tradeoffs than others who have a lower exchange tendency.

Although SET has been extensively applied as a standard conceptual framework in the tourism literature, it has many shortcomings. For instance, it mainly emphasizes the economic benefits that influence residents’ attitudes. However, non-economic aspects also provoke positive and negative attitudes towards tourism (Sirakaya, Teye, & Sonmez, 2002; Wang & Pfister, 2008). Another constraint of SET is that it fails to consider emotion. Actors are often viewed as “unemotional beings who have information, cognitively process it, and make decisions” (Lawler & Thye, 1999, p. 218). It would be beneficial for an organization if positive emotion improves cooperation, decreases conflicts, and increases perceived task performance, as found by (Dulac, Coyle-Shapiro, Henderson, & Wayne, 2008). As Maruyama points out, “positive feelings created from the relationship, then generate strong feelings of gratitude and solidarity between actors which may influence not only the decision to continue to engage in the relationship but also the engagement in collective behavior” (Maruyama et al., 2019, p. 1127). Nevertheless, the role of emotion in the application of SET is not typically considered in the tourism literature.

Power is a central component between stakeholders’ relationships in an exchange process. A seminal work of Foucault (1978) conceptualizes power as a relational construct which is ubiquitous in all social relations and is therefore inherent to SET (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012). Foucault noted that incorporating power in social exchanges was important because it determined the partners’ differential ability to take advantage of the outcomes of the exchange. Moreover, powerful groups often in government could use their advantageous position in their exchange with tourism. However, powerless stakeholders may still reveal positive attitudes toward tourism since they have fewer alternative opportunities and tend to be more dependent on and committed to the exchange with tourism as the source of their income. Thus, this study aims to find out whether stakeholders who are in power (Kinh) perceive the tourism impacts differently compared with relatively powerless Ethnic minorities.

It is clear that while SET has been widely applied in several studies of travel destinations, there is a lack of research applying SET in contexts where most of the stakeholders are ethnic minorities who tend to be poor and have few educational opportunities. Therefore, this study adds more to the current literature by considering
whether SET can be used to explain ethnic minority stakeholders’ perception of tourism in a destination with diverse cultures. This study tests whether SET is valid in destinations where the majority of ethnic residents are minority cultures in wider Vietnam. Moreover, there are a variety of other stakeholders in tourism destinations such as local authorities, tourists, and tourism businesses, who hold different identities, cultural values, interests, knowledge, power and preferences. Accordingly, they may have different perspectives regarding tourism impacts, and as a result, different perceptions and levels of support for sustainable tourism development.

One of the main criticisms of SET in tourism literature is that many studies employed quantitative assessments by giving respondents a list of pre-determined attributes rather than eliciting the particular impacts at the forefront of local stakeholders’ minds, with the implication that quantitative approaches could bias or lead respondents in a particular direction (Sue Beeton, 2006). Therefore, this study addresses this gap by carrying out two-stages of data collection. First, a semi-structured interview aimed to elicit the perceptions of key tourism stakeholders in Sapa regarding the benefits and costs of tourism development. Second, items on questionnaires were built based on the results of the first stage data analysis to include perceptions from the wider population.

2.4. Stakeholder Theory

Stakeholders can be defined as “any group or individual who is affected by or can affect the achievement of an organization’s objectives” (Freeman, 1984, p. 46). In Freemen’s definition, stakeholders were categorized into two groups: (1) those who can affect decisions and (2) those who are affected by the decisions taken (Haukelanda, 2011). “Stakeholder” could be understood as “An actor with an interest or stake in a common problem or issue and includes all individuals, groups or organizations directly influenced by the actions others take to solve a problem” (Gray, 1989, p. 5). In the context of this study, stakeholders are understood as any groups, individuals (tourists, residents), organizations (local authorities, businesses) or social groupings (community/ethnic groups, farmers) which could be affected by any decisions or the objectives related to tourism development.

Previous researchers identified a range of key stakeholders in the tourism context, for instance; Goeldner and Ritchie (2012) identified four primary groups of tourism stakeholders as tourists, residents, entrepreneurs, and local government officials. These are roughly paralleled in the work of Aqueveque and Bianchi (2017) as: a host community, tourists, tourism promoters, public agencies and bodies. The definition of stakeholders is expanded in the literature on sustainable tourism to include the present and future visitors,
present and future host communities (Byrd, 2007). Saito and Ruhanen (2017) further expand the list of stakeholders in tourism destinations to include: government (international, national, regional and local), government departments linking to tourism such as international, national, regional and local tourism organizations, tourism developers, entrepreneurs, tourism operators, non-tourism business practitioners, and the community including local community, indigenous people and local residents. With such a range of stakeholders potentially affected by tourism development, there is a need for procedures to effectively manage stakeholder involvement.

Effective stakeholder management would comprise at least the following basic procedural stages: identification and legitimization of stakeholders, relationship-building processes and transaction management. First, the identification and legitimization of all stakeholders interested in tourism development which include marginalized stakeholders who are considered to be on the fringe in decision-making processes (Hart & Sharma, 2004; Shaw & Coles, 2004). Second, the relationship-building process helps to clarify the roles and responsibilities of stakeholders because they have varied capabilities to perform different tasks. Although stakeholders do not have to be involved equally in decision-making, all interests from key stakeholders are identified and understood (Byrd, 2007). Last, Byrd (2007) suggested that stakeholder theory facilitates government regulation and control of tourism development. However, effective stakeholder management depends on availability of resources, time and leadership. The availability of these elements enables effective stakeholder collaboration that allows for deeper empowerment, engagement and ownership of the decision-making process, while limitations of these elements could discourage involvement and intensify negative impacts.

2.4.1 Attributes of stakeholders

Stakeholders could be any person, group or organization affected by the objectives of destination development. Therefore, they carry their own attributes; however, three basic stakeholder attributes which are power, legitimacy, and urgency should be considered in tourism development, since they are likely to result in differential influence in the development of destinations.

Power is defined in the seminal research of Weber, (1947), quoted in Mitchell et al. 1997, 865 as “the probability that one actor within a social relationship would be in a position to carry out his own will despite resistance”. When stakeholders have power in a relationship, they may be in an advantaged position to gain access to physical, financial or symbolic resources (Mitchell, Agle, & Wood, 1997). However, this access to these resources is
variable and not stable, which explains why power itself is transitory and can be realigned with changing relationships. In tourism development, power could be understood as a concept underlining the competition for, consumption of and control over scarce resources both material and cultural (Lenao, 2017). Because tourism development normally takes place within communities where different stakeholders or actors have different interests and levels of influence, powerful stakeholders could be expected to take advantage of their power as a tool to manipulate decision-making processes and outcomes.

Legitimacy is “a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system or norms, values, beliefs, definitions” (Suchman 1995, p. 574). Legitimate stakeholders are the person or groups which have the right to do something acceptably within society. In the tourism context, legitimate stakeholders would typically include tourists, residents, government officials, tourism businesses who should equally participate in tourism planning and development. However, in practice, the legitimacy of stakeholder participation in tourism development must also take into account the particularities of specific destinations.

Urgency is “the degree to which stakeholder claims call for immediate attention” (Mitchell et al., 1997, p. 867). The degree in this definition depends not only on time-sensitivity but also on how “critical” the needs of particular stakeholder groups or the importance of their rights and claims appear to managers and other powerholders. Time-sensitivity is understood as the degree to which processes attending to the claim or relationship are unacceptable to the stakeholder. However, criticality refers to the importance of the claim or the relationship between the stakeholder and managers. For instance, in the tourism context, claims to an equal distribution of economic benefits from tourism can be freely made by all stakeholders; however, the importance and urgency of the claims are determined by tourism managers or a tourism board, whose composition and response may reflect and/or exacerbate power differentials. In this situation, unequal power could be recognized when tourism managers make decisions favoring certain groups of stakeholders over others. Ideally, all stakeholders and their needs should be equally important, but in practice, managers are forced to prioritize not only to limited resources but also competing interests. To address this issue, it is important to emphasize the heterogeneity of stakeholders and call for more attention to marginalized and minority stakeholders’ concerns and interests. Stakeholders from minority, vulnerable or powerless social groups have their legitimate interests in society (Crane & Ruebottom, 2011). This is reinforced by Byrd (2007) who argues that all voices of stakeholder groups should be heard in a decision-making
process regardless of the degree of power and interest held by them. In the case of Sapa, despite their relative powerlessness in the wider political system, indigenous minorities could claim priority stakeholder status in terms of the legitimacy of indigenous rights in international law and of the iconic contribution of cultural tourism to the local industry.

2.4.2. Aspects of stakeholder theory

In organizational management, stakeholder theory is employed to explain and guide the structure and operation of established co-operation. However, stakeholder theory can be used in a number of ways depending on methodologies, types of evidence, and criteria of appraisal. Donaldson and Preston (1995) analyzed three types of uses of stakeholder theory, which are descriptive, instrumental and normative. The descriptive use describes or explains the characteristics of corporates, the nature of the firm, as well as the perspectives of managers regarding their roles. In the tourism context, the descriptive aspect of stakeholder theory can be described as the multiple elements of tourism in a community, such as the history of tourism development, the procedures and policies relating to development and management of tourism, types of attractions in the community, the economic impact to the community, the size of the tourism industry, and the connections between the different agencies and organizations.

The instrumental use assumes that corporations practicing good stakeholder management will, other things being equal, be relatively successful in conventional performance terms (Donaldson & Preston 1995, p 67). In this approach, instrumental stakeholder theory is a framework for examining the connections, if any, between the practice of stakeholder management and the achievement of various financial performance goals (1995:67).

The normative aspect is considered to be the fundamental core of stakeholder theory, which “is used to interpret the function of the corporation, including the identification of moral or philosophical guidelines for the operation and management of corporations” (Donaldson & Preston 1995, p 71). This perspective assumes that an organization participates in an activity because it is the right thing to do. Thus, the identification of a stakeholder in this respect is based on their interest in the organization for a common purpose (Byrd, 2007). The normative aspect assumes that all stakeholders have the right to be treated and participate in determining the direction of an organization or in this case, planning for tourism development. Ethnic minorities should have the right to participate in the initial goal and objectives to determine the tourism development for Sapa.
Each of the three uses of stakeholder theory indicates the need to identify the interests of all stakeholders. However, in practice not all stakeholders are likely to be involved in the decision-making process because of limited time and money. Nevertheless, all interests need to be identified and understood (Byrd, 2007). In the tourism context, the destination environment is complex and dynamic with differing interests, power relations and interdependencies. Multiple stakeholders often hold diverse views, values and there may be lack of apparent coordinating authority by any one group or individual (Jamal & Stronza, 2009). Therefore, it is very difficult to have a shared vision or common view among tourism stakeholders in a destination about what should be included in tourism plans and who should participate in tourism development processes to achieve sustainable tourism development.

2.5. Role of Stakeholders in Tourism Development

Stakeholders have an important role in developing successful tourist experiences and in implementing these. In order to do so it is necessary to involve local people (communities), the government (through its legislative control and policies) and business groups (Boora, 2005). International development agencies also have an important role to play in tourism development because their financing of community development and conservation of biological diversity projects has important implications for tourism development. In tourism destinations there are multiple stakeholders who participate in tourism activities and management with different positions and functions. Yodsuwan (2009) spells out the common stakeholder groups in the tourism context. These are listed in columns 1 and 2 of Table 2.3, with stakeholders in the Vietnam tourism context synthesized by the researcher in column 3.

Table 2.3. Stakeholder Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individual Groups</th>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>Key stakeholders in Vietnam tourism context</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local residents</td>
<td>Host population</td>
<td>Local residents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community groups</td>
<td>Tourism businesses</td>
<td>Tourists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tour operators</td>
<td></td>
<td>Tourism Business Authority and Government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourists</td>
<td></td>
<td>NGOs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experts</td>
<td>Public sector and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governments</td>
<td>government</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activist groups</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Based on Yodsuwan 2009, p. 37

The role of the public sector as the following: planning and research; leadership and coordination; creating and maintaining a suitable environment; marketing and promotion; partnership and teambuilding; community relationship; product development; identifying the elements of the destination; delivering on the ground (UNWTO, 2015; Van Niekerk,
However, the role of local governments is to ensure that tourism development is achieved in a well-planned and controlled way. Based on their direct relationship to the community and location environment local governments should have the leading role in tourism development.

The private sector includes tourism businesses, local residents, and current tourists. As Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2012) note, local residents should have a major influence on political decision-making processes. The support of local residents is important for ensuring a welcoming and hospitable population. As I discussed in Section 2.1.4, the research indicates that if local residents perceive benefits from tourism, they will support tourism development (Látková & Vogt, 2012; Perdue et al., 1990). But residents will not support tourism development when negative impacts from tourism are perceived as overriding benefits (Ko & Stewart, 2002; Látková & Vogt, 2012; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Vargas-Sánchez et al., 2009). Tourism destinations would develop more effectively if local residents felt that they were participating and well-informed about tourism destination management (Andereck et al., 2005). The private sector plays an important role in providing products and services for tourists (Simson, 2008), so these stakeholders, along with community residents have much knowledge to contribute to destination management.

2.6. Key Tourism Stakeholders in Sapa, Vietnam

**Local communities and residents**

Most citizens in Sapa are ethnic minority people who account for over 80% of the population (Duy, 2015). Currently, local communities participate in tourism activities by providing homestay, trekking, local tour guide, or other small tourism services. Many residents’ primary incomes still come from agricultural activities. Unfortunately, many of the local people have been destroying the ecological environment that is one of Sapa’s major attractions, by clearing the trees and hunting for animals in order to survive. They rely on hunting wild animals for food purposes, cutting trees and other activities that are polluting Hoàng Liên National Park where Sapa is situated. There are many poor people whose livelihoods depend upon using the national park resources.

**The local Government and authorities**

Lào Cai is a mountainous province in the Northwest region of Vietnam bordering the province of Yunnan in China. Lào Cai City and the Sapa region are two important areas in terms of the economic development of the province. All matters of politics, economics, education and tourism are under the management of Lào Cai People’s Committee which has several functional departments, including the Department of Planning and Investment,
Department of Culture, Sport and Tourism (DCST). Every province, city and town have a tourism department that manages local tourism activities. The tourism departments at provincial level are monitored by the Provincial People’s Committee and by the Ministry of Culture, Sport and Tourism (MCST). Sapa tourism falls under the management of the Department of Culture and Tourism (DCT), which is controlled by the DCST located in Lào Cai City. The main function of the DCT is to monitor, control, plan and report on the tourism issues to the higher layer level of management. Moreover, the department also monitors tourism in many villages in Sapa such as Tà Van, Tà Phìn, Lao Chải villages.

*Tourism businesses*

Although the Sapa region has great potential to develop tourism for local people, most of the investment in hotels and restaurants belongs to outsiders, primarily from the Kinh ethnic group. There are many tourism businesses located in Sapa town, such as accommodation providers, tour operators, restaurants, service companies. In recent years, the Lào Cai People’s Committee has had very open polices for investors, so that many outsiders come to buy land in order to build hotels and restaurants in Sapa Town, most of them are Kinh. This may bring promising tourism development in the future for Sapa. However, such investments also affect the livelihoods of rural villagers and result in land cover change around Sapa town, tourism results in abandonment of agricultural land and off-farm income sources could pull out ethnic minorities of farming jobs (Hoang et al., 2018).

*International organizations*

Many international organizations have been helping Sapa in developing sustainable tourism, nature conservation, and improving residents’ living conditions. For instance, SNV\(^3\) and IUCN projects implemented from 2001-2003 supported sustainable tourism development in Sapa such as a tourism development fee system; partnering with Sapa District People’s Committee to develop government policies that reduce poverty; improved capacity for sustainable tourism development by building tourist facilities such as trekking routes and cultural centers (Cuong, 2005). The PATA Foundation funded and supported a Community Tourism Training Project in the two remote communities of Tà Phìn and Lao Chải since 2009 to establish partnerships between the community and tour operators, and for development of tourism networks and homestay operations (PATA, 2016).

A longitudinal tourism project which makes a significant contribution for tourism planning and development in Sapa and Lào Cai is Lào Cai – Aquitaine project started in

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\(^3\) SNV – Stichting Nederlandse Vrijwilligers (Foundation of Netherlands Volunteers).
1998. A Memorandum of Understanding between Lào Cai Province and The Aquitaine Region of southwest France was signed in 2002. The main purpose of this project was to develop tourism plans for Sapa, provide training for tourism professionals, particularly for ethnic minorities and improve tourist services and the quality of tourist reception. The European Union and the French Development Agency (AFD) provided millions of Euros for development of Sapa District’s tourism sector. However, as reflected in Chapter 3, my position as a university lecturer who has not worked or been involved in NGO projects, meant that I did not have full access to the results of these projects which are also not available online. The aim of this study is to compare the perspectives of tourism stakeholders about tourism development in Sapa, independent of the results of these projects.

Sapa O’Chau is the Travel and Social Enterprise which runs on social enterprise principles to support Sapa and its ethnic minorities. It trains ethnic minority people to provide trekking guides for tourists and supports the studies of ethnic minority high school students. Its travel operations in Sapa provide job opportunities for homestay owners, high school students, and local craftswomen (O’Chau, 2020). The cooperation between Hanoi Open University and Capilano University in Canada funded English classes, product development, destination management and marketing for local tour operators. In 2010, IPADE/SNV supported the construction of a marketplace in Tả Phìn village.

2.7. An application of Stakeholder Theory in Tourism Planning

Stakeholder theory has been applied in many tourism studies as a planning and management tool (Jamal & Getz, 1995; Sautter & Leisen, 1999). The application of stakeholder theory in tourism requires tourism planners to realize and consider the perspectives of diverse stakeholder groups that are involved in the tourism development process. This study adapted five areas suggested by Khazaei, Elliot, and Joppe (2015) which should be considered when targeting a high level of community participation in tourism planning as follows;

2.7.1. Marginal & less powerful status of ethnic minority stakeholders

Marginal stakeholders could be understood as “parties affected by a firm’s action but who nevertheless have no actual or foreseeable influence to shape its strategic goals” (Gibson, 2017, p. 189). Marginal stakeholders are often considered as fringe social groups and stereotyped as poor, weak, disinterested, isolated or illiterate (Hart & Sharma, 2004). The term marginal stakeholders used in this study primarily concerns ethnic minority groups who have traditionally been dominated by the dominant Kinh group in Vietnam and experience discrimination, including often being excluded from political roles. At the same
time these groups constitute the majority of the population in Sapa, and their cultures play a central role in the constitution of tourism in Sapa. Thus, to involve more less-powerful ethnic minorities in the tourism planning, there is a need for a change in government policies to actively engage less powerful stakeholders.

2.7.2. Political structure of the destinations

The application and implementation of participatory approaches are difficult in many developing countries, because of the centralization of the administrative system (Tosun, 2000). Given the reliance of many developing countries on the foreign exchange derived from tourism, the planning and management of tourism tends to be centralized in order to achieve pre-determined government objectives (Tosun, 2000). Such centralization limits the participation of local residents in tourism planning activities and increases the vertical distance between planners and the broad mass of the population. Therefore, the participatory approaches may require the decentralization of public administration systems including tourism planning.

2.7.3. Rebalance stakeholders’ power, roles and relationships

Vietnam is a highly centralized political system; therefore, political power is only in the hands of elite groups, who are mostly Kinh. The decentralization of the administrative system in tourism is critical to the success of community participation in tourism planning. Such decentralization could rebalance the power belonging to certain groups of stakeholders, in particular enabling ethnic minorities to hold more management positions in the political system. Furthermore, Khazaei et al. (2015) suggest that more powerful stakeholders need to modify their traditional roles to facilitate the engagement of marginal community members and empower them to become active partners in a collaborative approach to planning. But as Yang and Wall (2009a) argue, because powerful stakeholders are unlikely to voluntarily relinquish their power, therefore education and information exchange is needed for all tourism stakeholders. Planning authorities must provide enough opportunities through progressive policies and protocols for various stakeholders to become involved in planning regardless of their social status and level of education.

2.7.4. Diversity & heterogeneity within host communities

Tourism destinations are highly complex because of multiple administrative systems and many stakeholders with diverse interests and views on tourism and sustainability. Jamal and Stronza (2009) indicated that the community should not be treated as a homogenous unit. This study aims to support the expansion of diversity in implementation of the concept of “full community participation” as one of the main components of stakeholder
participation. In practice, there is a tendency not to involve all stakeholders due to limited resources, expertise and the desire for rapid decision-making. Therefore, to increase involvement of stakeholders in the design and implementation of tourism planning and decision-making processes, more progressive approaches to implementation of stakeholder theory should be considered. Research question 14 in this study aims to understand the various perspectives on tourism impacts among different ethnic groups, as a step toward a broadened and more inclusive approach to stakeholder participation.

2.7.5. Flexible & customized participation strategies & methods

Customized strategies for different stakeholder groups based on their motivations, roles and relationship with wider political and organizational structures are necessary for progressive approaches to stakeholder theory (Bridoux & Stoelhorst, 2014). The complex range of destinations with diverse cultural and ethnic minority groups in Sapa calls for flexible and customized community engagement strategies. Therefore, many appropriate techniques could be applied to engage more ethnic minority representation in tourism planning through surveys, scenario gaming techniques, advisory boards, public hearings, focus groups, public deliberation, citizen review panels, civic review boards, workgroups, implementation studies and written comments. However, when applying these techniques, not only training programs should be provided for ethnic people who may have a lack of tourism knowledge, but also sensitivity training for other stakeholders whose views contribute to marginalization. Furthermore, segmentation or classification of ethnic residents’ perceptions of tourism impacts could be useful before implementing these strategies, because policymakers would know which groups of resident support tourism development, thus a suitable strategy could apply for a certain group to engage them in tourism development. However, the methods and strategies must be adapted based on the nature of each specific project.

Figure 2.1 below shows how research on stakeholder theory could contribute to sustainable tourism development by enhancing marginal stakeholder’s participation in tourism planning. As discussed above, five criteria should be considered when targeting the involvement of ethnic minorities or marginal stakeholders in tourism planning. First, based on the findings of RQ25, the study would suggest the adapted planning approach which could support for changing the political structures of the destination. Second, the diversity and

4RQ1: What are similarities and differences in the perceptions of Kinh and Ethnic Minority tourism stakeholders regarding tourism impacts?
5 RQ2. What forms of participation in tourism planning currently exist among tourism stakeholders in Sapa?
heterogeneity within community could be supported by findings of RQ1 which find out the differences in the perceptions between two groups regarding tourism impacts. Thus, new ways of stakeholder categorization and prioritization could be proposed. However, the shift from powerful stakeholders to less powerful stakeholder could be solved by government policies. Moreover, the collaborative stakeholder’s relationship could support for rebalance stakeholder’s power, role through the government policies.
Figure 2.1. Marginal Stakeholder Engagement in Tourism Planning

Source: Adapted from Khazaei et al. (2015)
2.8. Forms of Stakeholder’s Participation in Tourism

An early effort to analyze forms of community participation in the development studies area by Arnstein (1969), proposed a ladder of eight levels which are classified in turn according to degrees of impact among three categories: non-participation, tokenism and citizen power. The lowest level of participation is interpreted as manipulative, the highest level of community participation refers to significant degrees of citizen power to affect decisions. Citizen tokenism is characterized as a middle category but depending upon the nature of power relations and how community groups take advantage of token representation, could vary from manipulative to empowering. A parallel typology of community participation is classified by Painter (1992) as including pseudo, partial, and full types. Pseudo-participation covers attempts which are made to offer a feeling of community participation, but in practice is mainly restricted to informing and endorsement. When communities are provided with some opportunities to participate in the decision-making process, but the final decisions are made by the authorities, is termed partial participation. Often, in this type, decisions have been predetermined by government officials although local community members may not agree with these decisions. Full participation means that everyone has equal influence in the outcome of the process. Pretty’s contribution (1995) describes community participation through seven levels which are manipulative, passive, material incentives, functional, interactive and self-mobilization. However, these forms of community participation were developed in the context of development studies, not in tourism. Therefore, Tosun (1999) adapts these forms of community participation to the specific characteristics of the tourism industry, classifying them as, spontaneous, coercive and induced types of participation. These forms of participation are shown in the following table.
Table 2.4. Typology of Community Participation

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<thead>
<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Manipulative participation</td>
<td>1. Manipulation</td>
<td>Non-participation</td>
<td>Coercive: Top-down, passive, mostly indirect, it relies on a high degree on tokenism and manipulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Passive participation</td>
<td>2. Therapy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Participation by consultation</td>
<td>3. Informing</td>
<td></td>
<td>Induced: Top-down approach, passive participation which means that citizen participation is designed and controlled by others, and they are merely consulted during decision-making processes. This mode includes pseudo-participation which represents a degree of tokenism and is sometimes procedural rather than substantive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Participation for material incentives</td>
<td>4. Consultation</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Functional participation</td>
<td>5. Placation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Interactive participation</td>
<td>6. Partnership</td>
<td>Degrees of citizen tokenism</td>
<td>Spontaneous: Bottom-up, active participation which means that people feel that they are acting as free agents rather than under any pressure or as a result of manipulation or deception. Active involvement of citizens whose role in decision-making contributes fully to the intended development. Direct participation by face-to-face relationship between citizens and the authorities. Citizens participate in the whole process of development, sharing benefits; involves authentic, broadly based engagement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Self-mobilization</td>
<td>7. Delegated power</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. Citizen control</td>
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</table>

Adapted from Tosun (2006, p. 494)

In many developing countries in the past, due to a top-down approach in tourism planning, public participation processes were not implemented, and provincial-level administrators avoided the practice of including other interest groups in tourism planning (Ioannides, 1995; Timothy, 1999; Tosun, 1998). Hall (2008) has argued that the “top-down” approach should be replaced by a “bottom-up”, therefore decentralized and inclusive, form of governance in which businesses and local communities are encouraged to take more responsibility for management decisions. Supported by Mair and Reid (2007), tourism planning needs to meet broader community development goals by shifting away from traditional “top-down” and narrowly economic approaches. According to Alshboul (2016) the bottom-up approach in tourism planning is not considered in many developing countries,
often citing the excuse that planning done at the lower levels of government always runs the risks of not having adequate resources to turn those plans into concrete projects. It is assumed that local communities do not have the capacity to mobilize the resources necessary for institutions to run tourism development programs as compared to centralized government institutions.

It is evident that in developing countries, tourism strategic plans contain the vision, mission, objectives, goals; and typically state that community participation is required at some stages of tourism planning (Dredge & Jenkins, 2006). Government documents emphasize community involvement, but extensive community consultation occurs only on an individual project basis, with no overall vision of the community future and no consultation on the cumulative impacts of developing numerous individual facilities. Thus, this study investigates the forms of participation in tourism planning in practice from the perspectives of many local stakeholders.

2.9. Citizen Participation in Vietnam

2.9.1. Regulations to promote citizen participation

Citizen participation in Vietnam has become a society concern with the promulgation of the 1998 Decree on Grassroots Democracy by the Vietnamese Government.\(^6\) This decree aims to enable citizen to exercise their rights, be informed of government activities that affect them, discuss and contribute to the formulation of certain policies, participate in local government activities and supervise certain government actions (Marine, La, Yoann, & Xavier, 2019). Indeed, the Vietnamese state has become more open in discussing and cooperating with social organizations in the policy-making processes. Organizations formed by citizens have emerged and promoted values of democratic governance, including increased participation of citizens in policymaking. The concept of citizen’s right to participate in state management and government responsibility is highlighted in the Vietnamese legal documents such as the Ordinance No. 34/2007/PL-UBTVQH11 on Democratic Implementation at Communes, Wards and Towns (Pháp lệnh về thực hiện dân chủ ở xã, phường, thị trấn) which are considered as providing an institutional framework for local residents’ engagement in decision-making in a democratic manner, for instance through residents’ opinion-gathering at village meetings.

Another Vietnamese legal document such as Law No 42/2013/QH13 on Reception of Citizen (Luật về tiếp công dân) enables residents to complain about a state decision or the

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conduct of state agency officials. Residents may lodge a complaint to the state agencies established at central, provincial, district and commune levels. Law No.104/2016/QH13 on Access to Information (Luật về tiếp cận thông tin) helps residents not only to access information and requires that state agencies provide information for residents. Moreover, in the Decree 90/2013/ND-CP on Accountability of State Agencies in Implementation of the Assigned Tasks and Powers (Nghị định về quy định trách nhiệm của cơ quan nhà nước trong việc thực hiện nhiệm vụ quyền hạn được giao) refers to the fact that the government provides, explains and clarifies information about its performance and authority.

As a result, interactions between the state agencies and citizens have been gradually improving in Vietnam. According to PAPI\(^7\) (2017), 25 percent of survey respondents had contacted village heads, and 17 percent had contacted commune-level government officials to submit petitions. Roughly 81 percent of respondents had at one time or another communicated with the village head and commune governments, and they were satisfied with this interaction (CECODES et al, 2018). Furthermore, in 2018 the deputies of the National Assembly received more than 2000 petitions and opinions sent by citizens across the country. This shows some signs of interaction between the government agencies and the citizens. However, the quality of responses made by the related state agencies to such petitions remains ambiguous or lacked clear explanation (VietNamNews, 2018).

2.9.2. The other side of the coin

Although the Vietnamese government has attempted to encourage the participation of citizen in political activities by establishing the above regulations, the implementation of such regulation in practice is still debatable. For instance, regarding the Ordinance No 34/2007/PL-UBTVQH11 on Democratic Implementation at Communes, Wards, and Towns, Nguyen (2017) indicated that although there were signs of political reform when the state opened up some spaces for local authorities and ordinary people in decision-making, but at the same time he points out a clear prescription of the role of the Party’s leadership in the Ordinance and that it is a dual strategy in which the state allows citizens some level of participation in local decision-making, while retaining its one party ruling mechanism (Nguyen 2017, pp 38-40). Furthermore, Kwak (2019) argued that the main objectives of establishing such legal documents was not only to reinforce democracy but also to prevent the emergence of any mass social movement after the widespread unrest in Thái Bình\(^8\)

\(^7\) PAPI – Public Administration Participation Index extracted from the report provided by CECODES (Centre for Community Support and Development Studies).

\(^8\) The local government in Thái Bình province does not have a fair policy in relation to fee collection and the spending process for local infrastructure development projects. This resulted in many protests occurring
Province in 1997 (Nguyen, 2014). In practice, the effectiveness of the new Ordinances depends on the willingness of power holders and local dynamics.

Although public meetings are organized at the provincial and lower levels, citizen participation is often tokenistic with few chances to affect real or lasting change or monitor policies. The state controls all individual and organizational activities in the name of public security, so citizens could participate only within the boundaries permitted by the legal frameworks. Therefore, citizen participation within a restricted and top-down approach to planning and decision-making are still popular in Vietnam. Vietnam remains a one-party state where state management is led by the Communist Party Vietnam (CPV). The term “democracy” in Vietnam does not refer to the full exercise of individual freedoms and rights of participation. Instead, residents may express their opinions or petitions within the control of CPV and realistic prospects of full participation are consequently constrained.

Although, Vietnam introduced public complaint mechanisms in 1998, which was then developed through the Law on Complaints and Denunciations. However, the law does not allow collective attempts to participate in the process. Citizens have to individually submit their administrative petitions and letters of complaint to authorities, but not through collective forms of participation. Therefore, the Vietnamese participation in political activities is basically procedural rather than substantive and open to individuals but not collective forms of political participation, where organizational strategies can provide a power base not otherwise available to the general public.

2.10. Types of Planning Approaches in Tourism

According to Hall (2008), a major tradition in tourism planning is boosterism which presupposes that tourism is beneficial to a destination and its residents. Moreover, the main aims of this type of planning are to increase economic revenues and support tourism-related businesses. However, one of the issues of this planning is that the destination resources are viewed as objects to be exploited for tourism, and negative impacts on economic, social and environmental assets/qualities normally are neglected. Another issue of this growth-oriented approach to planning is that local residents in tourist destinations are not usually involved in the planning process.

It is evident that tourism development brings many problems to local communities such as overcrowding, traffic congestion, environmental and socio-cultural deterioration. To avoid these issues, many countries have prepared tourism development plans. However,
many of these plans are not implemented, others are only “partially or very partially implemented”. According to Gunn (1988, 24) this type of planning is defined as “conventional planning” which “has too often been oriented only to a plan, too vague and all encompassing, reactive, sporadic, divorced from budgets and extraneous data producing.” In developing countries many plans designed at national and regional level have not been implemented due to centralization of administration, lack of a clear structure of responsibility, lack of public sector co-ordination, and lack of funding (Andriotis, 2007), not to mention the vested interests of political elites and bureaucratic actors.

Gunn (1994) proposed interactive planning as an alternative to conventional planning. This type of planning could be understood as a multidimensional and integrative approach. Because these activities comprise social, economic, political, psychological, anthropological, and technological aspects, Gunn proposes building tourism planning which is based on the aspects which are needed in tourism sector in order for it to be sustained and succeed. In addition, in this type of planning, Gunn argues that a better decision could be made by means of a participative process, and that decisions have a much better chance of being implemented if publics have been involved. Thus, the interactive planning proposed top-down, together with bottom-up input, for better implementation of plans. It is argued that interactive planning is better than conventional planning, although involvement of local communities in tourism planning and decision-making processes is not always easy.

The participatory tourism planning approach suggested by Timothy (1999) incorporates the local community’s opinions and desires into the planning process. Public or local community’s participation in tourism can be viewed from two perspectives; their involvement in decision-making and their benefits from tourism. First, local participation means the involvement of local residents and interested groups in decision-making and should empower local residents to determine their own goals for tourism development. There is involvement of not only local residents but also other stakeholders and interest groups in decision-making. Second, local residents get benefits from tourism development through employment and education. Based on the characteristics of participation typology discussed previously, spontaneous participation could enable the participatory tourism planning approach. The form of this approach comprises the involvement of community members in decision-making, local’s participation in the benefits of tourism, and education of locals about tourism which as illustrated in the figure below:
2.11. Community Participation in Tourism Planning

Planning in tourism is crucial to increase the social, economic and environmental benefits of tourism development. If tourism is not properly planned and managed, it has the potential to inflict negative impacts on host destinations. Moreover, if tourism is poorly planned, this may lead to division among host community and some members of the community who may have hostile attitudes toward tourists and the broader industry (Keogh, 1990). Hence, Murphy and Murphy (2004) suggest that the more the community is consulted and engaged in tourism development, the more it will be inclined to accept or support tourism development. Consequently, tourism planning in destinations must get the community’s acceptance of tourism development. Moreover, community tourism planning and a need for local control of destinations has long been advocated to develop a more socially and environmentally responsible form of tourism.

Community could be defined as “a geographical area, or a group of people with shared origins or interests” (Aas, Ladkin, & Fletcher, 2005, p. 30). They are considered as the most important tourism stakeholders, furthermore, community members are key components of the “hospitality atmosphere” of destinations (Simmons, 1994, p. 98). Residents are also one of the key stakeholders for tourism development and have to participate in planning and implementation in order to control changes that affect their lives (Timothy, 1999), thus their participation is essential in order to achieve the overall goals of sustainable tourism development (Ariunaa, 2012). Since the development of the tourism industry brings both positive and negative impacts, when residents become involved in the tourism planning process, it is more likely that benefits will be maximized and costs minimized (Matarrita-Cascante, Brennan, & Luloff, 2010). Moreover, high levels of public participation in tourism planning processes are considered to represent “citizen power” in
which residents are in control and have the potential to refuse agency decisions (Sten Hansen & Mäenpää, 2008). Besides, Tosun (2005) notes that community participation in tourism planning and decision-making process and access to the benefits of tourism development helps to gradually empower host communities. Local residents will take control over tourism development, in particular, and other local matters in general. However, this is not the experience of most major tourism destinations, for instance; the expanding tourism in Kodomo National Park, Indonesia decreases local control at destinations, especially where the ownership falls to outsiders (Cochrane, 2013).

Participation of local residents in the tourism planning process is one of the ways through which local communities are able to become involved in tourism development and share tourism benefits fairly (Bello, Lovelock, & Carr, 2018). When local residents are involved in the tourism planning process, they have the potential be able to set their own goals, identify their hopes and concerns for tourism, and through that process tourism benefits to communities could be maximized (Murphy, 1988; Timothy, 1999). Inputs from local residents in the tourism planning process are crucial because they are the main custodians of the natural and cultural resources in a destination. Therefore, local residents’ participation could facilitate the development of tourism which is more responsive to the local economic and social needs of a community (Haywood, 1988; Murphy, 1983). However, Donaldson and Preston (1995) contend that government officials tend to be reluctant to include local residents in the tourism planning and decision-making process unless the residents are highly educated and in a position of power. Byrd, Cárdenas, and Greenwood (2008), on the other hand, argued that even if stakeholders do not hold positions of power, or have limited understanding of tourism, they are still able to offer insights into social and cultural relationships that may affect the distribution of benefits and costs of tourism.

There are several benefits of community participation in tourism planning. First, when local residents are involved in tourism planning, they have a sense of ownership of the development plans, and they are able to provide the necessary support to tourism development-related activities. Such support could increase the effectiveness and efficiency of the implementation plan (Inskeep, 1991). In addition, possible conflicts could be reduced during the planning process with the involvement of local communities, because all stakeholders have a chance to understand the viewpoints of others (Reid, Mair, & George, 2004). Last, it is possible for a destination to deliver tourism experiences which satisfy both tourists and local residents through community tourism planning (Simmons, 1994). Where
local residents participate in tourism planning processes which facilitate the desired guest-host relationship, tourists feel welcome in a destination. Timothy and Tosun (2003) suggest that the participation of local communities in tourism planning plays a role in strengthening the democratization process in destinations and the gap between local residents and bureaucratic decision makers could be narrowed during the planning process. Such participation could contribute to equal distribution of tourism benefits and costs.

It may be expected that widespread stakeholder participation would address most major issues, leading to decisions that will be tenable in the long-term (Murphy & Murphy, 2004). Stakeholder involvement may also improve possibilities for effective distribution of economic benefits to local communities. However, this depends upon which end of the participation typology spectrum applies to in each specific destination.

In planning activities, the degree of community participation has been influenced by the dominant approaches to stakeholder participation and their underlying assumptions. There are two approaches to stakeholder engagement in tourism (Byrd, 2007). Firstly, drawing on studies in the management field, stakeholder management considered the interests of the stakeholders and developed policies and practices based on the stakeholder’s power and influence. Stakeholders with more power were given more consideration than those with less. The second approach is based on an inclusive strategy built on the concept of collaborative thinking developed by Jamal & Getz (1995) and on the normative approach to stakeholder theory. This approach asserts that consideration should be given to each stakeholder group without one being given priority over others. However, in Vietnam Kinh stakeholders are given priority over other ethnic groups in tourism planning (Michaud & Turner, 2017). Therefore, this study focuses on the voice of ethnic minority tourism stakeholders in Sapa and compare them with Kinh group.

2.12. Barriers of Stakeholder’s Participation in Tourism Planning

The concept of multiple stakeholders’ participation in tourism planning has been widely advocated in literature, however, there are many criticisms about assumptions underpinning this approach. In developing countries, there are many challenges that affect the inclusion of local residents in tourism planning due to inadequate financial resources; inadequate information; lack of trained human resources in tourism planning; unfair distribution of tourism benefits; human-wildlife conflicts; low education levels of local residents; poverty and apathy; centralized public administration; lack of coordination and conflicts of interest; high costs of implementation; elite domination; power disparities and

There are some other barriers to stakeholders participating in tourism activity, planning and management processes as indicated by Ladkin and Bertramini (2002) these include lack of expertise and training of tourism planning authorities; political system such as centralization of authority; lacking of fund; lack of interest or commitment by tourism stakeholders; lack of long-term strategic planning; lack of consensus on specific structures and process. These results are also supported by Hatipoglu, Alvarez, and Ertuna (2016) in Turkey, where they argue that stakeholders’ narrow vision, lack of strategic orientation and financial focus are the reasons impeding the involvement of tourism stakeholders in the planning process of sustainable tourism development.

Differences in opinions and conflict of interest among stakeholders can also be barriers to stakeholders participating in tourism development, in other words, the absence of a shared vision is one of the main criticisms of community-based tourism and participatory approaches (Blackstock, 2005; Hatipoglu et al., 2016; Sautter & Leisen, 1999). In the Vietnamese context, especially in Sapa, the domination of Kinh people in many tourism planning activities may constrain other stakeholder groups participating in tourism planning processes. In addition, most of the local residents in Sapa, including ethnic minority people, have limited formal education, not fluency in the dominant language, and external networks or experience of tourism, these could affect their understanding of tourism plans, and capacity to participate in tourism planning.

An issue hindering the participation of the local community in indigenous tourism is the exclusion of local residents from tourism benefits. The tourism benefits could be a factor motivating individuals to participate in tourism development. This point is supported by Latip, Rasoolimanesh, Jaafar, Marzuki, and Umar (2018) who studied the motivation of native people of Sabah, Malaysia participating in tourism development, the results suggested that if residents perceived more economic impacts, they also tend to be more supportive and participative in tourism activities. In the Sapa context, economic benefits are mainly in the hands of Kinh elites (Michaud & Turner, 2017), thus it could be predicted that the perceptions of Kinh stakeholders are more positive about economic impacts and more supportive of tourism development than Ethnic minorities.

Fletcher, Pforr, and Brueckner (2016) considered the governance and policy context enabling participation of indigenous peoples in tourism development. They argued that indigenous participation needs an effective and appropriate governance framework which
could protect local cultures and bring their economic and employment interests into long-term strategic planning. Fletcher et al. (2016) also indicated that indigenous community members considered economic and environmental benefits are the most important factors influencing their support for tourism development. Nevertheless, Hung, Sirakaya-Turk, and Ingram (2011) argued that although tourism benefits communities, community members may not always participate in tourism development, because the benefits are often credited to the whole community rather than to individuals.

Countries with centralized governments may not have a requirement for legitimation of decision-making and therefore have little need to include consideration of residents’ requirements in the decision-making process (Tosun, 2000). For example, due to local government administration practices in Yogyakarta, Indonesia, public participation process was not implemented, and provincial-level administrators have avoided the practice of including other interest groups in tourism planning (Timothy, 1999). Tosun (1998) addressed unsustainable tourism development in Pamukkale, Turkey and found that local resident’s needs were ignored by local government because of a centralized decision-making process. Ioannides (1995) undertook research on a flawed approach to sustainable tourism in Cyprus and identified that stakeholder’s exclusion from the tourism planning process meant that the opinions of local residents were not included in any discussions surrounding the establishment of a national park resulting in problems with tourism development. These situations are similar to the Vietnamese context, where citizens have nominal influence on the decision-making processes.

It should be noted that it is too ambitious to claim that public participation in tourism planning brings perfect harmony to the development process (Bramwell, 2010). For instance, Wells (1983) claims that active participation in tourism planning may increase conflict among local communities and other stakeholders - including government. Local stakeholders should not be considered a homogenous group and differences in perceptions about tourism and tourism development could result in conflict among the stakeholder groups (Byrd et al., 2009).

The barriers to stakeholder involvement in tourism planning could be summarized in the following table:
Table 2.5. Identified barriers Stakeholder Involvement in Tourism Planning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operational Barriers</th>
<th>Structural Barriers</th>
<th>Personal and Cultural Barriers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of transparent information</td>
<td>Lack of expertise</td>
<td>Low awareness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak administration</td>
<td>Lack of training</td>
<td>Apathy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor coordination and collaboration</td>
<td>High costs</td>
<td>Mistrust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor Implementation or Execution</td>
<td>Poor legal framework</td>
<td>Domination by elite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Failure to influence process</td>
<td>Lack of access to resources</td>
<td>Low education level</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Bello et al. (2017) and Tosun (2000)

2.13. Collaboration Theory

Directly related to the increasing recognition of the importance of broad stakeholder participation in tourism development planning, collaboration has been adopted and applied as a new management strategy for solving problems. In Gray’s widely accepted definition, collaboration is “a process of joint decision making among key stakeholders of a problem domain about the future of that domain” (Gray, 1989, p. 227). The problem domain in this definition refers to a situation where problems are complex and require inter-or-multi-organizational responses, because they are beyond the capacity of any single individual or group to handle independently. Therefore, stakeholders in the “problem domain” need to build and participate in joint-decision-making processes to reduce the risks they may face. In relation to collaboration processes, Gray (1989) proposed a 3-stage model includes problem-setting, direction-setting, and the structuring stage.

Problem-setting helps to identify key issues and stakeholders. At this stage, stakeholders begin to appreciate the interdependence that exists among them and realize the need for collective action to solve identified problems. Moreover, stakeholders in this stage recognize each other, acknowledge the issues that connect them and may be prepared to build commitment to address these issues through face-to-face dialogue. Jamal and Getz (1995) specifically argue that at this stage, there is a need for identifying and legitimizing stakeholders, building commitment to collaborate by raising awareness of interdependence.

The direction-setting stage helps to identify and share future collaborative interpretations and appreciate a sense of common purpose. This stage is to form a collaborative working group that allows local stakeholders to voice their opinions regarding economic, socio-cultural and environmental issues of impacts tourism in their destination. According to Jamal and Getz (1995), there were some important actions at this stage such as collecting shared information, appreciating shared values, enhancing perceived interdependence, establishing rules and an agenda for direction setting, discussing various options, selecting appropriate solutions and arriving at a shared vision or plan through consensus.
The structuring stage involves institutionalizing the shared meanings of the group and devising a regulatory framework to guide future collective action (Gray, 1985). Some necessary actions are vital, including to discuss means of implementing and monitoring solutions; establish a shared vision, plan or strategy; select a suitable structure for the institutionalizing process; assign goals and tasks; monitor ongoing processes; and ensure compliance with collaboration decisions (Jamal and Getz, 1995).

Collaboration in planning would help to involve a wide range of stakeholders at different levels of governance who have a stake in constructive outcomes. Participants in collaborative planning would be engaged in negotiation, shared decision-making and consensus building. Doing so could help central government to share power and decision-making with provincial and local authorities. In order to implement the collaborative processes from initiation to implementation, some important inputs such as form of participation, interdependence among stakeholders, common vision, leadership and mandate need to be considered. There are diverse groups of people or stakeholders in Sapa, they are also culturally different, the collaboration among them would help shared decision-making and build consensus in tourism planning. Furthermore, in the Vietnamese context, central government manipulate tourism and economic activities, as mentioned above, collaboration could help share power to community level. Thus, findings of this study would provide some key requirements for the implementation of collaborative processes (see figure 2.3).

Based on the theoretical foundations discussed above, relevant academic literature about collaborative planning, stakeholder participation and collaboration in tourism planning, I developed a generic conceptual model which focuses on the collaborative tourism planning. The theoretical model below spells out the relationship between the participation and collaboration in tourism planning. The form of stakeholder’s participation is the necessary input to develop the collaborative approach in tourism planning. An interdependence among stakeholders, shared common vision, leadership and mandate also require as inputs to achieve collaborative tourism planning approach. The suggested model is intended to provide a framework for researchers to interpret critically collaborative arrangements for tourism planning and a framework that helps to guide the practitioner in the development of collaborative tourism planning for regional development. Hence, it is intended to have value for researchers and for policymakers and planners. The collaborative approach process illustrates in the figure as follow:
2.13.1. The rationale for collaboration in sustainable tourism

Collaboration involves a relationship between stakeholders when parties interact with each other in relation to a common issue. Each stakeholder controls some resources, for instance, knowledge, expertise, capital, but they cannot possess all the resources to achieve their objective to plan effectively in the future regarding a significant tourism development problem. Tourism is complex and multiple stakeholders influence and are affected by tourism development. This means that stakeholders need to work together to solve the problem, realize goals, and create new opportunities (Bramwell & Lane, 2000). The dependency on resources and interdependence among stakeholders means that there are potential mutual benefits among stakeholders to collaborate with each other. There are potential mutual or collective benefits for stakeholders in collaborative processes where the participants can learn from each other, develop the new policies, and respond to a changing environment (Bramwell & Lane, 2000).

The rationale for collaboration in sustainable tourism has particular importance for organizational theory in a context where market failure and shifting relationships between sets of interests are likely to emerge, induced by the tourism development process itself (Parker, 2000). Market failure occurs when an inefficient distribution of goods and services occurs in the free market. Thus, there is a need of government intervention which in turn requires the collaboration of public and private sectors. Equally, important are conflicting objectives of those promoting the growth of tourism and parties primarily concerned with
environmental conservation and cultural protection. For tourism development that is sustainable these needs to coexist, as follows:

First, tourism has problems in common with other industries operating in sensitive environments. These arise where external diseconomy (negative externality) occurs when one person or business imposes some cost or hardship on others without having to compensate them and markets tend to invest less than the sufficient level needed, for example, to manage environmental degradation properly. In this situation, a partnership between the public and private sector initiated by government intervention could correct market failure and as a result may contribute to achieving sustainable tourism goals (Choi, 2005). Furthermore, the aim of sustainable tourism development is to ensure a fair distribution of the benefits from tourism development and to provide an opportunity for the participation of stakeholders in all tourism activities and decision-making. Therefore, government has to intervene in the tourism industry by cooperating with both the public and private sectors to secure proper competition between tourism businesses as well as a fair distribution of benefits.

Second, collaboration among stakeholders for sustainable tourism development could be interpreted in the context of organizational theory, because it could be viewed as a type of inter-organizational relationship (Choi, 2005). For instance, Jamal and Getz (1995) argued that in tourism settings where diverse interests of numerous organizations are involved, and many intersecting individuals and organizations act independently, sometimes they conflict with each other. They emphasized that “no single organization or individual can exert direct control over the destination’s development process” (Jamal and Getz, 1995:193). Especially in the context of Sapa where there are diverse stakeholder groups, thus, it is necessary to collaborate to manage the uncertainty, complexity and conflicts.

Finally, the rationale for collaboration in sustainable tourism could be explained in the situation of shifting relationships between two interested parties, promotion of tourism and promotion of conservation (Parker, 2000). Butler (1980) classified tourism development in a destination into six stages which include exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, stagnation, rejuvenation or decline. At the early exploratory stage of tourism development, tourism stakeholders including tourism operators, hoteliers, conservation officials and others could have minimal interactions, and the level of perceived mutual threat and mutual interdependence are likely to be low. At this stage tourism externalities are relatively small; the development of government regulation also is minimal. However, when the number of tourist arrivals begin to grow and reach a certain level of carrying capacity,
there are ecological and social limits that become challenged, at which point conflict grows among stakeholders, and there is a critical need for collaboration at this stage (Butler, 1980; Choi, 2005). When a destination reaches a point of rejuvenation or decline, there is also need for promoting both tourism and conservation. This is the symbiosis stage, since tourism could generate additional profits which may be utilized for conservation purposes. At this stage a tourist destination could jump to a new era of rejuvenation or face decline which depends on finding the appropriate goal and form of collaboration among stakeholders.

Another incentive for stakeholders’ participation in collaboration processes is to reduce imbalance in power, because, as I have argued previously, power plays an important role in shaping the collaborative processes. Power could be raised as an issue in collaborative relationships among stakeholders that often result in one powerful partner taking control of the process without consultation with his or her partners. Moreover, powerful stakeholders could have more chance to control and exploit resources in destinations. Thus, collaborators from different levels of community provide an opportunity for stakeholders to discuss power arrangements. In addition, the collaboration could help to deal with power differences and could reduce hostility and mistrust among stakeholders (Vangen & Huxham, 2003). Therefore, a wider collaboration of stakeholders in destination management could help to reduce unbalance political power.

Collaboration between stakeholders toward sustainable tourism has become more widespread in both developed and developing countries. For tourism development to be implemented smoothly and effectively, there is a need of cooperation between related organizations and individuals. Moreover, Goodwin (2000) also emphasized the advantages of partnership for sustainable tourism development by realizing equitable distribution of benefits and ensuring conservation of natural and cultural heritages. He argued that the cooperation between the private sector, conservation agencies and local communities is essential to achieve balanced, diversified and sustainable development, and the benefits of conservation come to local people. In Sapa, tourism activities and economic development are mainly managed and controlled by powerful Kinh dominant, while ethnic minorities have little input in tourism planning and decision-making (Truong, 2014). Collaboration among stakeholders could help to redistribute power from Sapa authorities to communities and redress the imbalance by involving more stakeholders in the process that meets their needs. Furthermore, collaboration could also bring more equitable distribution of economic benefits from tourism development to ethnic minority stakeholders in Sapa.
2.13.2. Classification of collaboration

Collaboration can be categorized in many ways and depends upon the level of organization, function, participants and processes at work within partnerships. Gray (1989) classified collaboration based on functions and outcomes that depend on the context in which they arise; where collaborations have the capacity to produce different outcomes. Therefore, actors or stakeholders should consider the context in which the collaborations arise and outcomes of any such collaboration.

Some stakeholders possess more resources such as economic wealth, specialist knowledge or powerful government official positions and are able to exert more power over resource management than others. Thus, this could lead to the ambivalence or conflicts in relationships and in building common goals. In the tourism context, to respond to issues of tourism development, there is a need for collaboration and co-operation among stakeholders; however, some powerful stakeholders might be not be willing to collaborate with others since this could reduce their power. In the Sapa context, it could be anticipated that Kinh stakeholders might not collaborate with Ethnic minorities, since such collaboration could reduce the power of Kinh people.

The different types of collaboration and their outcomes are shown in figure 2.4 below. The exploratory forms of collaboration are considered by informality and loosely linked relationships between stakeholders or participants. However, contractual collaboration presented the most formalized type, and the stakeholders in this collaboration process are interrelated more tightly than in other types of collaboration.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Functions and Outcomes</th>
<th>Formality</th>
<th>Linkage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Exploratory forms of collaboration | • Emphasizes the stakeholders’ awareness of their interdependence  
• Establishing trust  
• Clarification of parameters of the problem domains | LOW       | LOOSE   |
| Advisory forms of collaboration  | • Examining options for dealing with problems and reaching agreement on them  
• A draft of policy recommendations is obtained |           |         |
| Confederative collaboration     | • Cooperative exchanges of resources, normative rules or ideas to coordinate behavior among the stakeholders  
• Operational agreements, resource exchanges and self-regulation are outcomes |           |         |
| Contractual collaboration       | • The most institutionalized form of collaboration  
• Establishing contractual agreements enforceable by law or other authority | HIGH      | TIGHT   |

Figure 2.4. Classification of Collaboration Types, Functions and Outcomes
Source: Adapted from Gray (1989) and Choi (2005).

2.13.3. Collaboration among stakeholders in tourism planning

Tourism planning is a process that involves selecting a desirable future out of a range of plausible alternatives and, thereafter implementing strategies and actions that will achieve the desired outcomes (Eagles et al., 2002, p. 13). At whichever level of the planning process it is implemented, planning for tourism reflects the economic, environmental and social aims of government (Hall, Jenkins, & Kearsely, 1997). Thus, tourism planning could affect to many stakeholders who might require some personal benefits to develop collaboration among them.

Many personal benefits stem from collaboration in tourism planning. For instance, it is better able to serve the multiple needs of many stakeholders affected by diverse development issues; it can contribute to efficient use of resources, since there may be a pooling of stakeholder resources; there is greater consideration of the diverse economic, social, environmental problems that affect the sustainable development of resources. These benefits could be derived from the collaboration among stakeholders in tourism planning process (Bramwell & Lane, 2000).
Many local residents who are affected by decisions to develop a tourism destination frequently find themselves excluded from tourism policy-making and planning which in turn reduces the legitimacy of decisions and diminishes the chances of successful implementation (Healy, Rau, & McDonagh, 2012). Therefore, governments should provide opportunities for local stakeholders to be involved in both decision-making processes (Inskeep, 1988; Keogh, 1990; Simmons, 1994) and economic activities (Timothy, 1999). Ladkin and Bertamini (2002) argued that previous scholars had presented the case for collaboration in tourism development and shared information and decision-making with the involvement of all stakeholders in order to help minimize negative impacts of tourism. However, a collaboration of stakeholders should not be regarded as a panacea for all tourism development issues. Where substantial differences exist amongst stakeholders, even a comprehensive consultation process may not ensure desired outcomes (Buultjens, White, & Neale, 2012). Therefore, there is a need for capacity building for local residents through education to effectively participate in the consultation and collaboration process.

### 2.13.4. Benefits and constraints of collaborative planning

**Benefits**

Collaborative planning (CP) approaches are a subset of participatory planning types and are distinguished by their delegation of some or all planning responsibilities to stakeholders (Davis, 2008). CP aims to ensure meaningful public engagement, greater transparency, and power-sharing in destination management. The main benefit of collaborative planning is that it could resolve conflicts among stakeholders (Jamal & Stronza, 2009; Timothy, 1998). Furthermore, collaborative planning is typically established as a collective process in order to resolve conflicts and share visions involving diverse stakeholders (Gray, 1989; Hall, 2008). Collaborative planning emerged as a way to respond to traditional planning approaches which were deficient and to harmonise inter-stakeholders’ conflicts. Such conflicts lead to growing protests from stakeholders about formulating plans and dealing with degradation in the natural and social resources of an area. Moreover, collaboration in tourism planning is a cost-effective solution that encourages the pooling resources and avoiding the costs of potential stakeholder conflicts (Bramwell & Lane, 2000; Bramwell & Sharman, 1999; Jamal & Getz, 1995). In terms of politics, the collaboration process is more likely to be legitimate and equitable than conventional top-down approaches to planning because it provides the institutional space to promote sharing and participation where the opinions and recommendations of non-industry stakeholders are just as legitimate as those of experts (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999; Hall, 2008). To achieve such benefits of
the collaborative planning approach might require the highest typology of participation such as spontaneous (as discussed in section 2.9), however, in practice this approach could be difficult to achieve.

Collaboration is a formal institutionalized relationship among existing networks of institutions, interests or individuals (Ladkin & Bertramini, 2002). In tourism, collaboration is often regarded in the context of community-based tourism and community integration and participation (Mitchell & Reid, 2001; Murphy, 1988; Simmons, 1994; Tosun, 2000). CP approaches are able to recognize mutual interdependence of stakeholders’ interest; thus, all stakeholders could work together to make, implement and share decisions to solve the problems that brought them together (Medeiros de Araujo, 2000). Potential outcomes of CP include developing mutual and establishing personal and professional relationships between stakeholders (Connick & Innes, 2003). In tourism planning processes without a comprehensive consultation with stakeholders, there is likelihood of reduced effectiveness of these processes.

**Constraints**

Collaborative planning has been the subject of some criticism because it is directly affected by rules, practices and systems that differ between nations, regions and local areas. It is evident that some barriers to collaborative planning are a lack of expertise and training for tourism planning; a lack of funding; limited time frames, a political system that favors centralization of authority. Furthermore, in order to successfully implement this process, building trust between actors requires recognition that there is a shared problem (Bramwell and Sharman, 1999).

There are also many barriers to achieving collaborative planning processes which may relate to the values, political-institutional context, cultural context, power, time, interdependence, organisational processes, trust, leadership of those involved (Almeida, Costa, & Nunes da Silva, 2018). Gray (1989) found that different perceptions and ideological barriers hinder the development of the collaborative process. Differences of interest and experience among stakeholders may also cause difficulty to achieve collaborative planning (Fainstein, 2000). Almeida, Costa, and Nunes da Silva (2017) indicated that among five reasons leading to conflict, differing values and differences in ethical, moral concepts and ideologies lead to conflict between stakeholders during the tourism planning process. Therefore, it is crucial to understand stakeholders’ perceptions and interests in tourism development when implementing a collaborative planning approach. This study examines the stakeholders’ perceptions of tourism impacts and a collaborative planning approach in the Sapa context.
2.13.5. Conditions facilitating tourism planning collaboration at the community level

The success of a collaborative tourism planning process in tourism depends on many factors. These include not only formal structures in destinations in which they are established, but also stakeholder motivations, personalities and their roles in tourism development (Waayers et al., 2012). Hence, to make successful tourism planning, managers should understand the motivations, personalities and roles of stakeholders.

There are some conditions that should assist in the development of collaborative planning processes. First, building trust between stakeholders and recognition of shared problems are important challenges (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999; Jamal & Getz, 1995). Second, positive benefits derive from collaboration which facilitates the interaction of stakeholders. Third, the aims and objectives of the tourism development plan must be jointly formulated at the beginning of the process. Last, the willingness of stakeholders in a destination to strive for a “common good” is an essential precondition to develop a collaborative approach.

In tourism destinations, the success of collaboration among stakeholders at the community level depends on many aspects. As suggested by Jamal and Getz (1995), six propositions could be utilized to facilitate tourism planning collaboration. First, stakeholders should be aware of a high degree of interdependence in planning and managing destinations, because amenities and resources are limited, and they need to be shared among stakeholders. One of the main issues in the tourism industry is that it is fragmented, and no single component would normally have enough capacity to operate a tourism destination. Therefore, the recognition of the interdependence among stakeholders is a prerequisite for tourism planning collaboration. Second, collaboration in tourism planning at community level requires the recognition of individual mutual benefits derived from the process. The mutual benefits from collaboration processes for sustainable development should be economic, social and environmental. Third, community-based tourism collaboration needs an independent convener who has legitimate status and, expertise in tourism destination planning. The role of the convener is to identify and bring all legitimate stakeholders to the table. A local authority or NGO facilitator could be able to perform the role of convener, particularly if assisted and agreed among local residents or there is a mandate of residents in communities. Fourth, an effective community collaboration process for strategic tourism planning for the destination requires: formulation of a vision statement on the acceptability (or not) of tourism development, its orientation and the desired level of growth: joint
formulation of tourism goals and objectives: self-regulation of the planning and development domain.

2.14. Sources of Conflict in Tourism Planning

Conflict is an intrinsic and inevitable part of human existence and it “cannot be excluded from social life” as it a “general feature of human activity” (Nicholson & Michael, 1992, p. 11). Tourism is defined as a fragmented industry which involves many parties, particularly during the development process. Conflict may occur between stakeholder groups when they have differences in perceptions of tourism impacts (Byrd et al., 2009). This conflict is normally associated with different interests and opinions regarding costs and benefits from tourism development in destinations, but also between layers of government and sectors of the bureaucracy. Therefore, understanding the perceptions of each stakeholder group can help to minimize conflict. Sautter and Leisen (1999) noted that there is more likely to be collaboration between stakeholders where the perceptions of the impacts of tourism are similar between stakeholder groups. A shared vision among tourism stakeholders could provide a chance for participation, communication, interaction and collaboration in the formulation of tourism plans (Kuvan & Akan, 2012).

Open stakeholder discussion about issues of tourism development could help to reduce the conflict among tourism stakeholders. However, one of the reasons that open of discussion on issues of tourism development in a destination is not likely, is because some of people may get personal benefits from concealed information. In addition, in some cases politicians or bureaucrats who permit or facilitate tourism development since they could get some illegal economic benefits or corrupt opportunities. This issue could be illustrated in the Tanzania tourism context, the use of wildlife and the facilitation of land allocation to build lodges and other tourism development in national parks or game reserves are considered as lucrative income for those who are in power (Nelson, 2012). Tourism development provides critical opportunities for capturing rents and distributing patronage which motivates a range of political interests with stakes in controlling the sector’s development, a leading cause of centralization to facilitate expropriation of local resources. Thus, tourism could be seen as a paradox which may potentially be a means of rural poverty reduction, or a way to provide local incentives for environmental conservation, but it could also be an opportunity for corrupting development programs. Therefore, it could be argued that successful implementation of sustainable tourism depends on the character of political structures, socio-cultural environments and a range of external forces which may include regional security, ideological conflict struggles, territorial disputes, and the protection of economic benefits.
One prominent example of this is the decline of the ecotourism industry in Kenya which has been threatened by environmental destruction due to excessive deforestation, trail degradation, and trash dumping at sea and on mountain trails. The capacity of the Kenyan government to deal with the environmental issues was poor, and they failed to cooperate with key stakeholders such as NGOs and local communities to resolve these problems (Saha & Yap, 2015).

Many sources of conflict have been highlighted in the tourism literature. In this research, the sources of conflicts which impact on tourism planning have been adapted within the framework developed by Moore (2014) and Almeida et al. (2017) which illustrated in the table below;

*Table 2.6. Sources of Conflict in Tourism Planning*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of conflicts</th>
<th>Issues</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Values** | Different ideologies  
Different objectives and expectations that reflect different personal experiences.  
Differences in ethical and moral concepts between parties (what is right or wrong, good or bad, fair or unfair).  |
| **Relationship** | Lack or poor communication  
Different personalities, misunderstandings, lack of trust, discrimination, prejudice.  
History of conflict or antagonistic /distrustful atmosphere between the parts.  
Incompatible behaviors, different expectations, attitudes and approaches to problem solving.  
History of conflict or heavy atmosphere between the parts.  |
| **Information** | Lack of information transparency (access, share)  
Arguments based on information gaps (access to different data, unshared information)  
Lack of awareness regarding some topics  
Different ways of assessing or interpreting the information  
Disagreement regarding the reliability of the information; method used, sources  
Lack of uniformity of concepts |
| **Structural matters** | Factors that hinder cooperation such as hierarchical structural relations and the responsibility in decision making, time constraints, geographical location.  
Structural problems that are external to the parties involved; power issues, control, structures, resources, policies, procedures, registration, and regulation that condition the access to resources or to its distribution. |
| **Interests** | Different needs and aspirations  
Competing interests  
Lack of shared interests  
Types of interests:  
+ Material – money, property, infrastructures, resources  
+ Procedural – how the process works; fairness, openness, transparency and equity.  
+ Psychological – how a person feels about the situation – respect, recognition, credibility. |
First, values should be considered as one type of conflict in tourism. Because different stakeholders in destinations may have varied ideologies, objectives and personal experiences. These differences play an important role in the emergence of conflicting values. For instance, environmental advocates and tourism industry employees do not always share common perceptions on many aspects of tourism development, therefore, the emergence of conflicts is more frequent and more difficult to settle (Lovelock, 2002). Some solutions could reduce the conflict such as identifying values of stakeholders, promoting mutual understanding, acceptance and respect for the different values of stakeholders (Moore, 2014).

Second, conflicts emerge when there are poor relationships, weak communication, lack of trust and discrimination among stakeholders. For these reasons, it is important to maintain the relationships among stakeholders in tourism destinations; a good relationship between tourism proponents and environmental activists works to ensure that the necessary negotiations occur between them to avoid long and costly disputes (Lovelock, 2002). Moreover, regular communication among stakeholders could increase the level of agreement in tourism development.

Third, conflict is related to lack of information, knowledge and transparency which are extensively mentioned in literature reviews. In developing countries, since lack of knowledge and information could result in conflict between authorities and local residents, because citizens are not informed about what happens in their community. For example, in Vietnam, many ethnic residents live in remote areas with limited education which could constrain them from accessing information. Moreover, where centralized administrative systems and one-party state management resist widespread dissemination of information and transparency the potential to redress these asymmetries is limited.

Fourth, structural matters refer to the social and political system, nationally as well as internationally within which the tourism is occurring. The issues of bureaucracy, command and control structures, lack of participation, works against inter-agency coordination, transparency and accountability (Dredge & Jenkins, 2006; Timothy & Tosun, 2003). Almeida et al. (2017) suggest that an exclusion of important stakeholders and prevalence of non-transparent decision-making processes are the main issues in this approach. Another issue that could lead to conflict among stakeholders is the power imbalance in communities and in global circuits of tourism marketing and investment - involving tastes, images as well as financial resources - which intersect with these. Dredge
highlighted that there is a prevalence of “decisions based on the preferences of the governing elite which are often powerful developer groups”. The decisions for tourism development in developing countries may prioritize the preferences of government officials or powerful entrepreneurs. This problem happens in Sapa, since tourism planning and development are normally in hands of Kinh leaders and big corporations as discussed earlier.

Last, conflict in a destination often occurs because of different interests or lack of shared interests among stakeholders. Interests are sorted as material, procedural and psychological. Material interest refers to money, resources, infrastructures, and property. Procedural interest includes fairness, openness, equity and transparency in society. Identifying the exclusion of important stakeholders (tourist developers, local stakeholders, and NGOs) is the main source of conflict in terms of procedural interests (Caffyn & Jobbins, 2003). Psychological interest focuses on the recognition and respect of stakeholders.

**2.15. Theoretical Framework for the Study**

First, the study employs social exchange theory (SET) to explain the perspectives of both Kinh and Ethnic minority tourism stakeholders about the impacts of tourism development. This study incorporates cultural and personal responses to SET to understand more about the perceptions of stakeholder’s groups regarding tourism impacts in the Sapa context (Research questions 1). Second, stakeholder theory utilizes throughout this thesis to consider stakeholder legitimacy and to understand stakeholders’ perceptions of tourism impacts, participations and motivations participating in tourism planning (Research questions 1, 2, 3 and 4). Last, collaboration theory explains the current stakeholder collaboration in tourism planning and development (Research question 3), as well as the conditions necessary to enable collaboration among stakeholders.
At the beginning of this chapter discussed the economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts of tourism as the general issues for any tourist destination need to deal with. SET was employed to explain the stakeholder perceptions of tourism impacts. Stakeholder theory utilised in this chapter to indicate the multiple stakeholder’s perceptions of tourism impacts, and how stakeholder theory applied in the tourism planning. The forms of participation and types of tourism planning approach also covered in this chapter. The form of stakeholder’s participation is important input to implement collaborative planning approach. In the context of this study, collaboration is to involve a wide range of stakeholders and to work together on tourism plans; builds the network between public and private sectors; and rebalances the inequality of power among stakeholders in tourism planning. To achieve participatory in tourism planning including collaborative approach, stakeholders might need spontaneously to participate in tourism planning and development as the highest level of participation. The citizen participation in the Vietnamese context and theoretical framework for this study also provided at the end of this chapter.
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter covers the methods and research design required to achieve the objectives of the research that have been outlined in Chapter 1. In particular, the first section presents the theoretical paradigms on which the research is based. The second section describes the research design. The third section discusses the two-stages of data collection which use qualitative and quantitative approaches, respectively. The final section details the ethical considerations that help to ensure the quality and integrity of this research, followed by a statement of the researcher’s position in the research process. Following this chapter, a site description is presented in Chapter 4, interview results are reported in Chapter 5 and survey results are presented in Chapter 6.

3.2. Theoretical Paradigm

In any social science research, the philosophical foundation is very important for researchers in formulating the research questions and carrying out the research process, because philosophical assumptions shape the processes of research and the conduct of inquiry. Theoretical assumptions reflect “worldviews” and frame/construct “paradigms”. A paradigm is a more or less systematized bundle of assumptions about the nature of reality, the status of human knowledge, and the kinds of methods that can be used to answer research questions. Furthermore, a paradigm is a set of generalizations, beliefs, and values of a community of specialists (Kuhn, 1970). In this section, relevant research paradigms are discussed and selected as suitable approaches for this study.
Table 3.1. Basic Paradigms in Social Science Research

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Philosophical questions</th>
<th>Positivism</th>
<th>Post-positivism</th>
<th>Constructivism /interpretivism</th>
<th>Transformative</th>
<th>Pragmatism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ontology (What is the nature of reality)</td>
<td>Naïve realism – real “reality” but apprehend able</td>
<td>Singular reality (researchers reject or fail to reject hypotheses)</td>
<td>Multiple realities (researchers provide quotes to illustrate different perspectives)</td>
<td>Multifaceted and based on different social and cultural positions (researchers recognised different power positionalities in society)</td>
<td>Singular and multiple realities (researchers test hypotheses and provide multiple perspectives)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemology (What is the relationship between the researcher and that being researched)</td>
<td>Dualist/ objectivist; findings ‘true’</td>
<td>Distance and impartiality (researchers objectively collect data on instruments)</td>
<td>Closeness and subjectivity (researchers visit with participants at their sites to collect data)</td>
<td>Collaboration (researcher actively involves participants as collaborators, build trust, and honor participant standpoints)</td>
<td>Practicality (researchers collect data by “what works” to address research question)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methodology (What is the process of research)</td>
<td>Empirical Experimental/ manipulative; verification of hypotheses; chiefly quantitative methods</td>
<td>Deductive (researchers test a prior theory)</td>
<td>Inductive/ Ethnographic (researchers start with participants views and build up to patterns, theories, and interpretations)</td>
<td>Participatory/Action research (researchers involve participants in all stages of the research and engage in cyclical reviews of results)</td>
<td>Combining (researchers collect both quantitative and qualitative data and mix them)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Creswell and Clark (2018, p. 38)

3.2.1. Positivism - Postpositivism

Positivism is often applied in scientific approaches. However, with the development and use of statistical methods, it is applied to social sciences research. This paradigm is aimed at generalization and prediction based on discovering and confirming universal laws, that is, causal laws of human behavior involving basic assumptions about rational human beings having free will.

Positivist argument aims to eliminate logical contradictions and to achieve consistency and replicability of facts (Neuman, 2011). However, the weakness of this approach is that the idea of free will does not fully reflect the nature of human experience and relationship. In fact, it inadequately deals with human beings who can imagine, feel and learn, have a past, a present and a future, and have multiple motives and reasons (Neuman, 2011).

Post-positivism improved on the limits of the positivist approach by allowing that researchers are value-laden and realities are probabilistic (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). Post-positivism tried to reduce research questions to a small, separate set of ideas to test, for instance, the variables that contain hypotheses and research questions with key assumptions
about conjectural and antifoundational knowledge (since absolute truth can never be found). However, the arising problem could be claims to objectivity.

The postpositivist paradigm is normally associated with quantitative approaches (Creswell & Clark, 2018, p. 36). Researchers make claims for knowledge based on 1) determinism or cause and effect thinking, 2) reductionism, by narrowing and focusing on select variables to interrelate, 3) detailed observations and measures of variables and 4) testing of theories that are continually refined.

3.2.2. Constructivism – Interpretive Social Science

This paradigm is typically related to qualitative approaches with a different set of assumptions. Realities of the world are discovered by constructivism through participant-observations, field research and by examining texts (conversations, written words, pictures) (Neuman, 2000). The assumption of this approach is that people do not have entirely free will, because their reasons and motives are driven by culturally molded internal feelings and socially structured norms, rules and institutions (Neuman, 2000). All people have their own positioned reasons for their views of the world through their historically and socially framed perspectives. Therefore, their interpretations are shaped by their own experiences and backgrounds (Creswell & Clark, 2018). Although, this approach makes a strong contribution to understanding reality based on what subjects perceive, it is not fixed and has a limitation in its capacity for generalization. Hence, we turn to pragmatism, which helps to address the issues raised by both post-positivism and constructivism.

3.2.3. Pragmatism and Research Paradigm

Pragmatism as a worldview arises out of actions, situations and consequences rather than antecedent conditions (as in post-positivism). Researchers focus on the research problem and use all approaches available to understand the problem. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2010) indicate that pragmatism focuses on the research problem in social science research and then uses many approaches to explore the problem. Morgan (2007) indicates that pragmatism provides a philosophical basis for research as follows;

- Pragmatism is not committed to any one system of philosophy and reality. This enables mixed methods research in that inquirers draw liberally from both quantitative and qualitative assumptions when they engage in their research.
- Individual researchers have freedom of choice. In this way, researchers are free to choose the methods, techniques, and procedures of research that best meet their needs and purposes.
Pragmatists do not see the world as an absolute unity. In a similar way, mixed methods researchers look to many approaches for collecting and analyzing data rather than subscribing to only one approach (e.g., quantitative or qualitative).

Truth is what works at the time and achieves provisional validation through triangulation of methods. It is not based on a duality between reality independent of the mind or within the mind. Thus, in mixed methods research, investigators use both quantitative and qualitative data because they work to provide the best understanding of a research problem (Creswell, 2014, p. 11).

Thus, for the mixed methods researcher, pragmatism opens the door to multiple methods, different worldviews, and different assumptions, as well as different forms of data collection and analysis.

This research utilizes pragmatism as the paradigm most appropriate for this research. First, it opens a range of methodological choices for a researcher in which the mixed research approach becomes a practical way of approaching the complex issues involved in the Sapa case study (Maarouf, 2019). A pragmatic researcher could choose to conduct quantitative, qualitative or mixed research approach based on what serves their research purposes (Biddle & Schafft, 2015). This point is also supported by Creswell (2014) which indicates that pragmatic research should be designed and conducted in the most appropriate way to answer research questions regardless of its underlying philosophy.

Second, pragmatism not only replaces arguments about the nature of reality as the essential criterion for differentiating approaches to research, it also recognizes the value of those different approaches as research communities that guide choices about how to conduct inquiry. Last, pragmatism acts as a new paradigm to replace an older way of thinking about the differences between approaches to research by treating those differences as social contexts for inquiry and as forms of social action, rather than as abstract philosophical systems.
3.3. Rationale for Mixed Methods

Strategies of inquiry are types of qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods designs or models that provide specific direction for procedures in a research design (Creswell, 2009). The mixed method can be defined by Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, and Turner (2007, p. 123) as “the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combine elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration”. The main assumption of the mixed method approach is that mixing quantitative and qualitative methods to provide a multiple perspective understanding of the research problem(s) has advantages over using only one type of method (Creswell, 2014). Ideally, in mixed-method research, a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches is used by researchers in one study or a set of related studies. This could be done concurrently when conducting both parts at the same time or sequentially when conducting one part first and the other subsequently (Molina-Azorin, 2016). However, there are some advantages and disadvantages of mixed methods research that warrant consideration.
### Table 3.2. The Advantages and Disadvantages of Mixed Methodology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Disadvantages</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• A mixed-approach design uses the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative methodologies to provide a broader perspective on the overall issue (Johnson &amp; Onwuegbuzie, 2004).</td>
<td>• It is time consuming and costly for a researcher to conduct both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Mixed-method design expands the research in a way that a single approach cannot. The process of offering a statistical analysis, along with observation, makes the research more comprehensive.</td>
<td>• Researchers must know how to mix qualitative and quantitative properly, and this requires training in both methods.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Most mixed-methodology research begins with a qualitative observation of an event or phenomenon. Qualitative study offers the opportunity to provide subtle details that outline a problem. The research then uses a quantitative tool, like a survey, to validate or invalidate observations made during the qualitative phase.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004); Creswell (2009)

The study by Molina-Azorin (2016) analyzed the use of mixed methods in papers over 10 years (2005-2014) published in the *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*. The research indicated that mixed methods provide researchers with more opportunities for pragmatic transformative research for social change, and stakeholder comparisons. The study also noted the particular value of mixed methods in sustainable tourism research, because as the ethos of sustainability is engagement with diverse stakeholders to response to different types of enquiry, and mixed method were good for sustainability studies by encouraging teamwork, ideas from many disciplines which help to facilitate reflection and advancement of ideas.

Mitchell (2018) employed mixed research methods to explain two case studies and found that applying the approach has provided both quantitative and qualitative reasoning that lead to the best data for understanding empirical phenomenon. Yodsuwan (2009) used mixed methods in research on tourism stakeholder collaboration in Thailand. A qualitative method used in the first phase of study helped to collect rich information about a range of research issues and assisted in identification of the salient preconditions of tourism stakeholder collaboration in a sustainable tourism destination management. The quantitative study applied in the second phase helped to test the conceptual model developed in the first phase. Thus, the mixed methods research helped to enrich information about research issues and validate the outcome of research through triangulation. This research project utilizes a
similar sequential mixed method approach which includes both qualitative and quantitative methods to investigate the research problem.

3.3.1. Exploratory Sequential Design

For this study, an exploratory sequential design is chosen from the three different mixed method designs which are a convergent, an explanatory sequential and an exploratory sequential because it is the best fit in answering the given research questions. The exploratory sequential design begins with a qualitative data collection and analysis to explore and study the given issues. Based on the results of qualitative research, the second phase develops new instruments or interventions for empirical validation. Then, in the third phase, the measures or new constructs are applied and tested to see whether the qualitative findings generalize to a specified population.

3.3.2. Rationale for Exploratory Sequential Design

This study compares perceptions of Kinh and Ethnic minority groups about the impacts of tourism, their participation and collaboration in tourism planning, factors motivating and hindering participation in tourism planning. Phase 1 includes the interviews with key tourism stakeholders to gain inside understanding about current tourism development in Sapa. Based on the results of qualitative data collection, variables on the questionnaire were developed for Phase 2. Phase 2 comprises the questionnaire survey to obtain broad perceptions from Sapa stakeholders and helps to generalize the findings from Phase 1. Therefore, the exploratory sequential design was chosen to gain better understanding about the perceptions and level of participation of Kinh and Ethnic minority tourism stakeholders.
### Figure 3.1: Basic Procedures in Implementing an Exploratory Sequential Mixed Method Design

**Source:** Adapted from Creswell and Clark (2018)

#### 3.4. The Role of Researcher

In academic research, researchers are required to conduct their research with quality and integrity. During the research process, the researcher considered himself as a critical advocate of tourism as a tool of economic growth and benefits to local residents. It is important to explain that the researcher has positioned himself as an advocate of tourism by virtue of his role as a tourism lecturer who has worked in university for more than 10 years. The researcher tends to support tourism in ethnic area since he understands that tourism may help local ethnic people to increase their income and improve their livelihood conditions. However, the researcher tried to maintain a “neutral” perspective, looking at the well-documented negative sides of tourism development which could affect host communities, hence there is need to avoid biased conclusions. Moreover, the research process required the researcher to maintain interactions with local people, engaging in ethnographic participant-observation. Thus, at some stage, the researcher could be regarded as an “insider”
a “local” who sympathised with the living conditions of the local ethnic minority people. During the time interviewing local people, and conducting face-to-face questionnaires with many ethnic residents, staying in homestays of local people, observing local lifestyle activities, these experiences of deep hanging out helped the researcher immerse himself in the lives of the locals (Truong, 2014). Therefore, the researcher was able to listen and understand thoughts and feelings of local people in Sapa more deeply. To some extent, having divided experiences as a member of the majority Kinh, but locating myself with non-Kinh during the fieldwork component of the study had a balancing effect on perspectives engaged. Research assistants from Ethnic minority backgrounds also helped counter unintended bias that may have arisen during the survey process.

The researcher of this thesis has not been involved in tourism or NGO projects in Sapa (see Chapter 2 and 4) and I have my own views about tourism development in Sapa. I visited Sapa as a tourist for the first time in 2014 and observed the way of life of ethnic minorities, talked with some street vendors and realized that they were struggling for their livelihood. Since that visit, I have wanted to do something for them, and this has been my motivation for a study based in Sapa. I believe that participation in decision-making for economic development through tourism could improve their livelihood. I felt that, in comparison with the dominant Kinh group of Vietnam, the ethnic minorities held a low position in terms of decision making. This study compares perceptions of Kinh and ethnic minorities about tourism development in Sapa. The study is undertaken through the specialism of tourism and its associated theoretical perspectives thus tourism literature and theories will be employed to interpret the Kinh and Ethnic minorities’ perspectives of tourism development. The aim is to obtain clear, independent and verifiable, uncensored perspectives.

3.5. Research Design

In this section, the researcher develops the research design for the study. First, after identifying knowledge gaps in the literature review related to the Vietnamese context, the researcher formed the research questions and objectives for the study. Second, to explore the core issues and the nature of data required for study, the researcher used semi-structured interviews with key tourism stakeholders in Sapa, and the survey for broader involvement of tourism stakeholders such as government officials, academics, tourism businesses, and local residents in Sapa. Third, after data was collected, an analysis of qualitative and quantitative data was conducted through qualitative content analysis, descriptive statistics, frequency, and inferential statistical tests.
3.5.1. Qualitative data collection technique

This section provides some reasons for the data collection techniques chosen for this study. There are many ways to obtain the qualitative data such as focus group, action research, observation and interview. First of all, the use of focus groups is a means of interviewing a small group of people, normally between 6 and 10 people together in a common place. One of the advantages of focus group discussions is to allow the researcher to examine complex issues to engage in open-ended discussion that triggers unexpected responses or ideas. At the same time, the focus group may be dominated by strong personalities and some people may be reluctant to voice their opinions in front of their peers or supervisors (Bhattacherjee, 2012).

Action research is a second qualitative approach which involves active participation of the researcher within a group of people or an organization to improve some aspects of operation or bring about changes through active involvement in planning, implementing and monitoring over time (Jennings, 2001). However, this method would have been too time-consuming, since the researcher must take part in all meetings of stakeholders and proved unrealistic to apply since the researcher was based in Australia with limited time and resources for field work. Participant-observation is another way to obtain qualitative data for
research; observation aims to examine the respondents’ activities in a systematic way in a real situation. This method is also time-consuming and focuses only on the current situation; it is not the most systematic way to obtain opinions or attitudes from a broad range of stakeholders (Jennings, 2001). Nonetheless, as indicated, participant observation provided useful background to the lives of ethnic minorities in Sapa. The most common and efficient method to get qualitative data is through interviews, especially face-to-face interviews where the interviewer works directly with the respondents to elicit information most relevant to the research (Bhattacherjee, 2012). There are 3 types of interview: structured interview, unstructured interview, and semi-structured interview. The structured interview uses a prepared or standardized set of questions. But the unstructured interview is more open ended with greater opportunity for wide-ranging free responses. In this research, a semi-structured interview method was applied because these enabled both comparability of topics discussed, but also the opportunity to explore beyond set questions. Moreover, face-to-face interviews help researchers to gain deep understanding of the attitudes and perceptions of stakeholders in Sapa, Vietnam.

3.5.2. Quantitative data collection technique

This section provides information on how the data collection for quantitative analysis was carried out. Administered questionnaires used as the data collection instrument and can be administered by interviewers. The advantages of using administered questionnaires are that the respondent literacy is not necessary; questions and responses can be clarified; complex and open-ended questions are possible; having fewer “blanks”; participation potentially increase by personal contact (Bachman & Schutt, 2014). There are several ways to deliver questionnaires, such as by email, online, mail and onsite survey. In this study, an onsite questionnaire survey was applied, because it is most likely to have a high response rate and has greater flexibility.

3.6. Qualitative Data Collection

3.6.1. Research instrument and pre-test

Based on research questions and issues highlighted from the literature review, the interview questions were developed. In this thesis, the researcher also developed an interview guide which helps to direct the interview process. The interview guide includes a list of prepared questions and issues that were used for all interviews and assisted the researcher to maintain focus on the subject of the research. The interview guide was divided into four sections. First, the interview guide included some background questions about roles and connections of tourism stakeholders to the tourism industry in Sapa. The second section
comprised questions which were asked about the perspectives of tourism stakeholders regarding tourism impacts. The participants also were asked about their participation and collaboration in tourism planning. The last part of the interview guide comprised questions asking about factors facilitating or hindering the stakeholder’s participation in tourism planning.

**Pre-test for interview questions:**

The pre-test of interview questions enables improvement of the interview instrument and helps the researcher to practice interviewing skills. Therefore, in this thesis, the researcher consulted two academic lecturers who are knowledgeable about tourism in Vietnam and in Sapa. After consultation and the pre-test interview, some interview questions which were not clear were rephrased and rearranged to make them easier to understand. Before formal interviewing, the interview questions were checked by experienced academics, and interviews were then trialed with local residents. Some interview questions were further edited to facilitate understanding in regard to context and meaning.
INTERVIEW GUIDE

I. Background questions
1. Please tell me a bit about yourself:
   What is your role within the organization?
   What is your connection to the tourism industry?
   In what ways are you involved or interested in tourism development in Sapa, Lao Cai?

II. Impacts of Tourism
2. Do you think tourism is good for Sapa?
   Can you please explain your answer?
   Do you support tourism in your area and why?
3. What impacts of tourism in Sapa are you satisfied with?
   Could you please explain more details about the impacts of tourism in terms of?
   - economic;
   - social-cultural; and
   - environmental effects?
   Who obtain the most benefits from tourism development in Sapa?
4. When talking about sustainable tourism, what is the most important thing for you?
   Do you think tourism in Sapa is currently sustainable?
   From your perspectives, please provide some examples of sustainable development.
   From your perception, please provide some examples of unsustainable development in Sapa?

III. Current participation and collaboration among tourism stakeholders
5. Could you please tell me what forms of participation between tourism stakeholders in tourism development/tourism planning/decision-making you are currently aware of in Sapa?
6. How is collaboration of tourism stakeholders in tourism planning and decision-making currently implemented in Vietnam in general and in Sapa specifically?
   Are you involved in tourism collaboration?
   If yes, can you explain your roles in this collaboration?
7. How does the current collaboration of stakeholders impact on sustainable tourism development in Sapa?
8. How are the existing connections among tourism stakeholders in tourism development/tourism planning and decision making in Sapa?

IV. Factors
9. What factors motivate/facilitate or hinder your participation in tourism development/tourism planning/decision-making in Sapa, Lao Cai?
3.6.2. Research procedure

In this study, the main research questions aim to understand stakeholder perceptions of tourism impacts, participation and collaboration in tourism planning, and sustainable tourism development in Sapa. The research relied on the collection of detailed qualitative and quantitative data. Qualitative methods offer varied empirical procedures designed to describe and interpret the experiences of research participants in a context-specific setting and also allow researchers to become more of an “insider”, with the purpose to interpret the culture and worldviews of social actors (Blaikie, 2009). Qualitative methods also help researchers to gain a deeper understanding of specific issues since they listen and become sensitive to what the study participants reveal to them. This research applies a qualitative approach to reveal the opinions and understanding of tourism stakeholders about tourism impacts in Sapa. Data were collected via semi-structured interviews with academics, local government representatives, local residents, hotel owners, restaurant owners, tour managers, tour guides.

Participant observation also allows the researcher to perceive the reality from the perspective of the “insider” to the case study. It helps to immerse the researcher in the context being studied to generate a comprehensive understanding of the community (Bryman, 2012). According to Berg (2001), participant observation is the most appropriate technique to collect behavioral data in natural settings since it provides knowledge of the context where behaviors happen. Thus, it is particularly important given that this study focused on minority peoples in Sapa. Participant observation was employed in this study to supplement the semi-structured interviews, and survey. During the fieldwork the nearly three months stay in Sapa allowed the researcher to observe local residents and their behaviors which also help the researcher absorb characteristics of the physical settings, social information, feelings, and attitudes through nonverbal communication such as gestures and facial expressions (Neuman, 2006). Nonetheless, even though the researcher made an effort to observe through participant observation, language barriers limited deep understanding of minorities’ daily conversation.

In Sapa, as in wider Vietnam, local government authorities have an integral role in tourism planning and development and were contacted to participate in the study and to assist in establishing a snowball sample of other respondents. This approach was considered the most applicable, since the prime researcher was not well informed about the local formal or informal networks. The snowball method is a useful means of identifying relevant stakeholders based on the views of other stakeholders. This is one of the most useful
techniques of sampling where small groups are the focus. However, one of the limitations of snowball sampling is the tendency to obtain like-minded respondents. Thus, when the interviewee introduces to next informants, the researcher uses the purposive sampling to choose the next informant who are from both Kinh or Ethnic minorities. Therefore, a combination of snowball and purposive sampling employed in this study.

As mentioned previously, it is difficult to obtain permission to interview government officials or enter a research site without a personal relationship with them. I have a personal relationship with an academic lecturer who works at the Thái Nguyên University, Lào Cai Campus. I visited his home in Lào Cai Province and met with him, at which time I presented him with of support from my University. He called the Director of Information and Tourism Promotion Center to introduce me and arrange a meeting. After talking with the Director, he also agreed to introduce me to many other stakeholders in the research area, such as Head of Villages, Hotel owners and Tour Guides.

The process began with a Letter of Introduction (LoI) to the Department of Tourism in Lào Cai Province (DoT) and a request to interview relevant government officials there. The LoI originated from Thai Nguyen University of Economics and Business Administration (TUEBA) where the researcher was a former lecturer. This initial letter resulted in the DoT providing an introduction to the Director of Information and Tourism Promotion Center-Lào Cai Province who then provided additional contacts including stakeholders such as hotel managers, tour managers and village heads. In turn, the heads of villages provided contact with local residents in three communes (Lao Chài, Tả Van and Tả Phìn). These communes were selected as they were places of relatively high-level tourism development in the district, suggesting that their involvement and participation in tourism planning and decision-making is crucial for sustainable tourism development (Le, 2014).

3.6.3. Study population and sampling for qualitative data

Because this study is about stakeholders’ perspectives on the impacts of tourism development and tourism planning, the population for the purposes of this study was intended to include representatives of specific tourism stakeholders. In Sapa there are a number of tourism stakeholders, but for the purposes of this study, the significant stakeholders were restricted to Kinh and Ethnic minority groups (Table 3.3). From the public sector, individuals who were working for government agencies included staff from the Tourism Board in Sapa, Tourism Department in Lào Cai Provinces, Sapa People Committee, and Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism other government organizations and non-
government organizations. Private sector representatives included tour operators, travel agencies, accommodation providers, service businesses and local residents in Sapa.

There are a number of sampling techniques for qualitative data based on the non-probability sampling which include convenience, quota, purposive and snowball (Yodsuwan, 2009). In this study, the researcher applied purposive and snowball sampling techniques because they are most suitable to the research situation. In relation to purposive sampling, the researcher selected respondents purposively that fit with particular criteria such as ethnicity, language ability, tourism knowledge, position in tourism management. And snowball sampling allowed the researcher to have a wider cohort of comparable informants for the research.

The snowball sampling technique was utilized, because it allowed the researcher to identify key persons involved in the tourism industry and because it facilitated the process of approaching/recruiting further informants. If the next informant agreed to take part in an interview, the researcher would quote the name of person who had introduced them (Yodsuwan, 2009). After obtaining data, interview analysis was analyzed in 2-stages; first, the data from interviews was sorted and coded based on relevant topics/themes; the second stage was to display the data as a narrative text, using quotations and matrices of categories (Neuman, 2002). Direct quotes were used in this study because it is better to illustrate important points through the voices of informants themselves. According to Patton (2005), the direct quote provides necessary support to the trustworthiness and soundness of the interpretation findings.

3.6.4. Qualitative data collection

In March and April 2018, semi-structured interviews with tourism stakeholders were undertaken. These interviews aimed to elicit their opinions about tourism impacts and sustainable tourism development in Sapa, as well as the level of participation and collaboration of tourism stakeholders in tourism planning. Interview questions are carried out to get stakeholder opinions in term of economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts of tourism. Tourism stakeholders also were asked about the current status of tourism development in Sapa, and distribution of economic benefits of tourism. Those interviews represented a diversity of tourism stakeholders including: - government officials (06); villager’s head (03) academic lecturers (04); hotel owners (03); restaurant owners (03); a representative of a tourism training NGO (01); tour guides (02); local residents (09); retailers (02). The sample aimed to reflect the concept of Timur et al. (2009) that major tourism stakeholders should at least include tourism businesses, educational institutions, the host
environment of the destination, and local authorities. The face-to-face interview usually took place at the interviewee’s office, a coffee shop or home, took approximately 30-45 minutes of the respondent’s time and was tape-recorded for transcription and record keeping. The interview process resulted in thirty-three in-depth, semi-structured responses (15 Kinh and 18 Ethnic minorities including 07 Hmong, 06 Tay, 03 Dao and 02 Giay which approximately reflect the population structure in Sapa) (see Chapter 4, ethnic minority composition). I feel that I have built a good relationship with them and they provided me with their mobile phone numbers after the interview. Even on my return to my studies in Australia, some have remained my Facebook friends.

All the interviews were conducted and transcribed into Vietnamese and English as required. In further discussion with stakeholders, respondents will be referred to as Academic 1; Local resident 3; Government Official 5; Hotel Owner 2…etc in order to maintain confidentiality of respondents.

Table 3.3. Respondents for Qualitative Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coding</th>
<th>Respondent Identification</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Coding</th>
<th>Respondent Identification</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R1</td>
<td>Academic 1</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Kinh</td>
<td>R17</td>
<td>Hotel Owner 2</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Kinh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
<td>Academic 2</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Tây</td>
<td>R18</td>
<td>Hotel Owner 3</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Kinh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R3</td>
<td>Academic 3</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Kinh</td>
<td>R19</td>
<td>Retailer 1</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Hmong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R4</td>
<td>Academic 4</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Kinh</td>
<td>R20</td>
<td>Retailer 2</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Kinh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R5</td>
<td>Government Official 1</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Kinh</td>
<td>R21</td>
<td>Head of Village 1</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Tây</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R6</td>
<td>Government Official 2</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Kinh</td>
<td>R22</td>
<td>Head of Village 2</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Giày</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R7</td>
<td>Government Official 3</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Kinh</td>
<td>R23</td>
<td>Head of Village 3</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Dao</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R9</td>
<td>Government Official 5</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Tây</td>
<td>R25</td>
<td>Local Resident 1</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Kinh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R10</td>
<td>Tour Operator 1</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Kinh</td>
<td>R26</td>
<td>Local Resident 2</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Tây</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R11</td>
<td>Tour Operator 2</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Kinh</td>
<td>R27</td>
<td>Local Resident 3</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Dao</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R12</td>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Hmong</td>
<td>R28</td>
<td>Local Resident 4</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Giày</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R13</td>
<td>Restaurant Owner 1</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Kinh</td>
<td>R29</td>
<td>Local Resident 5</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Hmong</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.6.5. Qualitative data analysis

The process of qualitative data analysis was carried out through the following steps. First, decontextualization helped the researcher focus and become familiar with core components of the data. The researcher familiarized himself while reading through the transcribed Vietnamese interview texts to obtain the sense of the whole and to learn “what is going on with the data?” When reading the data some questions were continuously raised: For instance; Who is speaking? From what social position? What is happening? Why? The aim of this step was to help the researcher become immersed in the data. Therefore, the transcribed Vietnamese text is read through several times. The next step, the researcher read the research questions again and then re-read the data to gain insight into some smaller meaning units. A meaning unit is the smallest unit that includes some of the insights the researcher needs, and it is the group of sentences or paragraphs containing aspects related to each other which helps to answer the research questions (Graneheim, Lundman, Medicinska, Umeå, & Institutionen för, 2004). Each identified meaning unit was highlighted with different colors which helped to understand its relation to the context. This procedure is recognized as the “open coding process” in the literature (Berg, 2001). During the analyzing process, codes helped to facilitate the identification of concepts around which the data could be assembled into blocks and patterns (Catanzaro, 1988). After this open coding, the list of categories is grouped under higher order headings (Bernard, 2000). In this research, the codes are generated inductively, when formulating categories, the researcher comes to a decision, through interpretation as to which things to group in the same category (Dey, 1993). As Dey (1993) suggested creating categories helps to classify data into particular groups which could then be compared with data that do not belong to the same category. Finally, each category was named using content-characteristic words.

The direct approach of qualitative content analysis was applied for research question 1 because interview respondents were asked to explicate/express their perceptions regarding

---

9 1. What are similarities and differences in the perceptions of Kinh and Ethnic minority tourism stakeholders regarding tourism impacts?
the impacts of tourism (economic, socio-cultural, and environmental), and sustainable tourism development. The direct approach of qualitative content analysis is presented in the following steps. First, as mentioned above, the decontextualization helps the researcher become familiar with the whole data set. Next, the coding process begins with predetermined general codes (economic, environmental, cultural and social impacts). The next step in analysis would be to code all the highlighted text. An independent coder checked the coding to ensure the reliability of the analysis.

In order to fulfil the research questions 2, 3, and 4, the researcher utilized qualitative content analysis which helped to determine the presence of words or concepts within a text or a set of a texts (Kohlbacher, 2006), which are then analyzed to unveil the significance and understanding of the materials in context (Bryman, 2012). This kind of analysis allows for themes to emerge from the materials being analyzed. It also helps to quantify and analyze the meaning and relationships of words and concepts and to make inferences about the messages and information (Kohlbacher, 2006).

3.7. Quantitative Data Collection

3.7.1. Instrument development

Scale development process

This section indicates how the scale or items on the questionnaires were developed. First, many potential items were generated from the literature. Relevant items from previous empirical studies were explored and related statements extracted for consideration. Second, results from qualitative data in this thesis also informed a source of ideas for statement formulation. For instance, in the interview stage a respondent commented “Tourism which helps my son to have a job and increase our income”. Thus, the items on the survey is “Tourism provides more jobs for me and my family members”. Furthermore, respondents indicated that the increased cost of living was a negative impact, commenting for example, “To buy 1 bottle of purified water costs 5000 VND, but if you buy it in Sapa, it costs 10,000 VND”. The statement on the survey was “Tourism increased the cost of living compared to other places in the region”. Last, an expert review was conducted to ensure that all items on

---

10 2. What forms of participation in tourism planning currently exist among tourism stakeholders in Sapa?
11 3. What factors motivate/facilitate or hinder tourism stakeholders’ participation in tourism planning in Sapa?
12 4. What is the current stakeholder collaboration in tourism planning in Sapa?
questionnaires were clear and related to the research questions and objectives. Hence, any ambiguous items could be clarified, modified or removed.

**Measurement scales**

In this thesis, the researcher used a Likert scale for response assessment. The Likert scale is widely used in survey research because of the simplicity of its administration to measure attitude and personality characteristics. The Likert-scale is presented to respondents with statements or questions, each of which they respond to in terms of degrees of agreement or disagreement, like or dislike …etc. There have debated among instrument developers on the issue of whether they should present an even or odd number of points in the Likert scale. For instance, the even includes 4 or 6-point (forced choice) and the odd comprises 5 or 7-point Likert scale (with a ‘neutral’ middle point). Some researchers argued that including a middle point allows respondents to indicate a neutral response and be more discriminating in their response, these make the scale more reliable and that scale is preferred by subjects (Cronbach, 1950; Ory & Wise, 1981). Others expressed their concerns that with a middle point, respondents will be less discriminating and declare themselves neutral more often, without neutral point forcing respondents to be more thoughtful, resulting in more precise ratings (Adelson & McCoach, 2010). However, Zikmund (2013) argued that the middle point in the survey enables respondents to have their right to express accurate feelings and avoids limiting them to only positive and negative answers.

Baka, Figgou, and Triga (2012) indicated some justifications for using the midpoint when participants lack knowledge on the research issue and were disputing aspects of the questions, participants do not have information on the issue, or participants felt ambivalent. Therefore, the 5-point Likert scale used in this study, because it allows for respondents to indicate their neutral response, Since in Sapa many ethnic minorities lack tourism knowledge and were not well-educated, this potentially leads some respondents to have uncertain opinions about the impacts of tourism on communities. If this study had used the even point Likert scale, this would force them to assert a position despite uncertainties, which would reduce the reliability and validity of this study.

The finding of Stage One (Semi-structured Interview) revealed that many respondents do not have enough information about tourism planning, and experienced limited participation and collaboration in tourism planning. Because the 5-point Likert scale with middle point enables respondents to express neutral or uncertain opinions, and moreover, the 5-point Likert scale has been used in previous studies in Sapa (Hoa & Lan,
1999; Truong, 2014), this study employs a five-point agree-disagree Likert scale, ranging from the ‘5 - strongly agree’ option to the ‘1 - strongly disagree’ option.

**Questionnaire design**

A questionnaire is a commonplace means of collecting data. A well-designed questionnaire is very important to improve response rates and the quality of the data collected (O'Rourke, 2001). Therefore, the questionnaire had to be accurate, clear and easy to follow without supervision. If the questionnaire is too long, both response rate and quality of data collected are likely to be low (Neuman, 2006). Thus, the questionnaire was designed to encourage the respondents to complete it within a short time frame. Questions on the questionnaire were organized to make it easy for respondents to follow and understand.

The questionnaire developed was based on results of semi-structured interviews with key tourism stakeholders in Sapa (Stage 1) and previous studies on residents’ perceptions of tourism impacts (Byrd et al., 2009; Huong & Lee, 2017; Pham Hong, 2012; Pham Hong & Kalsom, 2011). Before doing a pre-test of the survey, questionnaires were sent to academics and PhD colleagues at Murdoch University and TUEBA (Thái Nguyên University of Economics and Business Administration) to check its interpretation.

The questionnaire comprised twenty-two items related to the impacts of tourism development in Sapa and was designed according to a five-point agree-disagree Likert scale, ranging from the ‘5 - strongly agree’ option to the ‘1 - strongly disagree’ option. There are 7 modules on the questionnaires; each module was short, clear and understandable.

- Module 1: Personal Information
- Module 2: Understanding of tourism development and associated issues
- Module 3: Personal benefits and degree of support for tourism development in Sapa
- Module 4: Engagement in the tourism planning and decision-making process in Sapa
- Module 5: Perceptions about current participation and collaboration among tourism stakeholders in tourism planning in Sapa
- Module 6: Factors motivating/hindering the respondent’s participation in tourism planning in Sapa
- Module 7: Other comments

**Pre-test questionnaire**

Pilot testing helped to eliminate some items that were not suitable for the Sapa context. Before the official distribution of questionnaires was launched, the questionnaire was pre-tested to enhance the quality of the instrument. The purpose of pre-test is to make
sure that all the questions on the questionnaire were clearly understood by respondents. The pre-test also helped to enhance the accuracy and reliability of the survey instrument. After pre-testing the questionnaires in December 2018 by consulting with academic lecturers in tourism at TUEBA, and PhD colleagues at Murdoch University, forty pre-test questionnaires were distributed to tourism stakeholders in Tà Van, Lao Chāi and Sapa Town, to ask whether or not they understood the questions. Following completion of pre-test questionnaires, some statements on the questionnaire were edited. Since many respondents in Sapa are ethnic minority people, and some of them could not read Vietnamese, it was determined that the official questionnaire distribution required a research member who was able to speak Vietnamese as well as the relevant ethnic minority language (Hmong, Tay, etc).

The pilot study in this thesis was conducted in December 2018. The researcher spent one week in the study site to survey 40 respondents. The pilot study enabled the researcher to determine that the categories provided for questions are valid and reliable measures, the terms on the questionnaire are understandable and the question order flowed logically. It also provided a check on how long interviews would take. It took about 7 to 12 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

3.7.2. Study sampling

The researcher chose purposive and convenience sampling to use for this thesis research because it refers to the selection of participants based on their relevance as stakeholders to the research project and accessibility. Convenience sampling enables quick collection of data with less expense. Because households of ethnic people in Sapa are scattered, it is difficult for the research team to access. Therefore, researcher decided to use convenience sampling to interview tourism stakeholders in an area which has a high density of local people such as markets and tourism spots.

Since, ethnic minority people are not normally at home in the daytime, it would be difficult to get the sample by stratified sampling techniques. The researcher chose convenience sampling techniques; the research team approached each commune and met with local residents in the road, in the community house, etc … to ask them to complete the questionnaire. Since the main purpose of this thesis is to compare the perceptions of Kinh and Ethnic minority groups about tourism impacts, the questionnaires were distributed until the researcher obtained enough valid questionnaires for both Kinh and Ethnic minorities. Since most of the population in Sapa are from ethnic minority groups, thus the target sample of Ethnic minorities is greater than Kinh stakeholders. It is estimated the sample of 200 Kinh and 350 Ethnic minorities. In order to get approximately 200 responses of Kinh and 350
Ethnic minority respondents, the research team distributed 570 questionnaires in three villages (Tà Van, Tà Phìn, Lao Chài) and two sides of Sapa Town (North and South).

3.7.3. Research procedure for data collection

The data were collected from January to February 2019 by face to face interview. Questionnaires were given to the research team to conduct the interviews in Tà Van, Lao Chài, Tà Phìn villages and Sapa Town which are the most developed tourist areas. The study employed a convenience sample by randomly stopping people in their place and walking to visit their houses, offices and asking them to fill out questionnaires. Since the researcher is not a local resident and does not know how to speak ethnic minority languages, four undergraduate students and one homestay owner were hired and trained because they could access ethnic minority people in their own languages. For training, I explained the purpose of this research and gave an example of how to access and ask people with questionnaires. I also explained the items on the questionnaire to facilitate their understanding. These four then became the main distributors of the questionnaires to local residents. The research team returned completed questionnaires to me at the end of each day when I checked the completion and transparency of each questionnaire. During the survey, I always checked the completion and transparency from respondents when the questionnaires returned from the research team at the end of the day.

During the survey, I was accompanied and supervised by my principal supervisor and interviewed those local residents who could answer in Vietnamese, these were primarily tourism businesses owners or government officials.

A total of 570 questionnaires were distributed. 510 questionnaires were returned and 457 were completed and usable, accounting for 83.1%. Finally, respondents included 252 respondents from ethnic minorities (138 Hmong and 114 from other ethnic minority groups such as Tày, Dao, Giày) and 205 Kinh people. Altogether the sample comprised 58 government officials, 42 tourism business owners, and 357 residents. Ethnic minority respondents were 55.6% female and 44.4% male, while the Kinh cohort was made up of 61.0% females and 39.0% males.

3.7.4. Quantitative data analysis

In this study, the analysis of the quantitative data was performed by employing the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23. A number of data screening techniques were used for preliminary analysis including the handling of missing data. The researcher screened all questionnaires to check for incomplete or unanswered questions. Questionnaires which contained a blank page or the same answers for most of the
questionnaire items were considered unusable. After data screening, the useable questionnaires were entered into the SPSS program.

Descriptive and inferential statistics were applied to analyze the data. However, normality tests were performed to meet assumptions of statistical tests. When the data is normally distributed, parametric tests are typically employed, and non-parametric test applied for non-normal data distributions. However, Norman (2010, p. 631) argues that parametric statistics can be used with Likert data, with small sample sizes, with unequal variances, and with non-normal distributions, with no fear of “coming to the wrong conclusion”. Thus, this study employed parametric tests for non-normal distributions, but the author also rechecked the results with non-parametric tests. The outcomes of both were the same.

First, descriptive analyses were used to uncover the details of tourism stakeholders’ perspectives on tourism impacts. Means, standard deviations, percentages, minimum and maximum values were used for demographic information. Furthermore, descriptive statistics provided frequency data for each research variable. Second, this study conducted many inferential statistical tests to examine the differences in the perceptions between groups. The main statistical tests used were parametric tests such as an independent sample t-test and analysis of variance (ANOVA) to find out the statistically significant difference between two groups or more. A non-parametric test such as Mann Whitney U-test was applied to compare between two samples, when data are not normally distributed.

An independent sample t-test was conducted to assess whether there were statistically significant differences in mean scores for two groups such as Kinh and Ethnic minority stakeholders in this study. Throughout this thesis, if the results showed that the Levene test was not significant, thereby indicating no violation of the assumption of equal variance, then “equal variances assumed” was reported. If the Levene test was significant, thereby violating the assumption of equal variance, under that circumstance “Equal variances not assumed” was reported.

Cohen's d is an appropriate effect size for the comparison between two means. It can be used, for example, to accompany the reporting of t-test and ANOVA results. It measures the size differences between group means. Thus, after the comparison of mean in the independent sample t-test the Cohen’s d effect size was further calculated. The formula to calculate Cohen’s d for Independent Sample t-tests shows as follows:
\[ d = \frac{M_1 - M_2}{\sqrt{\frac{(n_1 - 1)SD_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)SD_2^2}{(n_1 + n_2) - 2}}} \]

M₁: Mean of sample 1
M₂: Mean of sample 2
SD₁: Standard deviation of sample 1
SD₂: Standard deviation of sample 2
n₁: number of respondents in sample 1
n₂: number of respondents in sample 2

The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to determine whether there are any statistically significant differences between the means of three or more independent groups. ANOVA is utilized in this study to compare the perspectives between three groups such as government officials, local residents and tourism business owners in terms of participation and collaboration in tourism planning in Sapa.

Post hoc tests are used to uncover the specific differences between three or more group means when conducted as an analysis of variance (ANOVA). There are many different types of post hoc tests, each with its own set of assumptions concerning group size, equality of variance etc. In this study, I based the test selection on the assumption of equal variance to decide which types of post hoc test will best fit. The Tukey post hoc test applied when the result of Levene test of homogeneity is higher than 0.05 (equal variances assumed). However, Tamhane’s T2 test was employed when the result of Levene test of homogeneity is lower than 0.05 (equal variances not assumed).

3.8. Data Triangulation

There are many methods to check the accuracy of research findings with qualitative data such as triangulation of data, member checking, and clarification of researcher bias, peer examination and external auditor revision (Creswell 2003). In this study, the researcher employed triangulation of data to ensure the validity and relevance of the qualitative interview data. As Decrop (1999) indicates data interpretation is strengthened by triangulation in data analysis.

There are four types of triangulation (Patton 1990, p.464).

- Checking the consistency of findings which are generated by different data collection methods – Method triangulation
- Checking the consistency of different data sources within the same method – Triangulation of sources
• Using multiple analysts to interpret and review the findings – Analyst triangulation
• Using multiple perspectives or theories to interpret the data through theory triangulation

In this study, the researcher applied analyst triangulation to check the interpretation of interview data by inviting an independent analyst who has completed her PhD thesis in the Sapa region to review the qualitative data. Furthermore, the questionnaire survey was combined with qualitative interviews as a method of data triangulation. The findings from both methods were used by the researcher to compare the results.

3.9. Ethical considerations

For any research involving human participants, ethical considerations are important for guiding the conduct of the research and for data collection in the field. The reliability of the research findings depends upon how well the researchers and respondents involved are informed of the purposes, objectives, methods and applications of research findings. To conduct the research with quality and integrity, ethics should be considered at every stage of the research process. The human ethics application (2017/251) was approved by the Human Ethnics Committee at Murdoch University before conducting the research in the field (See the document attached in the Appendices).

When conducting interviews with key tourism stakeholders in Sapa, oral consent was obtained following a detailed description of the purpose of the study and participants’ rights. Since confidentiality for respondents was one of the conditions of ethics approval, the names of respondents will be referred to as Academic 1; Local resident 3; Government Official 5; Hotel Owner 02…etc. The researcher has also committed to share the research findings with participants through the Division of Tourism and Culture which has the staff who can communicate with ethnic residents, the Lào Cai People Committee, and the Department of Tourism. Both the interview and questionnaire survey processes, of each questionnaire began with a clear statement of the purpose of the research and assurance of the confidentiality of participant responses (see attached documents in the Appendix).

3.10. Chapter summary

This chapter discussed the theoretical paradigm as the foundation to guide the researcher in research, and rationale of pragmatism as a research paradigm in this study. It also provided the rationale of mixed method which is the most suitable because it allows the qualitative methods to verify by quantitative one and vice versa. Deep insights into perceptions and experiences of Sapa stakeholders about tourism impacts could be achieved through semi-structured interviews. Follow-up survey could gain broader involvement of Sapa
stakeholders. The qualitative and quantitative of sampling techniques, data collection, analysis also elaborated in this chapter. Last part of this chapter discussed the ethical consideration to conduct this study. The next chapter describes the background of research area and the political and socio-economic context for this study.
CHAPTER 4: SAPA – THE CASE STUDY AREA

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of tourism development and the structure of the tourism sector in Vietnam, and of tourism development in the case study area of Sapa. A discussion of the ethnic composition and characteristics of ethnic minorities in Vietnam are included in the chapter. The Vietnamese government policy toward ethnic minorities, the development gap between ethnic minority and majority groups in Vietnam are also discussed. The last part of this chapter describes the impact of state modernization on ethnic minorities.

4.2. Tourism Development in Vietnam

The history and development of tourism in Vietnam can be divided into three main periods: In the period 1960-1975, tourism mainly served political purposes. From 1976 to 1990, tourism was recognized as an important economic sector. Since 1991, following global trends, tourism has been regarded as an important tool for economic growth and poverty reduction (Truong, 2014, p. 80).

In the period 1960-1975, during the American war, Vietnam was politically divided into two different parts, the North and the South. Tourism was limited and primarily developed to serve political purposes. Tourists during this time were foreign political delegates who were invited by the Vietnamese government, most of them from socialist countries such as Russia, Bulgaria, Rumania, and Cuba… etc. Business and leisure activities were very rare for the general population. Total international tourists’ arrivals were thus very limited.

Table 4.1. International Arrivals to Vietnam 1960 -1975

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Arrivals</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Arrivals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>6,130</td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>18,160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>7,630</td>
<td>1971</td>
<td>12,080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>8,070</td>
<td>1972</td>
<td>15,860</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963</td>
<td>8,790</td>
<td>1973</td>
<td>19,320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964</td>
<td>10,780</td>
<td>1974</td>
<td>26,820</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>11,850</td>
<td>1975</td>
<td>36,910</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Ministry of Internal Affairs (1979, cited in Truong 2014)

In the second period 1976 – 1985, after the American war, when the country was re-united, it remained difficult to develop tourism because the infrastructure was very poor and severely damaged by the war. During this period, some tourist sites in big cities such as Hồ Chí Minh, Huế, Đà Nẵng were gradually expanded. Several state-owned tourist companies
were established and managed by provincial people’s committees. The number of foreign tourist arrivals were low and mainly came from the Soviet Union.

The third period 1986 – 1990 experienced a dramatic change when the 1986 Renewal Policy (đổi mới) marked a significant turn in Vietnam’s development strategy from a command to a market economy. Tourism was recognized as an important economic sector; however, it was only a secondary sector until the 1990s.

*Table 4.2. Tourist Arrivals 1985 – 1990*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>International</th>
<th>Domestic</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>50,830</td>
<td>50,830</td>
<td>101,660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>54,353</td>
<td>280,000</td>
<td>334,353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>73,283</td>
<td>400,000</td>
<td>473,283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>110,390</td>
<td>480,000</td>
<td>590,390</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>187,573</td>
<td>540,000</td>
<td>727,573</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>250,000</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>1,250,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Four years after the introduction of the open-door policy in 1986, tourism began to be aggressively promoted by the central government as a tool for accelerating economic and social development. Since the 1990s, an expansion of the industry was facilitated by new legislation – the Law on Private Companies, Company Law (1990), Law on the Promotion of Domestic Investment (1992) and the amendment to the Law on Foreign Investment (1996). This led to a rapid increase in foreign tourists seeking business and investment opportunities in Vietnam (Hobson, Heung, & Chon, 1994; Terry Lam, 2013). Thus, the Vietnamese government has changed the approach from considering tourism a political instrument towards focusing more on its economic benefits (Agrusa & Prideaux, 2002; Cooper, 2000). From this time onwards, Vietnamese tourism diversified its markets and activities which led it to achieve remarkable double-digit annual growth in international tourist arrivals averaging 17.3% from 1990 – 2013.
It is now acknowledged that tourism is an important sector as evidenced by sharp growth over the past 20 years. The contribution of travel and tourism to the GDP of Vietnam increased from 2.8 billion in 1999 to 22.4 billion US dollars in 2018, in that period growing at an average annual rate of 12.62% (Atlas, 2019). In 2018, travel and tourism contributed 9.2% of Vietnam’s GDP (Knoema, 2018). Vietnam’s tourism sector still encounters many challenges and lags behind many competitors in ASEAN such as Thailand, Singapore, in terms of tourist arrivals, average length of stay, average expenditure per visitor, and rate of return visitors (Le, 2014). The challenges for Vietnam’s tourism sector include:

- weak empowerment of local stakeholders including residents in planning, development, and management of tourism destinations
- lack of proper profit-sharing mechanism allowing for an equitable economic, social and environmental benefit-sharing among tourism stakeholders
- lack of an optimal model for sustainable tourism development that generates growth and employment and contributes to poverty reduction and hunger eradication as well as economic, social integration and environmental protection (Le, 2014, p. 54).

To overcome the challenges and develop tourism into a “spearhead economic industry”, the Vietnamese government has formulated comprehensive strategies to support and regulate tourism development including many progressive plans, policies and programs.
for the tourism sector. These have helped to stimulate economic activity, create widespread social benefits, conserve natural and cultural resources, enable human resource development and raise tourism awareness (Le, 2014, p. 55).

The Vietnamese government has formulated a strategy on Vietnamese tourism development until 2020 with a vision to 2030 (GovernmentPortal, 2011). This strategy was approved in Decision 2473/QD-TTg dated December 30, 2011, with the expectation to

- Develop tourism into a key economic sector, accounting for an increasing proportion of GDP, and creating a driving force for socio-economic development
- Develop tourism in the direction of professionalization and modernization as a focal point emphasizing quality assurance and efficiency while affirming brand value and competitiveness
- Develop simultaneously domestic and international tourism, paying attention to international inbound tourism and strengthening the management of outbound tourism
- Develop sustainable tourism tied to the preservation and promotion of the cultural values of the nation, ensuring landscape preservation and environmental protection and maintaining security, national defense, social order and safety
- Promote social engagement in and mobilize all domestic and foreign resources for investment in tourism development, making full use of the national potential and advantages in terms of natural factors, national culture and characteristic strong point of each region throughout the country, to strengthen the connections for tourism development.

**a) General objectives**

By 2020, tourism is expected to become a key national economic sector that is modern and professional with a relatively uniform technical infrastructure. Tourism products will have high quality, diversity and prestige, imbued with distinctive national identities and able to compete with other countries in the region. By 2030, Viet Nam strives to become a nation with a developed tourism sector.

**b) Specific objectives**

- Average growth rate of the tourism industry for the period 2011-2020 would reach 11.5-12% per annum.
- In 2015: Vietnam would welcome 7-7.5 million international tourist arrivals and 36-37 million domestic tourists; total revenue from tourism would reach US$10-11 billion, contributing 5.5-6% of GDP; the sector would have a total of 390,000
accommodation suites, 30-35% of which are of three to five-star standard; the sector would create 2.2 million jobs, including 620,000 employees working directly in tourism.

- In 2020: Vietnam would receive 10-10.5 million international arrivals and 47-48 million domestic tourists; total revenue from tourism would reach US$18-19 billion, contributing 6.5-7% of the country’s GDP; total accommodation suites would be 580,000, 35-40% of which are of three to five-star standard; the sector would create 3 million jobs, including 870,000 employees working directly in tourism.

- In 2030: Total revenue from tourism would double that of 2020 (GovernmentPortal, 2011)

4.2.1. Structure of tourism sector in Vietnam

The Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (MCST) takes charge of tourism planning and development for the whole of Vietnam. MSCT is responsible for all activities related to legal procedures such as decrees, legal documents and approval of tourism plans etc. In 1978, the Vietnam Tourism Administration (VNAT) was established. VNAT is responsible for the execution of all tourism related activities and development of the tourism master plan. VNAT is in charge of many duties including licensing of tour operators, travel agencies, domestic tour guides and classification of three to five-star hotels (the lower star-rating is the responsibility of the provincial level). The internal duties of the VNAT cover all issues of quality control, training and infrastructure. VNAT’s range of external duties covers the domestic and international marketing and promotion activities. At provincial and district levels, tourism is administered by the regional or local Department of Culture, Sports and Tourism (DCST) which are part of the Provincial People’s Committees

VNAT is responsible for development of Vietnam’s tourism master plan. The Master Plan defines the goal for national tourism and the role of state management of tourism. It functions providing top-down guidelines for public institutions at the lower administrative levels down to the municipalities (VNAT, 1995). For achieving the goals of the Master Plan, VNAT established the Strategy on Vietnam’s Tourism Development until 2020, Vision to 2030 (The Government Web Portal, 2011c). The strategy defines “… priority policies of the tourism infrastructure investment, human resources training, tourism promotion and brand development; policies of combination, mobilization of resources to make a concentrated investment in the improvement of the capacity and the quality of tourism service suppliers, establish a number of tourist service centres of the regional and international significance” (GovernmentPortal, 2011, p. 02).
The Vietnam Tourism Association (VITA) has currently 31 regional chapters, representing about 1,000 tourism enterprises from the accommodation and distribution sector (tour operators and travel agencies). VITA’s aims are to promote collaboration, coordination and mutual support and benefits for their members with regards to improvement of service quality and competitive tourism products in a healthy competitive business environment (Hildebrandt & Isaac, 2015). VITA is the national parent organization of the Vietnam Society of Travel Agents (VISTA) and Vietnam Hotel Association (VHA). The tourism structure in Vietnam is shown in the figure below:

Figure 4.2. Tourism Structure of Vietnam
Source: Adapted from Hildebrandt and Isaac (2015)

Notes:
- VNAT: Vietnam National Administration Tourism
- ITDR: Institute for Tourism Development Research
- TITC: Tourism Information Technology Centre
- VTR: Vietnam Tourism Review
- TN: Tourism Newspaper
4.2.2. Tourism planning in Vietnam

In many developing countries, central government takes full control of tourism development. Central government has branch offices at the local level, and there is often conflict between national and local branches about what development should occur and where. Local authorities take charge of monitoring the outcomes of project development, but they do not have decision-making powers or financial/budgetary responsibility. Many local communities remain frustrated since they do not see any visible benefits or enhancement in their lives from tourism development (Osman, Shaw, & Kenawy, 2018).

Figure 4.3 below presents the vertical hierarchical system among responsible jurisdictions in Vietnam. At the national level, government manages all sectional ministries, and provincial committees. At provincial level, peoples’ committees take charge in managing all sectional departments and district people’s committee. Similarly, at the local level, people’s committees in each commune are responsible for day-to-day management and government activities, and they also have to regularly report to higher layer of management.

In Vietnam, in most types of tourism planning at national level, the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (MCST) appoints provincial representatives to develop tourism plans. In order to develop such tourism plans at provincial level, the Department of Culture, Sports and Tourism (DCST) works under the governance of the Provincial People’s Committee Chair in collaboration with the MCST and engages with district and commune levels. Once DCST has developed a plan, they circulate the plan to provincial-level departments such as the Department of Science and Technology before making their way to MCST for final approval. Therefore, there is a little room for local residents to participate in tourism planning (Powell et al., 2018).

Regarding the specifics of tourism plans in Sapa, based on the master plan issued by MCST, the Lào Cai People Committees work with the Department of Tourism to develop its own plans. Such tourism plans could be developed by the Department of Tourism or a private consultant company could be hired to develop a tourism development plan for Sapa (Vtoco, 2015). It is evident in the literature review that, hiring a private sector company to make important plans about tourism development is a strategy that mainly focuses on short-
Term economic gains through construction of facilities which could attract more visitors. As a result, there is little attention to socio-cultural effects on host communities and environmental issues (Andriotis & Vaughan, 2003). Moreover, the plans developed by private or consultancy firms rarely publish or divulge their “secret” interests to the public. Pearce and Butler (1993) argue that many tourism planners or developers are often located very far from the destination under development which means they may be unaware of or unconcerned about any costs resulting from tourism development. For instance, in Vietnam, tourism plans formulated by private firms or experts located in the capital, Hanoi, may not sufficiently incorporate the needs and desires of local Sapa communities in the development and planning process.

![Diagram of the Vietnam Government Organizational Structure](image)

*Figure 4.3. The Vietnam Government Organizational Structure*

Source: Adapted from Ho, Cottrell, Valentine, and Woodley (2012)
4.3. Ethnic composition in Vietnam and in Sapa

Vietnam is a multi-cultural country with 54 ethnic groups recognized by the Vietnamese government (Portal, 2019). Each group has its own language, lifestyle and cultural heritage. The majority Kinh group account for approximately 86% of the country's nearly 100 million people and mainly inhabit the major cities and deltas, including the Red River delta, the central coastal delta, and the Mekong delta. The other 53 ethnic minority groups, total over 8 million people. Vietnam’s ethnic minorities mostly live in remote, sparsely inhabited mountain regions in northern, central and western Vietnam, and have limited access to infrastructure, health and educational facilities. They are much poorer than the majority (dominant Kinh group) (Đrông, 2008). According to CIA (2019) and GSO (2020), in the whole of Vietnam Kinh (Viet) account for 85.7%, Tày 1.9%, Thái 1.8%, Mường 1.5%, Khmer 1.5%, Hmong 1.2%, Nùng 1.1%, Hoa 1%, other 4.3%.

In contrast to wider Vietnam where the ruling political Kinh group are in the majority, ethnic minority groups comprise 52% of the Sapa population (SPC, 2017). In Vietnam, the Communist Party (which is made up primarily of Kinh) controls all political and ideological matters including cultural policies for minority groups (CIA, 2018; Michaud, 2013). In terms of population structure and in contrast to wider Vietnam, as mentioned previously, the Kinh who represent 86% of the wider Vietnamese population (CIA, 2018), are a minority in Sapa, representing only 18% of the region’s population. As mentioned in the Chapter 1, the overall population of the Sapa District was estimated at 53,000 of whom 52% were Hmong; 23.04% were Dao; 17.91% were Kinh; 5% were Tày; and 1.36% were Giầy (Duy, 2015).

Table 4.3. Ethnic Minority Groups in Sapa, Lào Cai in 2015

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Numbers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hmong</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>27324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Red Dao</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>12189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tày</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>2507</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giầy</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xa Phò</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other ethnic groups</td>
<td>each &lt;1%</td>
<td>9472</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 4.4. Ethnic Groups in Vietnam
Source: CIA (2019)

Figure 4.5. Ethnic minority groups in Sapa
Source: Duy (2015)

In contrast to the information provided in Figure 4.5, in wider Vietnam, Tai-speaking groups comprise the largest cluster of the official ethnic minority groups (Bonnin, 2011). In Lào Cai they are mainly Tày, Nùng and Giày (Michaud et al. 2002). Ethnic Tày formed the majority of Tai-speakers in Vietnam, however in Sapa they account for only 5%. Most of Tai-speakers in Asia follow a hierarchical, feudal-style of political system. According to Bonnin (2011, 119), Tai-speaking groups are often described as being more strongly
assimilated into Kinh culture and society than other Ethnic minority groups and in the northern upland their heritage and culture have been influenced by the expansion of Kinh majority (Michaud, 2000). This study compares the perspectives of Kinh with Ethnic minorities in Sapa where Hmong people comprise 52% of the Ethnic minority population (see figure 4.5 above).


Ethnic minority people in Vietnam account for the majority of highlanders who live in relative independence and follow their own traditional customs and cultures (Robert, 2011). Ethnic minorities in Vietnam are divided into sedentary and nomadic. The sedentary groups are engaged mainly in the cultivation of wet rice and industrial crops, however, the nomadic groups practice slash-and-burn farming (swidden agriculture) where forested land is cleared for a brief period of cultivation and then abandoned. Both of these groups basically live the same four major areas including: the northern Chinese border region and the uplands near the Red River Delta, the north-western border region next to Laos and China (Lào Cai, Hà Giang, Lai Châu), the Central Highlands and the area along the Trường Sơn Mountain Range, and parts of the Mekong River Delta and the central coastal. These groups are notable for their diverse cultural characteristics. They are distinguished among themselves not only by language but also by other cultural features such as architectural styles, colors and shapes of dress and personal ornaments, shapes of agricultural implements, religious practices, and systems of social organization (Hays, 2014).

The Hmong people are an ethnic group, they originate from the mountainous regions of China. Hmong descendant tribes include Black Hmong, Striped Hmong, Green Hmong and White Hmong (Compass, 2017). The Hmong migrated to Vietnam during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries and made their home in the highlands near the border between Vietnam and China (Ngo, 2015). They choose Lào Cai and Yên Bái Province as their first settlements. The Hmong people wear green, black, white clothing with lots of silver jewelry. The color that they wear shows to which group they belong, for instance, Black Hmong or White Hmong. Many generations of the Hmong live together in the same house, grandparents normally take care of the children, while their parents are working in the fields. In villages, they grow dry rice, vegetables, opium, and raise herds. They use buffalo for ploughing fields. After harvesting their crops, Hmong women have free time to embroider clothes for their family members to wear in the Hmong New Year. The Hmong speak their own language which belongs to the Hmong-Mien group of the Austro-Thai language family.
The various sub-cultures of the Hmong people each speak varying forms of the Hmong language.

4.5. Vietnamese Government Policy Towards Minorities

The ethnic minority people traditionally lived apart from one another and from the Kinh Vietnamese. In the 1980s, however, the distance between the highland and lowland communities gradually narrowed because of the government policies of population redistribution, settlement and political integration.

The Vietnamese government resettled ethnic minorities from remote areas in mountainous province to locations where basic needs are easier to provide. The aim of the resettlement is to ensure the minorities change from traditional swidden agricultural methods to sedentary agriculture. The move from swidden farming to fixed crops has been encouraged by the government in return for granting long-term land-use rights to households (Bonnin & Turner, 2012). However, in Vietnam, all land is officially owned by the state and land-use rights that have been assigned to households since the 1993 Land Law do not reflect traditional territories occupied by indigenous groups and do not guarantee tenure security (Corlin, 2004). This has had effect of making more land available to the Kinh migrants to the mountainous areas who clear the forests for cash crop agriculture. The migration of Kinh people into the mountainous areas has diluted the indigenous cultures and has led to many land disputes between ethnic minorities and Kinh migrants (Robert, 2011). In addition, Kinh migration in upland areas increased population densities and resulted in exploitation of increasingly fragile land. This resulted in the disparities in economic relations and the potential for social conflict between Kinh and Ethnic minorities, rather than fulfilling the aim of the Vietnamese government, which was to enhance the solidarity and brotherhood among many ethnic groups (McElwee, P.D., 2008).

The Vietnamese government has encouraged lowlanders to move to remote and uninhabited areas of the highlands to reduce overpopulation in the cities and in the congested Red River Delta and to promote economic development in the uplands (Đặng, 2008). These also were part of the effort of government to raise the standard of living of the general public, which in turn was linked to another urgent national priority of family planning. However, because of the migration of lowland Vietnamese, the agricultural system of upland ethnic minority groups has changed rapidly.

Many special programs initiated by the Vietnamese government has provided for ethnic minorities in order to improve education and health facilities and to expand road access and electrification of rural communities and villages. The government further
supported ethnic minorities by land allocation to them, however, the implementation of this allocation was uneven, thus, there were many valid complaints (Robert, 2011). The government granted special supports to domestic and foreign companies that invested in highland areas, which that are populated predominantly by ethnic minorities. Many infrastructure development programs also maintained by the government, such programs targeted poor, largely ethnic-minority areas and established agricultural extension programs for remote rural areas. The National Assembly’s Ethnic Minority Council, and provincial Ethnic Minority Steering Committees, have supported infrastructure development and have addressed some issues related to poverty reduction and an increase in literacy rates.

In order to provide education for ethnic minorities, many classes in elementary and secondary schools are conducted in local ethnic minority languages. The government has also worked with local officials to develop curricula that teach in local languages. In many mountainous provinces ethnic minority children are not required to pay school fees. The Vietnamese government also provided some special enrolments and scholarships at university level for ethnic minorities. Furthermore, there are also a few government-subsidized technical and vocational schools for ethnic minorities. Many radio and television channels have broadcasted in ethnic minority languages in some areas (IAGCI, 2014, p. 30). The government has also instructed and encouraged ethnic-majority (Kinh) officials to learn the language of the locality where they work (Hays, 2014). At the provincial level, many initiatives are designed to increase employment, reduce the income gap between ethnic minorities and Kinh, and make officials sensitive and receptive to ethnic minority culture and traditions.

The Vietnamese government has developed specific policies and prioritized treatments in order to help mountain people catch up with lowland people and make great efforts to develop and preserve traditional cultural identities of each ethnic minority group. Initiatives, for instance, providing iodized salt for remote villages, equipping village health care and hygienic stations, fighting malaria, building free schools for ethnic minority children, promoting settled agriculture and fixed residence. Projects that created new writing scripts for minority peoples and promoted the study and the development of traditional culture of each ethnic minority group have obtained satisfactory results (Portal, 2019, p. 02).

Many projects in Sapa aims to develop and preserve culture for tourism such as “Preserving, developing and promoting cultural aspects of ethnic minorities in Lào Cai in the period 2001 – 2005 and to 2010” which was approved by the Lào Cai People’s Committee (Le, 2015). In 2002, the Vietnamese Ethnic Minorities Arts and Literature
Association implemented a project “Revival and promotion of traditional festivals and ceremonies among the minority people of Ta Van village” (Le, 2015). Both projects aimed to identify and promote cultural features of ethnic minorities, such as handicrafts, jewelry, knitting and herbal medicine to bring economic benefits to the local people. Another goal of these projects was to erase the backward and primitive cultural practices and customs of ethnic minorities. Thus, these projects could be considered as the dominant view of Kinh people aimed at selective cultural preservation. According to Le, T. D.D. (2015), the development of these project was top-down approach with no meetings or consultations with local people, and local voices were virtually absent in official documents. For further details about the examples of cultural selective preservation see Dung 2015, p 78, Messier and Michaud, 2012, p12, and Salemink 2003, 284-285.

Despite the government’s focus on development and support of ethnic minorities described above, it can also be argued that these actions are inconsistent with ethnic minority cultures and that these policies are aimed at restricting the traditional autonomy of these ethnic minorities (Scott, 2009) and completely eliminating cultural practices which are inconsistent with dominant Kinh ideology. For example, the traditional spring festival of the Hmong people was cancelled by the People’s Committee in Hòa Bình province to let them organize it in line with the country’s common Tet holiday (Vietnamese Lunar New Year). In other provinces such as Điện Biên, Lai Châu and Hà Giang, Hmong people have been persuaded to give up their traditional festivals and join the common national Tet holiday (IWGIA, 2019). However, many Hmong people in Hòa Bình province still organize their own traditional festivals (Luong, 2018). This could be considered as their defending right to protect their culture and resist the assimilation efforts of Kinh people.

4.6. Development gap between the ethnic minority and majority groups in Vietnam

Vietnam has experienced rapid growth in the past 25 years, taking it from one of the poorest countries in the world in 1990 to a middle-income economy by 2010. However, ethnic minorities are often excluded from this prosperity (Cloutman, 2016). Although they make up just 13% of the country’s population, minorities account for between 40-70% of the country’s poor. Minority workers are paid as much as a quarter less than their Kinh colleagues, and face discrimination from the rest of the population (Demombynes, 2013).

The Vietnamese government has many poverty reduction programs (Baulch, Nguyen, Nguyen, & Pham, 2009), but the poverty gap between Kinh and the ethnic minorities still exists (Dang, 2012). Tourism plays an important role in economic development and is widely promoted as a tool for poverty alleviation (Chok et al., 2007;
Truong et al., 2014). Until 1993, the Vietnamese government opened up tourism development in the mountainous areas in the context of the introduction of economic reform (đổi mới) in 1986. After 1993, there was a rapid increase in tourism demand from the emerging Vietnamese middle class and foreign backpackers in the highland areas (Michaud, 2009). Since then, tourism in the highlands has focused on the ancient hill stations such as Sapa in the North and Đa Lạt in the South of Vietnam. Hmong and Dao people are predominantly located in Sapa, Lào Cai Province in the north-western highlands. Tourism in Sapa opened in 1993 and developed as a major destination for national and international tourism. Ethnic minorities are mainly Hmong and Dao who make up more than 80% of the population in Sapa district. However, tourism businesses are mainly owned by the 15% Kinh, who moved into the district with the rapid expansion of tourism “to capitalize on every opportunity” (Michaud & Turner, 2006, p. 787). Therefore, “local cultural minorities, in spite of constituting 85% of Sa Pa district’s population, are basically left to watch and hope for beneficial effects to trickle down, deprived as they are from access to economic success and political power in the state apparatus due to their cultural distinctiveness, their lack of formal education, and their limited economic capital. Tourism in Sa Pa is in the hands of the elite, the wealthy, powerful, and enterprising 15% Kinh minority, rubber stamped by a handful of Party-agreeable minority representatives” (Michaud & Turner, 2006, p. 803).

A study on cultural tourism suggests that there is a need for further work that includes the voice of indigenous stakeholders. “Because ethnic and gendered power imbalances, and the disenfranchised position of Indigenous groups in majority Vietnamese society, mean that they cannot meaningfully be classified as full stakeholders” (Bott, 2018, p. 1305). Michaud and Turner (2017) examine the impacts of recent tourism plans and policies on ethnic minority communities and Kinh residents. Their study reveals that little attention has been paid to minority groups’ preferences; their rights, civil or ancestral are not taken into consideration. and the State’s policy is strongly reflected in local practices.

Many development indicators have improved significantly, such as GDP per capita which has increased from $95.20 in 1990 to $2566 USD in 2018 (WorldBank, 2019a), after the đổi mới program in 1986. However, this success story does not reflect the whole picture of Vietnam particularly with respect to its many ethnic minority groups. Fujii (2018) shows that the development gap or inequality in development between the ethnic minorities and majority groups has not narrowed and has even widened in some respects. For instance, between 1993 and 2006, the poverty rate among ethnic majority groups reduced from 62% to 14%, while the poverty rate of ethnic minority groups only reduced from 88% to 54%.
The ethnic minority groups lag behind the majority group on many indicators such as income, education, health, and access to community services (Dang, 2012).

There are several reasons which could be considered as leading to the development gap between groups. First, the development gap may originate from a lack of social cohesion and lead to violence and civil unrest. For instance, the major protest against the central government happened in the Central Highlands involving thousands of ethnic Hmong in 2001, 2004, and 2011 which resulted in the use of state force. The main causes for these protests were land disputes, lack of religious freedom and autonomy. The second reason is geography, since most of the ethnic minority groups live in remote areas, therefore, access to infrastructure, health and educational activities is limited and they are much poorer than the ethnic majorities (World Bank, 2019a). Third, the development gap stems from discrimination. According to the constitution, ethnic minorities have the right to speak their own languages and preserve and develop the ‘positive’ elements of their cultures. However, in reality, these unique cultures are deemed ‘negative’ by the Kinh-led state and face potential curtailment and perhaps even eradication. Moreover, it seems several ethnic minority groups have been targeted for repression because they participated in fighting with South Vietnamese troops during the American-Vietnam war (1955–1975). As mentioned earlier, the Vietnamese government has many policies to narrow the development gap between minority and majority ethnic communities, but so far in practice, they have yielded disappointing results.

4.7. Overview of Sapa

Sapa is known as the most famous hill station in the North of Vietnam, and it was established by French in 1903 (Vu & Sato, 2010). The weather in Sapa is cool, moderate and rainy in summer from May to September and foggy and cold in the wintertime from November to February. The average temperature is 15-18°C. It is much cooler than in Hanoi which sometimes is up to 40° Celsius in the summer (Le, 2014). This is also one of the reasons why it attracts domestic tourists. Sapa also attracts tourists with other scenic sites beyond the famous Fansipan Peak, including Hàm Rồng Mountain, Silver Waterfall, Tà Phin Cave, Hoàng Liên National Park and its picturesque rice terraces. The first railway line from Hà Nội to Lào Cai was completed in 1906 which facilitated for French military to set up many colonial buildings such as military hospital, offices, hotels. The Cha Pa Hotel was opened in Sapa in 1909, and by 1913 a military hospital had been established. Later, the Fan Si Pan Hotel (Figure 4.7) was built in 1924. The luxurious Metropole Hotel, located at the
The foot of Hàm Rông Hill, opened its doors in 1932. The Hotel du Centre was added in 1937 (Truong, 2014).

Figure 4.6. Location of the Study Area

During the French War (1946-1954), in February 1947, Việt Minh troops launched a devastating attack on Sapa, destroying many buildings and forcing many residents of the town to flee to Hà Nội (Vu & Sato, 2010). During this attack, several government offices, hotels, buildings, private French villas were seriously damaged. At this time, the vast majority of Vietnamese population fled and did not return to the town until the early 1960s thanks to the New Economic Zones migration scheme which set up by the new sociologist regime (Michaud & Turner, 2006). The war between France and Vietnam came to an end in 1954 and following the Geneva treaty Sapa became part of North Vietnam (Le, 2014). Sapa opened to foreign tourists in 1993. In just over 15 years it has changed from a sleepy backwater into one of the busiest tourist resorts in the country. A day’s scenic drive or overnight rail journey from Hà Nội, it’s cool weather, stunning scenery and photogenic ethnic minorities have made it the jewel in the crown of the Vietnamese tourism industry.
Figure 4.7. Fan Si Pan Hotel


Figure 4.8. Villa Residence for Officers

In terms of administration, the Sapa District consists of Sapa town and 17 communes (SPC, 2020). Each commune has a people’s committee and a people’s council that controls several villages. Each village comprises a number of households. In terms of ethnicity, the Kinh people (lowland Vietnamese) account for 18% of the population. In contrast to wider Vietnam, Sapa is home to several ethnic minority groups (Hmong, Tày, Dao, Giáy), which comprise most of the district’s population (as mentioned in the Table 4.3).

### 4.8. Tourism Development in Sapa

Sapa initially was a tourist destination during the French colony, but it was ignored during the French War (1946-1954). However, the Sapa area was reestablished as a tourism centre in the early 1990s, and since then tourism experienced rapid development. Visitor arrivals in Sapa increased at an exponential rate. There was a tenfold increase in tourism numbers between 1997 and 2018, from 30,000 to over 4.5 million visitors (Figure 4.10) with a decrease in international visitors associated with an increase in domestic visitation (Michaud, Jean, and Sarah Turner, 2017). However, since 2014, the opening of a new expressway from Hà Nội to Lào Cai has facilitated access for domestic tourists. Due to this exponential growth, Sapa Town is now crowded and noisy, especially at the weekends. As a result, international tourists prefer to stay in villages rather than in the busy town (Phi, 2014).
Tourism in Sapa has developed at a remarkable rate due to the attractive landscape, the cool climate and a particular focus on the diversity of ethnic minority cultures. Sapa has become very popular for both domestic and international tourists. International tourists appear to focus on the cultural attraction of Sapa’s ethnic minority groups and hire local tour guides to take them on one- or two-day treks, where they experience the daily life of the local ethnic groups and may stay overnight in local residents’ villages. Another focus for international visitors involves taking part in voluntary activities, for instance, teaching foreign languages to local children or becoming involved in renovating houses or schools. Domestic tourists prefer to stay in Sapa town and experience the cable car system to Mount Fansipan (Phan Xi Pang, 3,143 meters) (Hoa & Lan, 1999). Most domestic visitors to Sapa arrive on Friday night and leave on Sunday morning, so that they can visit the town’s colourful Saturday market. In 2011, there was a total number of 2300 of rooms and 4600 bedrooms available (Le, 2014). The massive construction and development of Sapa has resulted in a significant increase of accommodation to provide services for domestic and international tourists. By 2019, there were 571 service providers with a total of 6786 rooms, 13,642 bedrooms, 275 restaurants and 64 restaurants in hotels in Sapa (Linh, 2019).

The regional economy of Lào Cai Province where Sapa is located is undergoing substantial change, with the contribution of agro-forestry and fishing to Sapa’s economy accounting for 15.05%, while that of tourism and services represented 38.18% in 2015 (Statistics Report, 2015). Tourism in Sapa plays an important role for Lào Cai Province. According to the Lào Cai Tourism Department, the total number of tourist arrivals in Lào Cai was 4,246,590 in 2018, an increase of 21.2% in compared with 2017, spending 13,406 billion VND (Tung Lam, 2019). The number of tourists coming to Sapa has increased accordingly. While Sapa tourism has made a significant contribution to the Lào Cai and Vietnamese economy, there are many serious issues associated with tourism development in Sapa such as cultural erosion, unregulated street vending, and unbalanced benefit sharing among stakeholders (DiGregorio, Pham, & Minako, 1996).

Tourism development has resulted in increased commercialization and imitation of materialistic cultures which has impacted on traditional ethnic minority values. For example, traditional dress, closely associated with the ethnic identity of minority groups has largely disappeared due to new fashions that have come to Sapa. Local traditions such as the Sapa Love market of the Dao ethnic minority have modified since the 1990s. Cultural activities

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13 The Love market used to take place frequently on Saturday evenings. People from all the villages come to the market to meet, to participate in cultural activities, music performances, exchange
and music performances have been performed for economic purposes, resulting in “Love money rather than Love market” (see Lonán Ó Briain, 2012, p 171 and 172). The lifestyle of the young generation is changing due to the influence of new lifestyles promoted by tourists. Some traditional practices such as wearing traditional dress or conducting traditional wedding ceremonies are being eroded. Harassment of tourists by vendors, often street kids selling souvenirs, is increasingly common. It is evident that tourism has damaged minority ethnic cultures more than any benefits it has brought them. The benefits of tourism, on the other hand, mostly accrue to the Kinh group (DiGregorio et al., 1996; Hoa & Lan, 1999). The fact that major tourism businesses, such as hotels, restaurants, and markets are dominated by the Kinh indicates the extent to which benefits from tourism are unequally distributed among tourism stakeholders.

The exotic culture of the ethnic minority is an important component of Sapa tourism to attract tourists and constitutes a source of income for them (Cohen, 2016). Ethnic tourism in Sapa involves ethnic local residents and remote villages being visited by tourists who are encouraged to stay in village homestays, to take photos of local people and to purchase traditional handicrafts. International and Vietnamese tour agents benefit from tourists’ desire to visit more remote areas to search for authentic experiences and adventures. Therefore, ethnic tourism in Sapa is marketed through orientalist reproductions of indigenous peoples. Thus, Sapa tourism is growing in a context of Orientalist commodification of cultures, history, and poisoned natural environment (Bott, 2018).
4.9. Tourism and Ethnic minority livelihoods

Ethnic minorities often had no other sources of income than subsistence agriculture before tourism came to Sapa. Thus, when a population increases, they must expand of swidden or permanent cultivation systems. The livelihood of ethnic minorities also depended on rice-growing in paddy fields and maize on upland fields, rearing livestock such as pig, chicken and buffalo, and foraging for forest products (Hoang et al., 2018). In recent years, many households in Sapa have cultivated cardamom, an example of a non-timber forest product which flourishes beneath the forest canopy. The cardamom has been planted in northern Vietnam for a long time, but it became an important cash crop for ethnic minorities after the Vietnamese government banned the cultivation of opium in 1992. Hmong food systems in the highlands of northern Vietnam are derived from five main sources: terraced rice fields, upland cultivation of dry rice, corn and swidden crops, animal husbandry, horticultural gardens and forest products; within Sa Pa district, wet rice cultivation generates the main staple food, complemented by subsidiary crops such as corn, dry rice and cassava. Hmong also manage and collect forest resources for a variety of purposes such as food (plants and hunted game), building materials, herbal medicines, and more recently cardamom cultivation (Tugault-Lafleur & Turner, 2009, p. 389).

The development of tourism is often considered as poverty mitigation and a sustainable strategy that can generate positive economic benefits for local communities (Truong et al., 2014). However, tourism can generate off-farm employment that may lead to
income diversification and allow rural households to abandon marginal arable land resulting in forest regrowth (Hoang et al., 2018a, p. 2). Ethnic minority people in Sapa have some economic opportunities from tourism development, for instance Hmong and Dao people offer homestays in their villages, or working as a trekking guide, selling souvenirs to tourists such as minority clothing, embroidery and jewelry. Additionally, Dao people could offer tourists traditional herbal baths. Tourism also helps to generate alternative sources of income for local residents via the sale of handicrafts and conducting tourism businesses. However, those benefits are limited for minority ethnic groups. According to Nicholson (1997), Sapa tourism contributed few benefits to local minorities because commercialized products, for instance, traditional embroidered dress, and dyed-cotton decorated cloth had to compete with outside factory produced goods as the result of which tourism created a heavy burden on minority women who spent more time to produce handmade products, while tourists wanted to buy cheap, mass-produced items. In the process of commodification, cultural values attached to embroidery have been gradually lost (Hoa & Lan, 1999).

4.10. Ethnic minorities and State modernization

There is around 12 million of ethnic minority people in Vietnam’s population of almost 100 million, but they account for over two-fifths of the poor. They live mainly in the countryside, high up in the mountains, and have higher illiteracy and school drop-out rates than the Kinh majority, which tends to treat minorities as an underclass (Pho, 2015). Moreover, in the dominant culture of Vietnam, the minorities are often perceived as ‘backward’ in contrast to the ‘civilised’ Kinh (Baulch et al., 2009). In the communist ideology, the highlanders “were considered to be at the lowest stage of economic development…while the Kinh enlightened majority was entering socialism, the highest possible point” (Michaud, 2009, p. 31). However, ethnic minorities have changed and adapted their resistance in response to the situation. For instance, Hmong people in northern Vietnam have become aware of the fact that they do not have the power to resist the sizeable economic transformation occurring when Vietnam opens up to global market forces. Therefore, they have become skillful at adjusting and diversifying their livelihoods to gain cash income to supplement their subsistence base by three main strategies including cardamom cultivation, the textile trade and tourism trekking (Turner, 2012, p. 408).

Some ethnic minorities groups show their resistance in daily lives and selective presentation of culture in response to modernity. Over time, highlanders have realized that powerful neighbors were leaving them with few options: keep a safe distance or be absorbed or eliminated. Michaud (2012) shows how Hmong people in Lào Cai province are resistant
and tactically selective about how they respond to modernity. Hmong people could be considered as a kinship based and egalitarian society; but they represent themselves in the society neither as resisting nor as the submissive victims of domination. With several changes in the modernization process, Hmong adopt these changes with a range of reactions from acceptance, reluctance, compliance, to diverse forms of everyday resistance. Moreover, they also make changes to make their lives easier, for instance, trying new farming techniques, reaching friends by cell phones, pursuing tertiary education. But some of them have tried to keep the customary and time-consuming production of their clothes which is extremely labor-intensive and includes planting hemp and indigo; transforming the fibre; weaving it; dyeing it; pressing wax into it for a nice shine; stitching the pieces together and embroidering them by hand. Therefore, the example of the Hmong people in Lào Cai province shows that they respond to the official policy of “selective cultural preservation” with their own strategy of selective acceptance of modernity (Michaud, 2009, p. 32). However, Cuong (2020) argues that development of ventures of community-based tourism results in cultural assimilation by alienation.

There are some problems for ethnic minorities to adapt to the modernization of society in comparison to their Kinh counterparts. For example, the difficulty of access to remote areas that has allowed these ethnic minority groups to retain their individual cultures for so long, has also isolated them from education, healthcare, and economic prosperity (Cloutman, 2016). Furthermore, government policy may be well-meaning to ethnic minority people, but is poorly implemented when it comes to reality. For instance, in some cases livestock and seeds distributed to poor mountaintop farms were unsuitable for the geographical conditions; in other cases, schoolbooks provided were in Vietnamese rather than the local dialects.

4.11. Chapter summary

This chapter described the history of tourism development, structure of tourism sector, and tourism planning in Vietnam in general. It also discussed the characteristics and livelihood of ethnic minorities in Vietnam, an overview of tourism development in Sapa. This chapter elaborated the political and socio-economic context of the study by discussing state modernization and ethnic minorities; the development gap between Kinh and Ethnic minorities. The next chapter will provide the results of qualitative data analysis.
5.1. Introduction

The previous chapter presented an overview of tourism development in the study site area of Sapa. This chapter presents the results from the semi-structured interviews of key tourism stakeholders in Sapa regarding their perspectives on the impacts of tourism development, Kinh and Ethnic minority tourism stakeholders’ perspectives on these tourism impacts (Research Question 1), and current forms of stakeholder participation. It then analyses aspects motivating and hindering stakeholder participation in tourism planning (Research Question 2 and 3), and the extent of current collaboration among tourism stakeholders (Research Question 4).

5.2. Tourism Stakeholders’ Perspectives on the Impacts of Tourism Development

This study aims to investigate and compare the perspectives of Kinh and Ethnic minority groups regarding the impacts of tourism in order to answer the following research question: 1). What are the similarities and differences in the perceptions of Kinh and Ethnic minority groups regarding tourism impacts?

The main impacts of tourism which comprise economic, socio-cultural and environmental aspects have been intensively explored in the tourism literature as discussed in Chapter 2. During the interview, tourism stakeholders in Sapa were asked to explicate their perceptions following these impacts (Interview Guide, Chapter 3). The direct approach of qualitative content analysis was applied to the transcribed quotations from responses with pre-determined codes (as described in Chapter 3).

5.2.1. The benefits of tourism development

This section compares the perceptions of Kinh and Ethnic minority tourism stakeholders regarding economic and environmental impacts.

Economic

The results show that Sapa tourism stakeholders valued the positive economic impacts of tourism, and both Kinh and Ethnic minority groups indicate that tourism has significantly contributed to local economic development and more employment for residents in Sapa.

Tourism provides more jobs for local residents, contributes to local economic development, increases the income for Sapa people and attracts more investments to Sapa, (Government Official 1, Kinh).
Tourism contributes to local residents as well as local authorities to have more income from tourism activities such as providing services and selling products to tourists, in some villages there is homestay service for instance (Tour Operator 2, Kinh).

Ethnic minorities in particular believed that tourism brings personal economic benefits for themselves and their family members.
Tourism helps my son to have a job and increases our income, (Local resident 8, Hmong). I and my family members had more jobs when tourism came to my village, I can sell traditional herbs, embroidery, food and beverage so I can earn more money than doing farming job. (Local resident 6, Hmong).

Environmental

Tourism was perceived by tourism stakeholders to raise their environmental awareness and stimulate protection regulations for the environment and landscapes in Sapa. During the field trip, I visited the Fansifan Mountain by Cable Car, on the peak of the mountain, we can see the spectacular landscapes of Sapa. When tourists as well as local residents have a chance to view the beauty of Sapa from the peak, they might appreciate the natural landscapes of Sapa and become aware of the need to protect this beauty.

I am proud of Sapa landscapes with pristine scenery, rice terraces, waterfalls and Fansífan mountain; therefore, we have to protect these beauties of Sapa. (Local resident 3, Dao).

Government official 3 (Kinh) indicated that since tourism became more developed more regulations were put in place to protect the environment. This point was supported by an ethnic minority village head, "Tourism development helps to protect the environment and landscapes, and in my village, we are not allowed to build a high house" (Head of Village 3, Dao).

Social and cultural benefits

This section presents the perspectives of both groups in relation to the social and cultural impacts of tourism. On the whole Kinh and Ethnic minority tourism stakeholder groups share common views on social and cultural contributions of tourism. However, there are some differences in perceptions between these groups regarding the negative impacts of tourism.

Social

The Kinh group of respondents, and particularly office holders, asserted that tourism helps to improve the infrastructure and brings social benefits for local residents such as upgrading road conditions, electricity and water systems.

Tourism helps improve infrastructure and facilities like electricity, water, hospital, schools for local residents, (Government Official 3, Kinh).

The road in the villages have been significantly upgraded compared to the situation before; with asphalted and cement roads tourists could easily access Tà Van and Tà Phìn villages from Sapa Town, (Government Official 2, Kinh).

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14 The Sapa urban regulation was announced by Lao Cai Provincial People's Committee under Decision No. 498 /QD-UBND dated September 8, 2004. This Regulation includes six guiding rules for preventing spontaneous construction of houses, hotels, and architectural constructions, with special restrictions on construction density, height and building materials, to protect the typical landscape, environment and culture of Sapa (Hong, 2011).
Ethnic minorities believed that tourism directly contributes to their life experience which helps them expand their knowledge and understanding of tourism, a point made by the government official from the Dao ethnic minority.

A few years ago, I totally did not understand foreign languages, but now I could understand a little bit what foreign tourists want, I could also speak some simple words to ask them to buy my embroidery. (Retailer 1, Hmong).

**Cultural**

Both stakeholder groups comment that tourism benefits cultural exchange and diversify cultures for Sapa, since many foreign tourists has come to Sapa. It also helps people become more awareness and contributes to the preservation of the local cultures which is a major attraction for tourists. Academic 3 (Kinh) indicated that tourism promotes cultural exchange and brings more diversified cultures to Sapa. Government official 6 (Kinh) supported this saying, “We are trying to preserve and restore the ethnic minority cultures to attract more tourists.” The positive cultural impacts of tourism were also supported by Ethnic minorities, for instance, Academic 2 (Tay) found that tourism in Sapa helps to advertise the cultures and landscapes of the region to foreign countries. In addition, Head of Village 2 (Giáy) added that tourism may help Ethnic minority cultures become more developed, because villagers are encouraged to protect and preserve Hmong culture.

**5.2.2. The costs tourism development**

**Economic**

Many Kinh stakeholders stated that tourism results in increasing living costs in Sapa. Government official 3 (Kinh) indicated that Tourism has both positive and negative economic impacts "such as contributing to resident’s incomes; however, it causes commodity, housing and land prices to increase significantly". This same view was expressed by Academic 1 (Kinh), "To buy 1 bottle of purified water costs 5000 VND, but if you buy it in Sapa, it costs 10.000 VND".

Ethnic minority stakeholders reveal their concerns that economic benefits from tourism do not accrue equally to residents in Sapa; Local resident 9 (Tiếng) spoke to a common concern among Ethnic minorities regarding inequitable benefits they received:

There are mutual economic benefits between government officials and businesses, not equally distributed to local residents. Moreover, this point maintained by Government official 4 (Dao), Tourism brings economic benefits to residents but not native residents here.

**Environmental**

Both groups recognize the adverse effects of tourism on the environment contributing to climate change, noise, and air pollution.
Climate change will be affected because many hotels and restaurants have been built, (Local resident 1, Kinh).
Disappearing natural landscapes, air pollution, noise because of tourism. (Local resident 6, Hmong).
There are so many garbage and plastic bags on the streets and in front of hotels, restaurants here, therefore, sustainable development cannot be achieved (Restaurant Owner 1, Kinh).

The destruction of the natural environment was an issue which was identified by all respondents in this study. As mentioned in Chapter 4, the number of tourists arriving in Sapa has increased at an exponential rate. Thus, to accommodate those tourists, in 2019, there are 571 service providers with a total of 6786 rooms, 13,642 bedrooms, 275 restaurants and 64 restaurants inside hotels in Sapa (Linh, 2019). This has led to rapid urbanization in Sapa. This rapid growth has come at a cost. Sapa town now seems stuck in a never-ending construction boom, where dust fills up all the town, and modern man-made structures change its pristine natural landscape.

Sapa is now like a construction center, destroying the natural mountain to give way for buildings, hotels and restaurants, the roads are under construction everywhere, Sapa Town now is very dusty. (Local resident 6, Hmong).

Environmental pollution impacts on the scenic beauty, reduces the quality of life for local people and limits their ability to welcome tourists. Therefore, Sapa tourism now faces the dilemma of tourism over-development, a phenomenon in which the number of visitors in a place deteriorates the local quality of life as well as the tourist experience.

Many tourism stakeholders in this study indicated that a significant issue for tourism expansion was its potential destruction of the surrounding forest. Sapa is close to Hoang Lien National Park (protected area), thus, the expansion and development of tourism could impact on the habitat and biodiversity resources of this protected area. Government official 3 (Kinh) noted that many forest lands have been converted to urban land for building purposes. Another government official added: "Part of the mountain ranges in Sapa were destroyed to build the cable car, many trees were cut down, so there are no more places for animals." (Government Official 5, Tây).

Waste management was cited by a significant number of stakeholders as a key issue hindering sustainable tourism development in Sapa. Currently, Sapa does not have an adequate waste management system.

A lot of garbage, plastic bags are on the street, moreover, there are huge amounts of garbage from restaurants and hotels. Here we do not have a proper area to process the garbage. (Government official 4, Dao).
I and my family members daily suffered from the bad smell of the garbage gathered in the town center, because, it stays there long before being taken to another place. Thus, there is no waste collection system or waste processing. (Local resident 2, Tay).

Social

Tourism has implications for agricultural production and for the education of Ethnic minority children. Due to tourism, many ethnic minority people have changed their livelihood practices to adapt to the diverse sources of income arising from economic liberalization. Many of them now participate in trekking, selling handicrafts, reducing agricultural production. As noted by Academic 4 (Kinh), "You see along the street, there are so many Ethnic minority people selling their wares to tourists, there is no time for farming."

Due to tourism, many children go with their parents begging for money from tourists. Some ethnic minority children stop their education at a young age to earn money selling handicrafts or as guides. Truong (2014) and Le (2014) note that many young children do not have formal schooling because parents force them to work.

Tourism is part of the reasons that many ethnic minority children stop studying and go to earn money at very young ages, so many young ethnic minorities asked me to work in my hotel. (Hotel owner 3, Kinh).

Many times, I had to come to their house to ask their parents to persuade and encourage their children going to school. (Head of Village 2, Giay).

Tourists are followed by many children who try to sell souvenirs to them; they talk, and many times try to persuade tourists to buy. If tourists do not buy something, the children may swear at them, making them very uncomfortable and creating a bad image of Sapa. (Hotel Owner 3, Kinh).

The researcher experienced this insistent behaviour from child vendors, causing considerable discomfort, and eventually paying 40,000VND to each of four children since if I bought from only one, others would continue to follow me.

Ethnic minority groups revealed that there are social impacts from tourism on their livelihoods such as its effect on land management issues including the price of land and contend that tourism plans are formulated and implemented by the dominant Kinh group involving little consultation with local residents. Thus, conflicts arise because there is no agreement between local residents and government officials in terms of land acquisition and compensation, reflecting a conflict of interests, values and goals among stakeholders in Sapa. For instance, when a hydro-power facility was built, ethnic minority resident 9 (Tày) stated that, when land was resumed for building a hydro-power plant in his village, inadequate compensation from the state resulted in conflict.
Differences also arise among the Ethnic minorities themselves because of differential impacts of rapidly changing land values:

Many agriculture lands were converted to build homestays, restaurants, hotels and shops, and land price in Sapa increased dramatically over the years, I think I cannot afford to buy the land here, therefore I have to rent a little space for my business, (Retailer 1, Hmong).

On the other hand, many villagers preferred to keep their land for rice terraces and believe that land is sacred and should be passed on to the next generation. Consequently, many did not want to convert their land to become a hydro-power station or for other purposes. This issue often occurred in upland northern Vietnam when state has a policy for modernizing a region as rapidly as possible resulted in substantive challenges and changes to the livelihoods of Ethnic minorities (Turner & Pham, 2015). The conflict of interests, values and goals disrupted relations between stakeholders in Sapa.

Cultural
Tourism stakeholders in Sapa recognize the negative cultural impacts of tourism, most evident in the changing appearance, lifestyles, and cultures of the Ethnic minorities. Many stakeholders mentioned the disappearance of the traditional “Love Market” as an example of losing elements of the traditional cultures of ethnic minorities in Sapa.

In my opinion, before, Sapa looked wild; the population density was not as dense as it is now; the landscape was not built or broken up as it is now; cultural life is almost no longer, such as the Love Market. Traditional cultures are gradually being lost. Instead, the process of commercialization, massive construction, excessive urbanization, hotels, motels grow like mushrooms. Those are the consequences for Sapa due to the rapid urbanization, (Government Official 5, Tây).

Before many tour companies used the “Love Market” to advertise Sapa. Now since many tourists come, local residents sell all their agricultural products in there so the traditional “Love market\(^{15}\) has changed dramatically, (Restaurant owner 1, Kinh).

The gradual loss of the traditional cultures of ethnic minorities was elaborated by a personal conversation during my field trip with a Kinh hotel owner who had lived in Sapa for more than 40 years and served as the Union Hotel manager. He commented:

The love market in the past was mainly for ethnic minorities such as the Dao and Hmong to find their partners. For instance, the Hmong men performed music by bamboo flutes and banana leaf for Hmong young women who wear colorful dresses. If the match worked out, they would get married. But now if the ethnic minorities come to the Love Market to find partners, they would find tourists from everywhere, including foreign tourists. Even Hmong may get married to foreigners. That is why their children have blue eyes. Moreover, now many ethnic minorities are to be found performing music to make money from tourists in the Love market. (Hotel Manager, Kinh).

\(^{15}\) Love market mentioned in Chapter 4
Regarding the appearance, ethnic minorities wear the modern dress rather than traditional
dresses, and even change their hair style. Village Head 3 (Dao) noted that in the past, many
Hmong people wore their colourful traditional clothing, made from indigo-dyed hemp fabric
and embroidered with different colour threads such as red, green, and yellow, but now many
of them wear casual t-shirts, especially young people. Local resident 1 (Kinh) remarked that
you can see many Hmong teenagers change their hair color to be fashionable.

Tourism is believed to have caused some ethnic minority traditional festivals to be modified
to meet with the need of tourists. As indicated by local resident 8 (Hmong):

These days, we have a traditional cultural performance team in our village, but this is run as
a private business. We present the Giay traditional performance to the tourists. But
sometimes, we have to modify them to meet the request of tourists. We also have to sing or
dance with English songs or foreign music. (Local resident 4, Giáy).

Some cultural festivals differ from the past for example the Spring festival of Hmong people
during New Year now attract many foreign tourists. With different cultures coming to enjoy
these, the customs and appearance of Hmong people have also changed compared to before,
(Local resident 8, Hmong).

Another issue for tourism development is commercialization. Tourism leads to changes in
many aspects of ethnic minority life. In the past, the livelihoods of Hmong people in Sapa
mainly depended on farming. However, tourism reorients and restructures the local
economy. Ethnic minorities have more alternatives for their income. For instance, with the
tourist demand to buy traditional weaving, many people buy the clothes from China to sell
to tourists, so the authentic traditions of elaborate cloth-making, and embroidery is gradually
lost in the need for short-term income. Thus, the mass-tourism industry has resulted in some
ethnic minorities abandoning their traditional customs and clothing.

Many souvenirs here are imported from China and other places. It is very hard for tourists
to recognize the real and traditional handicrafts made locally by Giay’s ethnic people. (Local
resident 4, Giáy).

Since tourism in Sapa largely depends on the cultures of ethnic minority people, in order to
achieve sustainable tourism development, the priority of cultural preservation needs to be
considered. Ideally, sustainable tourism incorporates a balance between the economic,
environmental, social and cultural elements of peoples’ lives. The ethnic groups’ responses
summarized above are strongly reflective of the need for balance and greater involvement in
planning and decision-making.

5.3. Unequal Distribution of Economic Benefits from Tourism

This section reveals the perspectives of Sapa tourism stakeholders concerning the
distribution of economic benefits of tourism. Both Kinh and Ethnic minority stakeholders
were asked who gain the most economic benefits from tourism development in Sapa. Most Kinh government officials reflected that local residents in Sapa got most economic benefits from tourism. Kinh Government Official 1 and 3 indicated that, firstly, local residents get the most economic benefits, secondly, tourism businesses in Sapa, lastly, local authorities benefit from taxes and fees. However, ethnic minority stakeholders in management roles at commune-level believed that such benefits accrued to big corporates, hotels, restaurants, and that local residents got only a little benefit from tourism development. This finding is consistent with Truong (2014) who argues that the main economic benefits has accrued to the private sector such as hotels and tour operators; and although tourism has generated a small amount of income for a number of local residents, it has failed to lift them out of poverty.

All tourism stakeholders should equally get economic benefits from tourism, and local resident should get the most benefits from tourism if we are successful in implementing tourism properly. However, local residents actually get not much benefit from tourism, mostly these belong to tourism businesses. (Government official 5, Tay).

Service providers, hotels, hostels, restaurants got most economic benefits from tourism, (Head of Village 1, Tay).

Homestay households, hotels, enterprises that sell handicrafts in Sapa got the most economic benefits from tourism, (Head of Village 2, Giay).

Large restaurants, hotels got most economic benefits, local residents also benefit but a little, (Head of Village 3, Dao).

At community level, minority group local residents similarly indicated that such economic benefits accrued to large outside investors;

Big corporate businesses such as Sun Group get most of the economic benefits because they invested their money in Sapa. (Local resident 8, Hmong).

I sell handicrafts, souvenirs and vegetables to tourists when I have free time, to get some money for my family; but I still must do farming, and money here mostly goes to outside investors, (Local resident 4, Giáy).

This was also evident from conversations between the researcher and a local staff member who works for Cable Station. She came from another province to Sapa after university graduation to work at the Cable Car company with a monthly salary of about five million VND roughly 300AUD. Clearly not all economic opportunities created from tourism are available to indigenous ethnic minorities in Sapa.

The results above indicated that there are significantly different perceptions between Kinh and Ethnic minority groups in terms of distribution of economic benefits from tourism. At on-site management level, there are opposing views between high (Kinh) and low (Ethnic
minority) socio-economic groups about the economic benefits distribution. The distribution gap of economic benefits from tourism development is likely to discourage local residents’ support for additional tourism development. Consequently, attention must be given to lessening the unequal distribution of tourism benefits by enhancing local participation.

5.4. Support for Tourism Development

This section presents the perspectives of both Kinh and Ethnic minority stakeholders regarding their support for tourism development in Sapa. In general, both groups support tourism development in Sapa, since many of them are dependent on tourism income. The results of interviews reveal that Sapa stakeholders are more willing to accept the costs of tourism in their lives and community as long as it offers opportunities for them to escape a life of hardship and poverty. Although the two groups evaluated the benefits and costs of tourism a bit differently, they shared a view that tourism is good for Sapa in general.

Without tourists here, many businesses will shut down, this effects to many people and local economy, so we have to facilitate having more tourists in Sapa. (Government official 3, Kinh).

… Although many things changed because of tourism, for example minority cultures and lifestyles, many children asking money from tourists, this is bad image for Sapa. But let’s say when we don’t have tourists, many people don’t have their jobs and income; people have to go back to the farm. Thus, I support tourism development, but I hope the government will have some control to make tourism sustainable. (Government official 6, Kinh).

My village tried to make the best homestay for visitors and make them satisfied so that they will come back here. (Head of Village 3, Dao).

The data patterns reveal that Ethnic minorities depend on tourism development in specific ways and that their livelihood typically tends to be attached to tourism. Statements below reveal that ethnic minorities support tourism development not only for economic but also socio-cultural benefits.

I hope to have more tourists come to my village, so I can sell more rice, vegetables and handicrafts. (Local resident 5, Hmong)

…I have a piece of my land for renting, if here having no tourists, I will not have money from tenant… (Local resident 7, Hmong).

When having more tourists here, my children can get some more money from them; they also can learn more English from foreigners. (Local resident 2, Tây).

I have to protect and preserve my traditional house, since I want to have more visitors, and they can see our cultures. (Local resident 6, Hmong).

Kinh stakeholders also depend on tourism numbers as indicated by the comments of Hotel owner 2 and Restaurant owner 1 respectively:
My hotel depends on the number of tourists here, so I want government to have policies to attract more tourists in my area.

Despite there are many restaurants in Sapa now, sometimes there are very competitive. But the more tourists come here, the more I can sell. I prefer to have more tourists coming to Sapa.

To sum up, Kinh and Ethnic minority stakeholders reveal that what they perceive as tourism benefits greatly outweigh what they perceive as costs. Thus, both groups strongly support tourism development in their communities. However, Kinh people support tourism primarily out of an economic orientation whereas Ethnic minorities advocate for tourism not only for economic purposes but also for socio-cultural benefits. The contextual explanation is that Kinh moved to Sapa mainly for their businesses, and thus their support for tourism is primarily focused on economic benefits.

5.5. Different Perspectives between two groups regarding Tourism Development

5.5.1. Perceived as General Impacts of Tourism

The responses of Kinh and Ethnic minorities show some differences in their perceptions of tourism impacts. The Kinh perceive the effects of tourism in generic ways, whilst ethnic populations responded very personally. For example, Government Official 1 (Kinh) stated that “Tourism brings more economic benefits to local residents in Sapa.” Local resident 1 (Kinh) expands,

Environment, economic and social sectors need to be balanced in long-term development. Many things need to be done for sustainable tourism such as ensuring a clean environment, preserving Sapa traditional cultures. Because many tourists come here so we have a mixed culture now.

Kinh tourism stakeholders are more concerned about the macro and general level of impacts, including long-term critical social and environmental issues. As government official 2 (Kinh) commented, “We need macro and quality projects and need experts to work and collaborate with local residents to get sustainable tourism development.” A Kinh Hotel owner was similarly concerned: “Tourism development needs harmony among local residents, no negative effects to the environment and ecological system, but many infrastructure projects here destroy the environmental system.”

5.5.2. Perceived as Specific Impacts of Tourism

The perceptions of local ethnic minority people are more specific to the impacts of tourism since their livelihoods and lifestyles are most directly affected by tourism. The comment of one village head was a clear example:

We need clear programs and detailed activities or policy to protect people, environment, the societies and cultures of ethnic minorities to develop tourism sustainably, because tourism has impacted directly to livelihoods and lifestyles of people in Sapa for instance;
environmental damages, ethnic minorities can easily earn small money than before, and ethnic minorities has changed the daily time for farming, trekking and embroidering, they also converted many the traditional houses to homestay or hotels. (Head of Village 3, Dao).

Most other ethnic minority interviewees responded in terms of their household and family concerns:

- Tourism helps not only Ethnic minority residents here but also my family have more income to buy goods. (Head of Village 2, Giay)
- Tourism which helps my son to have a job and increase our income. (Local resident 8, Hmong)
- I and my family members daily suffered from the bad smell of the garbage gathered in the town center…. there is no waste collection system or waste processing. (Local resident 2, Tay).

Ethnic minority stakeholders also focus on how to engage more indigenous residents in tourism activities in Sapa. They argue that minority residents could serve tourists better in Sapa because they have more cultural understanding than outsiders, and deserve to be engaged more in tourism activities; outsiders come here only for economic purposes:

- However, Ethnic minorities also need more training and education; Therefore, …..for long-term development there is a need to invest more in human resources especially for ethnic minorities to attract more tourists because Ethnic minority people in Sapa are the main tourism products in Sapa. (NGO, Hmong).

5.6. Barriers to sustainable tourism development

5.6.1. Lack of strict regulations

Sapa tourism stakeholders were asked to express their perspectives on the barriers to tourism development in Sapa. The results indicated that the lack of strict regulations for tourism development in Sapa was a significant issue. Academic 1 (Kinh) commented, “There is a need for government regulations and policy to restrict mass building of hotels and restaurants in Sapa and the need of policy for all other industry sectors to work together.” Local resident 9 (Tay) concurred, “We need to have strict regulations to preserve the environment and natural landscape for Sapa in long-term development.”

5.6.2. Lack of funding and experts

Sapa stakeholders contend that there is a need for funding and expertise to achieve sustainable tourism. As noted by Government official 2 (Kinh), “We need macro-planning and quality projects and need experts to work and collaborate with local residents to get sustainable tourism development. Stakeholders reflected that local authorities lacked funding to support community development and proper infrastructure in Sapa. Village Head
2 (Giay) pointed in particular to the need for more funding to build public infrastructures such as hospitals, parks and entertainment facilities.

5.7. Forms of participation in tourism planning among tourism stakeholders

The second research question of this study aims to explore the existing form of tourism stakeholder’s participation in tourism planning. The perspectives of Kinh and Ethnic minority groups are compared regarding their level of engagement and influence in planning. To fulfil this objective, qualitative content analysis is applied to the text to identify the categories and content-characteristic words. The results of data analysis show a strong emphasis and level of concern with the top-down approach to participation in tourism planning.

Tourism stakeholders were asked about their participation in tourism planning in Sapa. All ethnic local residents reveal that they have never participated directly in tourism planning.

I never take part in any tourism plans, and I do not have my voice in tourism planning, I even do not know about tourism plan until it is implemented in my commune. (Local Resident 7, Hmong).

Both Kinh and Ethnic minority tourism stakeholders in the private sector indicated limited participation in tourism planning. Most of them stated that tourism planning in Sapa belongs to local authorities and large corporations such as the Sun Group.

Many tourism projects have been carried out in Sapa, I do not have any chance to have a voice. for instance, when the cable car in Sapa was developed, I was not asked to comment by any local authorities. (Tour Operator 1, Kinh)

I have never participated in any tourism planning in Sapa, I think that government approves most of the plans, furthermore, it is mostly big investors to Sapa that work with government; there is no chance for me to participate in tourism planning, (Restaurant Owner 1, Kinh)

When I moved to Sapa and built this hotel over more than 5 years, but only a few times, was I asked to participate in meetings to consult about land planning in my area. And even though I did not agree to the land project proposal, in the end, the plan was implemented, I think that local authorities had asked me only for token reasons, because this is a top-down approach, I have to follow the plan which is already made. (Hotel Owner 1, Kinh).

Because of one-party rule political structure and power imbalance, farmers and local residents were not informed, consulted and effectively excluded from the tourism planning and decision-making (Nguyen, 2014; Truong, 2014). Thus, it was the political inequality that enabled the elites to abuse their power and violate the democratic rights of the villagers, who remain poor in the midst of the major economic transformation taking place. Nguyen (2014) illustrated this inequality with a clear example of a case in Thai Binh province in 1997 where villagers experienced the application of heavier commune fees than were applied
at the district and provincial level. After paying these fees, the farmers were not informed of how money was spent on the purported public infrastructure construction. It is more or less the same in Sapa, when I and my supervisor traveled from Sapa town to Ta Van village, we had to pay an entrance fee to enter the village (150,000 VND for 2 people equal 10 AUD at the rate 20 May 2020). Later, we asked residents and a restaurant owner in the village if they knew where that money was spent, all of them replied they had no knowledge. The restaurant owner also complained that because of those fees, many tourists did not want to visit the village, so she lost customers coming to the restaurant. This finding supports the work of Le (2015, 81) who indicated that the fee system applied to tourists at the entrance of each community-based tourism site is not transparent in relation to the disbursement of the money obtained.

Representatives from the three villages who serve as government officials at commune-level were interviewed about the degree and form of participation in tourism planning among tourism stakeholders. They indicated that when they receive official documents from higher positions, they just followed and implemented these documents. They were aware of tourism plans, but during the planning process they did not have input into it. In Vietnam, although public participation is prescribed as a human right in grassroots democracy and has been formalized as a protocol - a necessary but not sufficient condition – it is rarely implemented in practice and is even abused to legalize pre-made decisions by government officials.

Moreover, the implementation of grassroots democracy depends on the will of local authorities, and became cosmetic (that is, democratic in words, but not in action) rather than substantive (Nguyen, 2014, p 89). Nguyen (2014) argues that although a transition from authoritarianism to democratization is proposed in Vietnam, local level democracy is very limited because power remains concentrated in the hands of elites (government officials).

This is top-down management so that local residents were not asked about tourism plans for Sapa. Local residents have very limited participation in tourism planning. (Head of Village 3, Dao)

The top-down plan follows the direction from ministry (MCST), or from tourism department at provincial level. … the plan is most initiated from the top-down; in that case we have opinions, but we cannot change anything. (Head of Village 2, Giáy).

When interviewing government officials at district and provincial level, questions focused on how they involved local residents in the tourism planning process. They claimed that local residents were provided with opportunities to be included in all steps of planning. For instance, Government Official 1 (Kinh), who was at the Director level, responded:
Citizens participate from the beginning to the end of planning process, for instance, when we build a community house, we always ask local residents about their opinions.

And when further asked how they engaged the locals in the planning process, the official responded:

There are many forms of feedback from public such as meetings, consultations even online publicity on the internet, and local residents were asked to take part in meetings or to complete surveys about tourism planning in the area.

This point further supports by Government Official 2 (Kinh)

Regarding the tourism development plan, except for the town area, all communes have meetings to ask local people’s opinions in advance from businesspeople to local people who serve community tourism. Based on their comments, difficulties and problems, we issue a development plan, we are not self-initiating the tourism plan. (Government Official 2, Kinh).

Nonetheless, government officials felt that it is hard to involve all local residents in tourism planning activities because many lack understanding about tourism planning. According to Government Official 5 (Tay) “Because of knowledge limitations, local residents look at tourism plans, but they do not understand about such plans.”

Based on interview results with local residents, there were limitations in terms of knowledge of tourism impacts, so it is the case that many locals had a poor understanding of tourism planning issues. Truong (2014, p 179) also suggests that insufficient business knowledge is a factor that prevents local residents from getting involved in tourism.

Although, as mentioned by those government officials at provincial level who indicated that local authorities have attempted to engage citizens widely in tourism planning by providing many forms of participation such as meetings, consultations, online comments etc…actual participation of local residents is very limited due to educational constraints, but also by top-down approaches to planning from the centre, giving citizens little scope to change anything.

The finding is also consistent with the literature of citizen participation in the Vietnamese context mentioned in section Chapter 2, which indicated that public meetings are organized at the province and lower levels, but citizen participation is often tokenistic or nominal with few chances to affect or monitor policies. The state controls all individuals and organization activities in the name of public security, and citizens could participate within the limited boundary of the legal frameworks.

Both Kinh and Ethnic minority tourism stakeholders at the local level indicated limited participation in tourism planning. The private sector and lower level government positions also have a very limited role in tourism planning. Only high-level officials in government,
positions mainly held by Kinh people, understand and participate in tourism planning. There are contradictory perspectives between high level management and lower levels in terms of local participation in tourism planning in Sapa. Therefore, the differences regarding participation in tourism planning is not only one of ethnicity but also of political and economic positions. Such differences between groups would be further elaborated at the survey stage by comparisons among three groups - government officials, tourism businesses, and local residents - regarding their perspectives on participation in tourism planning.

5.8. Aspects influencing tourism stakeholders’ participation in tourism planning in Sapa

The third research question of this study aims to determine what aspects motivate or hinder tourism stakeholders’ participation in tourism planning. The qualitative content analysis results primarily reflected factors of government policy; economic benefits; social and cultural benefits; social, cultural and environmental costs for local residents as discussed below.

5.8.1. Government policy

Many stakeholders indicated that if the government had a workable policy for participation, they would be more likely to engage in tourism planning, presenting a circular situation where policies would support citizen engagement and citizen engagement would assist in policy development. The statements below show that there is not adequate compensation or trade-off in government policy which could bring more equal benefits to all stakeholders, and reluctance to engage in the absence of appropriate policy initiatives:

There is nothing perfect, when we make a policy, which has negative effects on one group, and cannot give equal benefits for all stakeholders. For instance, when we build a public park for the community, we have to collect the land from residents, but some local residents protest, it is really hard for government officials to harmonize all stakeholders. (Government Official 1, Kinh).

Policy is very important to encourage people to participate in tourism planning, if government policy is very suitable for the locality, I would participate in tourism planning and development, (Head of Village 2, Giáy).

If government has good regulations or policies for business, all of tourism businesspeople would collaborate to expand their business, (Tour Operator 1, Kinh).

Issues where government policy hinders participation were noted by a variety of respondents, as detailed below:

If government policy is not appropriate for myself, other tourism stakeholders and the locality, I would not participate in tourism development, (Government Official 6, Kinh).
Andriotis (2007) indicated that in developing countries many plans have been designed at national and regional level, but many of them are not well-implemented due to lack of a clear structure of authority or the vested interests of political elites and bureaucratic actors. As mentioned in chapter 2, the plan to expand tourism in Tanzania often provides opportunities for corrupt rent-seeking by politicians or bureaucrats who stand to benefit privately from issuing permits or facilitating tourism developments (Nelson, 2012; See also Warren and Wardana 2018). It is similar in the Vietnamese context, if government policy serves only Kinh elites or government officials, it is difficult to get local residents’ support and their participation in tourism development planning, as illustrated in the following comments.

If tourism plans are only for a specific group of people such as elites, it is also hard to get support and participation of other tourism stakeholders such as hotel managers, restaurants, local residents also support this idea. (Local resident 8, Hmong).

Another issue that could hinder stakeholder participation in tourism planning is that there is misperception among local stakeholders that government policy or tourism plans or the implementation of these policies is not well-conducted by government officials. As noted in Chapter 4, the Vietnamese government have many policies and programs that give priorities to Ethnic minorities; However, if the implementation of these policies is not compatible with ethnic minorities cultures, these policies could be interpreted to be aimed at eliminating cultural practices which are inconsistent with dominant Kinh ideology. Therefore, the differences in culture and ideology between Kinh and Ethnic minorities could also hinder the participation and implementation of tourism projects in Sapa.

Some government policies have priority for ethnic minority people, but if it is not understood by locals, it is really hard to get support to deploy these polices (Head of Village 1, Tây).

5.8.2. Economic benefits for tourism stakeholders

Most of the interviewees revealed that economic benefits are key factors affecting participation in the tourism planning processes. However, the economic distribution of benefits was noted as being inequitable, with most benefits accruing to large, outside investors and limited benefits arising for the local community. In terms of tourism planning this means that those investors from outside of the region are more likely to participate and collaborate than those in this local community:

In Sapa now, there is a connection between corporate and local authorities, because they share mutual economic benefits, local residents only get minor economic benefits by selling their agricultural products or doing small business. (Local resident 9, Tây).

The above quotation reveals that there is a strong connection between government officials and big corporates in Sapa who share mutual economic advantage from these projects. Local
residents receive some economic benefits only from their own business or agricultural production.

In Sapa now, there is no linkage among stakeholders, if you are strong, you can do. For instance, when building Hà Nội-Lào Cai expressway, carried out by a large corporate which acquired exclusive rights to all of the land in good locations. In my opinion, there is top-down guidance from government, but there is no connection or collaboration between us. (Hotel Owner 1, Kinh).

Most of the projects implemented by big groups were reportedly connected with government.

The most important is still the economic benefit. Beside that residents could get environmental benefits, some playgrounds, social welfare. Of course there will be positives and negatives from tourism development. But economic benefits must be first. When local residents have the economic benefits, they will be interested in social and cultural benefits. Therefore, economic benefit is still the most important. (Government Official 5, Tây).

Financial benefits are number 1. So, first of all, must be the economic factor. When Sapa develops, many tourists come and of course, all businesses get such benefits. Every business household has its own business plan. But if I could participate in any programs that bring development to Sapa, it would be very good. I hope that it will help me learn more about Sapa tourism development plans. Currently, I know almost nothing about those plans. I just know about my sales, not what each stage of development would be like. If the development plan is clearly understood, there would be a more welcoming response. (Restaurant Owner 1, Kinh).

5.8.3. Social and cultural benefits for local residents

When interviewing tourism stakeholders, many of them indicated that not only economic benefits but also social and cultural benefits for local residents facilitate stakeholder participation in the tourism planning process. As Reed (1997) found, people who are actively involved in community decision making and policy formulation tend to be “local business people whose fortunes are tied to growth and the vitality of the community” (Reed, 1997, p. 371). This notion was supported by the head of Village 2 (Giay) who indicated that whilst benefits would facilitate his engagement, very few were received by residents such as himself. He stated that:

I will participate in the tourism planning process if I see that my participation brings benefits socially and economically for my local residents. I know that in my area, there is only a connection between large enterprises and government officials, so the enterprises come to do business and get benefits, but when the businesses and benefits are gone, there are only the residents left.

Sapa stakeholders also added that, tourism plans that help to improve road conditions, create more jobs, services and tourism products for local people and preserve the local cultures could facilitate their participation. For instance, Tour operator 1 considers economic benefits
as an important factor, but she also emphasizes that protecting the local cultures and maintaining cultural identity are very crucial.

Whatever you do is for economic goals, because based on the obtained economic benefits we must protect the environment, people's lives, maintain cultural identity and customs for local people in Sapa. Not in order to develop Sapa to become so modern while losing tradition, it must preserve the local culture of Sapa. (Tour Operator 1, Kinh).

At my commune management level, if I see tourism plans which have benefits for local residents, such as homestay projects, road building …etc. I would participate and implement the plans. (Head of Village 3, Dao).

In my opinion, the factor that makes me participate in tourism planning and development is helping local people in my village to improve their economic life, living conditions as well as creating jobs for people, creating more tourism products and delivering these products to consumers’ hands for economic enhancement. (Local resident 1, (Kinh).

5.8.4. Socio-cultural and environmental costs

Tourism stakeholders revealed that tourism plans could bring socio-cultural and environmental costs to communities that could hinder their support for tourism development. They pointed out some negative impacts which occurred in Sapa such as the commercialization of traditional ethnic culture associated with the demonstration effect of tourism, where locals follow the fashions of tourists and younger generations are changing in a negative way, such as not going to school. Therefore, they would be less inclined to support further plans of tourism development.

Being a government official, I am not participating in any tourism activities or festivals that bring harm to local cultures. (Government official 2, (Kinh).

I do not support opening some bars in my village because it is very noisy and erodes ethnic people’s lifestyles” (Head of Village 1, Tay).

In terms of the costs of tourism development, government official 4 (Dao) noted a concern for negative environmental impacts and commented that:

If tourism plans to build resorts or shopping malls in my area that destroy the environment, natural landscapes and traditional houses, I would not support and participate in that plan. The qualitative research showed that only five out of thirty-three tourism stakeholders interviewed were actually involved in tourism planning in Sapa. Most of them are government officials, who claimed that their participation was to ensure economic, social and cultural benefits for local residents. However, a possible explanation for their participation is that they hold government positions.

5.9. Current collaboration among tourism stakeholders in tourism planning in Sapa

In response to research question four, which aimed to determine the current collaboration among stakeholders in Sapa, qualitative content analysis was employed to
analyze the transcripts. The results reflect Sapa stakeholders’ realization that there is a need for collaborative engagement among stakeholders in tourism planning. However, weak connections and lack of shared vision among stakeholders were also evident in current Sapa tourism planning processes.

5.9.1. Recognition of interdependence

Collaboration is considered a relationship between stakeholders when parties interact positively with each other in relation to a common issue. Each stakeholder controls some resources, for instance, knowledge, expertise, capital, but do not possess all the resources which are necessary inputs to achieve objectives or to deal with potential issues of tourism development. Because tourism is complex, and multiple stakeholders influence and are affected by tourism development, stakeholders need to work together to solve problems, realize goals, and create new opportunities. Thus, the recognition of interdependence among stakeholders are prerequisite for collaborative tourism planning. Most stakeholders responded that tourism development in Sapa required collaboration from a wide variety of interested parties as reflected in the following quotes:

All of us should work together to achieve an aim, (Head of Village 3, Dao).

There is a need for a series of links from local people to local government officials to enable sustainable management in the development of tourism. (Hotel Owner 3, Kinh).

When interviewing government officials, many of them recognized that there is a need for input from local residents and interest groups in the design and implementation of tourism plans.

To make a tourism plan, we always organize a meeting to ask opinions of local residents, tourism businesses, people who are related to tourism. (Government Official 2, Kinh)

… not one person can act as agency to make a plan but need of the participation of everyone, all sectors to develop together, and together to plan for Sapa's policy. (Government official 5, Tây).

5.9.2. Weak connection and lack of shared visions among stakeholders

There is currently little evidence of a process of stakeholders working together in developing tourism plans for Sapa, and a shared vision among tourism stakeholders is missing. Many of those interviewed indicated that there are very weak links or connections between tourism stakeholders in term of tourism planning in Sapa. As Academic 4 (Kinh) noted, “The connection among tourists, local residents, tourism managers are weak links in Sapa.” These sentiments were reiterated among local government officials:

Currently, the coordination between tourism stakeholders is not tight, and lacks initiatives and active participation in tourism planning. Because the state manager alone makes policies, the business side only takes into account the economic benefits, tourists only know the demand for enjoyment, and the community sometimes does not know what to do. For
example, the construction of cable cars in Sapa has affected surrounding areas in terms of environment, landscape, and ecosystems, which has limiting consequences for tourism development in Sapa. (Government official 5, Tây).

I think there is only a small connection in the sense of a benefit-sharing group among those running motel, transportation service, or resorts. Overall, the collaboration of all stakeholders is not good in Sapa. (Head of Village 1, Tây)

Local residents and business operators were also asked about their collaboration in tourism planning and development. They revealed that they had not been involved in working on the design and implementation of tourism plans for Sapa. As indicated in the Chapter 2, participation is an important input for collaboration processes, due to lack participation of stakeholder in tourism planning lead to the poor connection and collaboration, and absence of shared vision among stakeholders. The hotel owner, a restaurant owner and a local resident all conveyed similar perspectives:

From the past to now, I have not had any information or invitations to a meeting in order to discuss or work together on plans for tourism development. (Restaurant Owner 1, Kinh).

I did not see any plans, nor have I participated or worked together with other people on training programs for tourism planning and support for tourism development in Sapa (Hotel Owner 1, Kinh).

When local authorities developed more tourism areas, there were only a few local residents who were informed about that plan; As for me, I have not been involved in any tourism plans in my area (Local resident 2, Tây).

The results above reveal that both Kinh and Ethnic minority stakeholders recognized the need for collaboration and input from many parties in tourism planning. However, those in the private sector, such as hotel and restaurant owners, indicated that collaboration was weak among them due to limited participation in tourism planning. In their classification of collaboration (see figure 2.3, Chapter 2) based on functions and outcomes, Gray (1989) and Choi (2005) described an early stage of collaboration among stakeholders in tourism planning that may be applied in the Sapa context, as an exploratory form in which the stakeholders show awareness of their interdependence that only loosely links their relationships. This form of collaboration is further discussed in Chapter 7.

The responses from Kinh and Ethnic tourism stakeholders show that collaborative tourism planning is constrained by lack of engagement and shared vision and goals among stakeholders in Sapa, because of different views of tourism planning and different interests. Because, in the context of tourism, collaboration is often considered as a highly developed form of community based-tourism, which depends upon community integration and significant levels of participation (Mitchell & Reid, 2000).
5.10. Chapter Summary

The first objective of this study aims to examine the perceptions of Kinh and Ethnic minority groups with respect to the impacts of tourism in Sapa, Lào Cai, Vietnam. The study employed the direct approach to content analysis to analyze respondents’ responses. The results showed that both groups clearly realized the benefits and costs which tourism had brought to the local community, although with different emphases. Tourism contributes to the local economy, increases income, provides more employment for people, and also raises environmental and cultural awareness. However, the two groups shared views that tourism results in negative effects such as climate change, polluted air, noise, increasing living costs, land conversion, and local cultural changes.

The aim was also to investigate the differences in perspectives of the two groups in relation to the impacts of tourism development. The results showed three main points of difference between the groups as follows:

First, ethnic minority groups opinions regarding the impacts of tourism demonstrated that were more specific and directed to their everyday lives and needs, while Kinh stakeholders perceived the impacts of tourism more generally. It could be explained that ethnic minorities are more attached their lives in Sapa than Kinh stakeholders, and consequently they responded in terms of the ways tourism affects themselves and their family members. Ethnic minority stakeholders also focused on how to engage more ethnic minority residents in tourism activities. Second, at on-site management level high (Kinh) and low (Ethnic minorities) socio-economic groups refer to marked differences in the distribution of economic benefits from tourism development. Third, the focus of Kinh stakeholders’ support for tourism development is primarily oriented to economic benefits, whereas Ethnic minorities support tourism because of both economic and socio-cultural benefits. The differences in perceptions of tourism development between the two groups could hinder application of a participatory approach in tourism development, since it depends upon goal sharing and building the trust among stakeholders. Moreover, the inequality of economic benefit distribution from tourism can be regarded as a consequence of political inequality. The differences in perceptions of tourism development between Kinh and Ethnic minority people could pose serious challenges to developing a “shared or common vision” among tourism stakeholders.

The second objective of this study is to investigate forms of participation in tourism planning currently occurring among Kinh and Ethnic tourism stakeholders, to fulfill this objective, the qualitative content analysis was applied. Both Kinh and Ethnic minority
stakeholders perceived that tourism planning in Sapa followed a top-down approach. All stakeholders in private sector, residents and government officials at commune-level indicated their experience of limited participation in tourism planning. However, there are differences in perceptions to participation in tourism planning between Ethnic minority lower level and Kinh higher level government positions. Kinh government officials at high management level asserted their attempts to engage residents in tourism planning by many forms. However, minorities as well as Kinh stakeholders at community level indicated constraints to participation and some even regarded their participation as only tokenistic. This finding leads to a conclusion that currently citizen participation in the Vietnamese context is procedural rather than substantive.

The third objective of this study is to find factors facilitating/hindering tourism stakeholders’ participation in tourism planning in Sapa. Both groups give similar responses when asked about factors affecting their participation in tourism planning. By understanding these factors, planners in Sapa could adjust policy to target each tourism stakeholders’ group to expand participation in the tourism planning processes. Ethnic minorities considered government policy as an important factor influencing their response to participation overtures. Therefore, local authorities must carefully consider the cultures of ethnic minorities before imposing plans which may seem good in terms of theory but may not be in line with ethnic minority values and particularly risks provoking ethnic minority concern with cultural assimilation in practice.

The fourth aim is to explore the current stakeholder collaboration in tourism planning. Both Kinh and Ethnic minorities recognized their interdependence in tourism development, however, lack of shared vision among stakeholders in Sapa affects tourism planning. There is very limited collaborative approach to tourism planning because respondents at the private sector and community level lack information, communication and shared vision among stakeholders.

This chapter presents the findings of qualitative data analysis to reveal the perspectives of Sapa stakeholders with regard to the impacts of tourism, forms of participation, as well as aspects of motivating and hindering stakeholders’ participation and current stakeholder collaboration in tourism planning. These findings helped to generate the statements used in the questionnaire survey of a large sample of Sapa residents to be reported in the next chapter. The findings reported in Chapter 6 will be used to elaborate and corroborate the findings presented in this chapter.
CHAPTER 6: SURVEY RESULTS

This chapter presents the data analysis and findings from the second stage of data collection for this research. Data was collected through semi-structured questionnaires delivered to Kinh and Ethnic minority stakeholders in the Sapa region during January and February of 2019. Statements on the questionnaire were adapted from the findings of the semi-structured interview stage (Stage One) as discussed in Chapter 5 as well as in the literature review (Chapter 2). This chapter presents the demographic profiles of respondents and compares perspectives of Kinh and Ethnic minorities to twenty-two statements related to costs and benefits of tourism development. A comparison of stakeholders’ perspectives of participation and collaboration in Sapa tourism planning and aspects that both motivate and hinder tourism stakeholders participating in tourism planning are also included in this chapter. Another qualitative results from the questionnaires which analyzed by a Word Cloud are also presented in this chapter.

6.1. Preliminary Data Analysis

Questionnaires were checked before entering the SPSS program, then the data were further checked to find out any missing information or mistakes after entering the SPSS program. This process resulted in a total of 457 usable surveys for analysis. Statistical tests require assumptions, for validity, the most basic assumptions for statistical analysis is a normal distribution of data (Newton & Rudestam, 2013). In this study, Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests were utilized to check whether the sample was normally distributed or not. The results suggest that all statements in the questionnaires do not follow a normal distribution (Appendix 1); hence, non-parametric tests should be applied to analyze the data set. However, Jim (2020) argues that the parametric test could be used if the sample size meets the requirements for each analysis, for instance: the 1 sample t-test requires a sample size greater than 20; One-way ANOVA needs 2-9 groups, and for each group there should be more than 15 observations. Therefore, in line with much social science statistical analysis, this current study applied the use of parametric testing to analyze the data. However, the non-parametric test was also employed to check whether the results are the same as from the parametric test. The results of both parametric (an independent sample t-test) and non-parametric test (Mann Whitney U-test) provided the same results. The results of the non-parametric test can be found in the Appendix 2 of this thesis. This current study tested the differences among Ethnic minorities themselves about their perceptions of benefits and costs of tourism development, form of participation and current collaboration in tourism planning, aspects of motivating and hindering their participation in tourism planning. The
results revealed that there were few differences within these ethnic minority groups, therefore, supporting the assumption that Ethnic minorities could be treated as single groups to compare with Kinh stakeholders.

6.2. Demographic Profiles of Respondents

This section compares the demographic profiles of Kinh and Ethnic minorities. The total sample size was 457 respondents. There are 205 Kinh respondents and 252 Ethnic minorities respectively in this study. The results of descriptive statistics are shown in Table 6.1 below. In terms of demography, 61.0% of respondents are female for Kinh and 55.6% for Ethnic minority stakeholders. Most respondents are in the 20 – 29 year of age range for both groups. Respondents from both groups are married, accounting for 68.8% of Kinh respondents and 75.0% of Ethnic minorities respectively. This result suggests that ethnic minorities in Sapa get married at a younger age.

In Vietnam’s education system, primary or elementary schooling is from grades one to five, followed by lower secondary schooling from years six to nine, and high school (years 10 to 12). College education may last from two or three years; however, a university degree may take four to six years depending on disciplines and majors (Truong, 2014). The results presented in Table 1 show that Ethnic minority respondents have lower educational levels than Kinh. 26.2% among Ethnic minorities completed lower secondary school as their highest level of education. While 36.6% of Kinh had graduated from university and 28.3% completed college education, only 11.1% among the Ethnic minorities had University qualifications and 12.7% finished college.

Table 6.1. Demographic Profile of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Kinh group (n = 205)</th>
<th>Ethnic minorities (n = 252)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>39.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>60.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age groups</strong></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;= 20</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>34.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>23.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>17.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>10.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;=60</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>10.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Schooling</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary School</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>21.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This result shows that Ethnic households are larger and often have many generations living together. 70.2% of Kinh respondents and 54.8% of Ethnic minorities have 4-6 members in their family. 24.6% of Ethnic minority respondents had extended families of 7-9 people, while only 2% of the Kinh group had large families of that size. As mentioned in Chapter 4, many generations of the Ethnic minorities such as Hmong live together in the same house with their grandparents who normally take care of their children while the parents are working in the fields. Most Ethnic minority respondents have resided in Sapa for over 20 years (57.9%), while only 41.5% of Kinh respondents have lived in Sapa more than 20 years, this finding reflects the movement of Kinh people to Sapa when the Vietnamese government initiated a New Economic Zone program since 1960s as mentioned in Chapter 4.

6.3. Sources of Income and Economic benefit from tourism

6.3.1. Main sources income

Respondents were asked about multiple activities that contribute to income generation (Table 6.2). The total number of responses for Kinh group and Ethnic minorities were 231 and 350 respectively. Ethnic minorities reveal that activities contributing to their main sources of income include rice growing (32%), and tourism-related jobs (37.7%). In
contrast, the primary source of income for 61.5% of Kinh respondents comes from tourism related jobs, whereas only 10.4% of Kinh respondents depend on rice growing for their income. 19.0% of Kinh stakeholders receive income from government positions, while only 4% of Ethnic minorities obtain their income from government positions. It could be concluded, then, that Kinh stakeholders derive most of their income from tourism related jobs, in contrast to the income sources for Ethnic minorities who rely mainly on both rice-growing and tourism. These findings align with those of Truong (2014) who indicated that Ethnic minorities traditionally rely on rice-growing and tree-planting, with tourism considered as an alternative or supplementary source of income for them. The survey asked respondents about the approximate percentage of their income that came from tourism per month. Ethnic minorities obtain an average of 33% of their income from tourism, while their Kinh counterparts get 52%. Therefore, Kinh stakeholders are more dependent on tourism in terms of economic benefits than Ethnic minorities.

Table 6.2. Sources of Income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities which contribute to your main income?</th>
<th>Kinh</th>
<th>Ethnic minorities</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Growing rice</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Selling handicrafts</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Tree planting</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Government positions</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Sales of timber</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Tourism related jobs</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>274</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Others</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>231*</td>
<td>350*</td>
<td>581*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What approximate percentage of your income comes from tourism per month?</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>42.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Multiple responses are calculated

6.3.2. Economic benefits from tourism

Respondents were asked about who receive the most economic benefits from tourism activities in their area (Table 6.3). 33.8% of Ethnic minority respondents indicated that the economic benefits from tourism accrue to owners of tourism businesses from other provinces, this view is also shared by 32.4% of Kinh respondents. This finding supports the results of Stage One which indicated that the majority of the economic benefits from tourism go to the large corporates and to the owners of tourism businesses. However, 28.2% of Ethnic minorities and 28.6% of Kinh respondents believe that tourism also brings economic benefits to local residents. Moreover, both groups believe that economic benefits accrue to the local
tourism businesses, with 28.4% of Ethnic minorities and 34.5% of Kinh respondents agreeing.

Table 6.3. Economic Benefits from Tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Who get most economic benefits from tourism in your location?</th>
<th>Kinh</th>
<th>Ethnic minorities</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of responses</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Number of responses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local residents</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>28.57</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local tourism business</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>34.52</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism business outside Sapa</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>32.54</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local authority in Sapa</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development Agencies</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>N</strong></td>
<td><strong>504</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>394</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Multiple responses are calculated

6.4. The Impacts of Tourism

6.4.1. Kinh and Ethnic minority perspectives on the impacts of tourism

The perspectives of both Kinh and Ethnic minority stakeholders regarding the costs and benefits of tourism development in Sapa are outlined in Table 6.4. In general, both groups indicate that tourism contributes to local economic development, creates more jobs, and improves infrastructure in Sapa (B1). 89.3% of Kinh stakeholders agree with this statement compared to 73.9% of Ethnic minority respondents. This finding is also underpinned by the results of the Stage One interviews where Kinh stakeholders primarily comment on the contribution of tourism to local economic development.

The findings of Stage One revealed that most of Ethnic minorities consider that tourism helps to create more jobs for them and their family members (B2). However, Kinh stakeholders (76.1%) showed higher percentages of agreement than Ethnic minorities (65.1%) to this statement. This reflects the view that Kinh stakeholders also consider the contribution of tourism to the creation of jobs for themselves and their family members and is compatible with the minority cultures’ view that Kinh disproportionately benefit from tourism development.

There are 85.3% of Kinh and 73% of Ethnic minority respondents who agree with the statement that “Tourism helps to improve the infrastructure in Sapa” (B3). Thank to tourism development, this attracts many investments from public and private sectors, both groups consider tourism which significantly contributes to improve the infrastructure in Sapa. 79.6% of Kinh group believe that “Tourism helps residents to sell more agricultural products” (B4), while 53.2% of Ethnic minorities agree with this statement.
Kinh respondents of 44.4% and Ethnic minorities of 30.5% disagree that “Tourism contributes to the preservation of the local cultures” (B6). However, 39.6% of Ethnic minority respondents agree that tourism helped to preserve ethnic local cultures, while, only 21% of Kinh group agree. This result reflects that Kinh disagree more strongly than Ethnic minorities in this statement. Tourism has negative impacts on cultures of ethnic minorities such as change in daily lives, modification of cultural activities, change in appearance, thus Kinh people perceive that tourism results in negative impacts on local cultures rather than preservation. Ethnic minorities might consider tourism as a mean for them to have a showcase of their own cultures to tourists, thus they present higher percentage of agreement on this statement that agree than Kinh counterpart.

There are 44.4% of Kinh stakeholders and 27.4% of Ethnic minorities who agree with the statement that “Tourism enhances the harmony between ethnic groups” (B8). This could be explained that tourism provides more chances for cross-cultural interaction among people, exchange activities among ethnic groups. As mentioned earlier, both groups agreed that tourism improved the infrastructure thank to investments in Sapa (water, electricity and road …etc), thus, both groups also believe that tourism help to improve the quality of life, but Kinh stakeholders (63.9%) present a higher percentage of agreement than Ethnic minorities (54.4%) with this statement. There are 43% and 36.1% of Kinh and Ethnic minorities who disagree and strongly disagree that tourism helps to protect and conserve the natural resources (B10). It is clear that tourism development in Sapa results in an exploitation of natural resources such as forest devastation, mountain destruction, thus both groups do not believe that tourism contributes to converse the natural resources.
Table 6.4. Kinh and Ethnic minorities Perspectives on the Impacts of Tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impacts of Tourism</th>
<th>Kinh (n=205)</th>
<th>Ethnic minorities (n=252)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B1. Tourism contributes to local economic development.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2. Tourism provides more job opportunities for me and my family.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3. Tourism helps improve infrastructure in Sapa.</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4. Tourism helps residents to sell more agricultural products.</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5. The cable car in Sapa creates more job opportunities for you and your family members.</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B6. Tourism contributes to the preservation of ethnic cultures.</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B7. Tourism increases my awareness of local culture.</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B8. Tourism enhances harmony between ethnic groups.</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B9. Tourism helps to improve the quality of life.</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B10. Tourism helps to protect and conserve natural resources.</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>25.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costs</td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1. Tourism increases cost of living compared to other places in the region.</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2. Tourism results in a reduction of agricultural production.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3. Distribution of income from tourism is not equal.</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4. Tourism results in changes to culture.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C5. Tourism results in land acquisition and conversion.</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C6. Tourism degrades moral values of local residents.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C7. Tourism increases commercialization of local culture.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C8. If children earn money from tourism, they do not go to school.</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C9. Tourism results in ethnic children not going to school.</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C10. Tourism causes air pollution and damage to natural landscapes.</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C11. Building the cable car damaged to natural landscapes.</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C12. Tourism results in urbanisation in Sapa.</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Kinh stakeholders of 72.2% and Ethnic minorities of 64.7% agree that tourism results in an increase in the cost of living in Sapa compared to other places (C1). This finding is consistent with the Stage One interviews which indicated that the cost of living increased due to tourism in Sapa. Only 28.9% of Ethnic minority stakeholders agree that tourism degrades the moral values of local residents (C6), in contrast to 43.4% of Kinh stakeholders agree with this statement. This may reflect the fact that Kinh stakeholders are more worried about changing cultural values because of tourism than Ethnic minorities. Both groups realize the distribution of income from tourism is not equal (C3), with 68.8% Kinh groups and 61.1% of Ethnic minorities agreeing with this statement. It could be explained that Sapa stakeholders in both interview and survey stages recognize the unequal distribution of income from tourism because income mostly accrues to big corporates and outside investors who invested their capital in Sapa to build hotels, restaurants rather than for those people who lack capital such as ethnic minorities that might get little economic benefit from tourism as tour guides, and selling handicrafts and agricultural products.

There are only 27.8% of Kinh and 34.9% of Ethnic minorities respectively who agree that tourism results in land acquisition and conversion (C5). 74.7% of Kinh and 67.9% of Ethnic minorities respondents share the perspectives that tourism increases the commercialization of the local cultures (C7). Kinh stakeholders show 76.1% of agreement that tourism causes air pollution and damage to natural landscapes (C10), while Ethnic minorities demonstrate 60.7% of agreement with this statement. This result supports the finding in Stage One that Sapa stakeholders perceive tourism as a cause of negative social and environmental impacts.

6.4.2 Kinh and Ethnic minority stakeholders’ perspectives of costs and benefits of tourism development

6.4.2.1. Benefits of tourism development perceived by Kinh and Ethnic minorities

Similarities

Kinh and Ethnic minorities respondents shared similar responses to some statements of benefits arising from tourism (Table 6.5). The result reflects that there is no statistically significant difference between Kinh and Ethnic minorities in terms of the statement that ‘Tourism helps to improve the quality of life’ (B9). Thus, both groups consider tourism helps to improve quality of life. The Vietnamese government has made many investments in Sapa to facilitate tourism development. These include road upgrades and water and electricity system improvements. While these improvements are primarily designed to support tourism, they also
improve the quality of life for local residents. Both groups also agree that the cable car in Sapa created more jobs for them and their family members (B5). The completion of the cable car in 2016 created many jobs such as ticket sellers, train controllers, cleaners and gardeners not only for local people but also for outsiders. In addition, Kinh and Ethnic minorities also share agreement that tourism enhances the harmony between ethnic minority groups (B8). These issues further elaborate and discuss in Chapter 7.

Table 6.5. Similar Responses of Both groups to Benefits arising from Tourism Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefits</th>
<th>Kinh</th>
<th>Ethnic minorities</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B9. Tourism helps to improve quality of life.</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>1.959</td>
<td>0.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B8. Tourism enhances harmony between ethnic groups.</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>1.031</td>
<td>0.303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5. The cable car in Sapa creates more jobs opportunities for you and your family members.</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>0.822</td>
<td>0.411</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Differences

Table 6.6 evaluates the items in which the Kinh and Ethnic minorities significantly differ in terms of their perceptions of the benefits arising from tourism development. There was a significant difference between the two groups, with Kinh stakeholders scoring a higher mean (mean = 4.19, SD = 0.84) than Ethnic minorities (mean = 3.95, SD = 0.94, p = 0.00) in relation to the statement that ‘Tourism contributes to local economic development’ (B1). The result reflects that Kinh stakeholders are more in agreement than Ethnic minorities that tourism contributes to local economic development. Moreover, Kinh stakeholders (mean = 4.07) also consider tourism as something that improves the infrastructure of Sapa (B3) to a greater extent than Ethnic minorities (mean = 3.88). Similarly, Kinh stakeholders (mean = 3.93) are more positive in the view that tourism brings more jobs for them and their family members (B2) than Ethnic minorities (mean = 3.69). This result does support the finding of Stage One which revealed that Ethnic minority stakeholders in the interview believed that tourism brings economic benefits for themselves and their family members. In contrast, Ethnic minorities (mean = 3.07) show more agreement that tourism helps to preserve their cultures (B6) than their Kinh counterparts (mean = 2.60). The contextual explanation is that Ethnic minorities are insiders so that they think that tourism helps to preserve their cultures rather than Kinh who may
be observing less salient Minority culture features as outsiders. Kinh focus on the changes in daily lives of Ethnic minorities such as changing in lifestyles, clothes, cultures in their estimations.

There was a statistically significant difference between Kinh and Ethnic minorities regarding the statement that “Tourism helps to increase the awareness of the local cultures” (B7). Kinh (mean = 3.97) scored higher than Ethnic minorities (mean = 3.58) in relation to this statement. This finding suggests that due to tourism, Kinh stakeholders have more understanding and awareness about the cultures of Ethnic minorities. But the differences may reflect a different and perhaps more superficial view of the core features of Ethnic minority cultures on the part of the dominant Kinh. Nonetheless, this finding generally supports the literature that tourism helps outsiders or tourists to understand more about local cultures (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003; Liu et al., 1987).

There was a significant difference between Kinh and Ethnic minority respondents in terms of the statement that “Tourism helps local residents to sell more agricultural products” (B4). Kinh stakeholders (mean = 3.89) scored a higher mean than Ethnic minorities (mean = 3.47) in response to this statement. In Sapa, agricultural products such as vegetables, medical herbs, and local fruits are mainly produced by Ethnic minorities. From the perspectives of Kinh outsiders, tourism in Sapa seems to help ethnic minorities sell more agricultural products, but apparently attribute more benefit to this economic outcome than Ethnic minorities with this statement.

Both groups presented low mean score in statement that tourism helps to protect and conserve natural resources (B10), however, ethnic minorities indicated slightly higher mean than the Kinh stakeholders in this statement. This could be explained by the fact that the livelihoods of ethnic minorities are more attached to nature by cutting down of the trees and hunting in the forests selling to tourists. Kinh stakeholders who observe these activities which could not contribute to the protection and conservation of natural resources; thus, they are less agreement than Ethnic minorities to this statement.

The results of Cohen’s d effect size indicated that the differences between Ethnic minorities and Kinh respondents in term of statements about benefits were small and medium. Cohen considers d=0.2 a 'small' effect size, 0.5 a 'medium' effect size and 0.8 a 'large' effect size. This could be explained that tourism have obviously positive impacts in Sapa, both groups clearly recognized these impacts in which tourism contributes to local economy and more job
opportunities for stakeholders, thus there is no large differences between both groups regarding the benefits.

*Table 6.6. Different responses of Both groups to Benefits arising from Tourism Development*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefits</th>
<th>Kinh Statements</th>
<th>Ethnic minorities Statements</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Cohen d</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B1. Tourism contributes to local economic development.</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>2.760</td>
<td>0.006**</td>
<td>0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3. Tourism helps improve infrastructure in Sapa.</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>2.254</td>
<td>0.025*</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2. Tourism provides more job opportunities for me and my family.</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>2.825</td>
<td>0.005**</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B7. Tourism increases my awareness of local culture.</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>4.990</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
<td>0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4. Tourism helps local residents to sell more agricultural products.</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>5.557</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B6. Tourism contributes to the preservation of ethnic cultures.</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>-4.684</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
<td>-0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B10. Tourism helps to protect and conserve natural resources.</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>-4.025</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
<td>-0.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at 5% level
**Significant at 1% level

*6.4.2.2. Costs of tourism development perceived by Kinh and Ethnic minorities*

**Similarities**

The costs arising from tourism for both Kinh respondents and Ethnic minorities are outlined in Table 6.7. Both groups respond similarly in response to the question about cost of living in Sapa. It is evident in the tourism literature that tourism is a cause of cost of living increase in many destinations (as indicated in Chapter 2). In Sapa, the increase of house and land prices makes it difficult for ethnic minorities who want to buy land or houses to do so, as through inheritance. When I and my supervisor went for survey in Tà Van village, we have a conversation with a homestay owner who explained to us that his land was inherited from his parents to do homestay, because he could not afford to buy a new land. Those without inheritances have little chance of affording the high cost of these investments.
Stakeholders share agreement regarding air pollution and damage to the natural landscape as a result of tourism (C10), this result reinforces the finding in Stage One that both groups were concerned about the potential adverse effects on the environment as a consequence of tourism. These include noise and air pollution. This could be explained by the fact that a mass construction of infrastructure has been happening in Sapa. Ethnic minorities and Kinh respondents give similar responses to the statement about the unequal distribution of income from tourism (C3). The economic benefits from tourism in Sapa mainly accrue to private investors such as hotel and restaurant owners, and tour operators as explained previously.

Sapa stakeholders agree that tourism results in a reduction of agricultural production (C2). Tourism in Sapa brings an alternative source of income for Ethnic minorities. Ethnic minorities have diversified their incomes to include both tourism and farming. Another reason for the difficulty of farming in Sapa is due to difficult climatic conditions, therefore ethnic minorities are only able to grow one rice crop per year (Le, 2014). Tourism provides many opportunities for them to increase their income; however, such income is still limited due to their lack of professional skills, work experience and language barriers.

Both Kinh respondents and Ethnic minorities have similar responses to the statement that “Tourism resulted in land acquisition and conversion in Sapa” (C5). This result supports the finding in Stage One which revealed that both groups have concerns about land management issues resulting from tourism development in Sapa. This issue further explains in Chapter 7.

Table 6.7. Similar responses of Both groups to Costs arising from Tourism Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Costs Statements</th>
<th>Kinh</th>
<th>Ethnic minorities</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1. Tourism increases the cost of living compared to other places in the region.</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>1.695</td>
<td>0.091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C10. Tourism causes air pollution and damage to natural landscapes.</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>1.163</td>
<td>0.245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3. Distribution of income from tourism is not equal.</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>1.271</td>
<td>0.205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C9. Tourism results in ethnic children not going to school.</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1.935</td>
<td>0.054</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C8. If children earn money from tourism, they do not go to school.</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>1.281</td>
<td>0.201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2. Tourism results in a reduction of agricultural production.</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>1.446</td>
<td>0.149</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Differences

Table 6.8 reflects the items in which the Kinh and Ethnic minorities significantly differed in terms of the costs arising from tourism development. There was a significant difference between Kinh respondents and Ethnic minorities regarding the statement that “Tourism results in changes to local cultures” (C4). Kinh stakeholders (mean = 3.89) scored a higher mean than Ethnic minorities (mean = 3.51) in response to this statement; therefore, the result suggests that Kinh stakeholders are more agreement than Ethnic minorities that the changes to local cultures due to tourism.

Kinh stakeholders (mean = 3.36) present more agreement than Ethnic minorities (mean = 3.04) with the statement that “Tourism results in degrading the moral values of local residents” (C6), and Kinh respondents (mean = 3.90) show more agreement than Ethnic minorities (mean = 3.68) in the statement “Tourism increases commercialization of local cultures” (C7). In contrast, Ethnic minorities (mean = 3.60) are more in agreement than Kinh counterparts (mean = 3.28) that building the cable car caused damage to the natural landscape (C11). The differences between groups in terms of statements (C6) and (C7) could be explained by the fact that Kinh stakeholders act as outsiders who observe the obvious changes in daily lives of ethnic minorities, but not necessarily deeper values and relationships (as previous explanation). Thus, they are more inclined to emphasize changes associated with commercialization of the local cultures than Ethnic minority insiders. However, ethnic minorities are more in tune with, or involved with nature. Therefore, they consider the building of the cable car as an event that damaged the natural landscape (C11).

Cohen’s d results suggest that the size of the difference between Kinh and Ethnic minority views was relatively small in regard to the costs of tourism development in Sapa. This could be explained that tourism obviously brought negative impacts to many aspects of community in Sapa both groups clearly recognize the costs of tourism.
Table 6.8. Different responses of Both groups to Costs arising from Tourism Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Costs Statements</th>
<th>Kinh Mean</th>
<th>Kinh SD</th>
<th>Ethnic minorities Mean</th>
<th>Ethnic minorities SD</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Cohen d</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C12. Tourism results in urbanisation in Sapa.</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>4.123</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C7. Tourism increases commercialization of local culture.</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>2.621</td>
<td>0.009*</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C11. Building the cable car damaged to natural landscapes.</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>-3.411</td>
<td>0.001*</td>
<td>-0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4. Tourism results in changes of local cultures.</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>4.234</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C6. Tourism degrades moral values of local residents.</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>3.502</td>
<td>0.001*</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at 1% level

The results of Tables 6.5, 6.6, 6.7 and 6.8 indicate that there is more agreement in the statements related to the costs of tourism development than to benefits derived from it. This means that Kinh and Ethnic minority respondents are in agreement regarding the costs of tourism development more than statements regarding potential benefits. These results show that there are many differences between Kinh and Ethnic minorities in terms of their perception of the benefits from tourism. The results suggest that the benefits from tourism mainly accrue to Kinh stakeholders rather than Ethnic minorities, thus both groups have different perspectives regarding the benefits of tourism development in Sapa. Such differences could be explained by the fact that differences in terms of cultures, ways of life, ideology, education, and limited opportunities to participate in management roles of ethnic minorities.

6.4.3. Hmong and Other ethnic minorities perceptions of costs and benefits of tourism

Respondents in this thesis include 139 Hmong and 113 Other ethnic minority groups (Dao, Giáy, Tày, Xa Phố). This section presents the results of an independent sample t-test to compare Hmong and Other ethnic minorities’ perspectives about the benefits and costs of tourism development in Sapa. The aim is to further explore whether there are any differences in perspectives within ethnic minority groups themselves about the benefits and costs of tourism development. The results indicate that there are many similarities between Hmong and Other minority respondents, suggesting that there is relative homogeneity among ethnic minorities’
perspectives in response to many statements about the benefits and costs of tourism development (Table 6.9).

Table 6.9. Similarity of Hmong and Other ethnic minorities’ Perspectives of Costs and Benefits of Tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefits of Tourism Development</th>
<th>Hmong</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B1. Tourism contributes to local economic development.</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>-1.261</td>
<td>.209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2. Tourism provides more job opportunities for me and my family.</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>-1.950</td>
<td>.052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3. Tourism helps improve infrastructure in Sapa.</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>.287</td>
<td>.775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B6. Tourism contributes to the preservation of ethnic culture.</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>-2.480</td>
<td>.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B7. Tourism increases my awareness of local culture.</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>-1.017</td>
<td>.310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B8. Tourism enhances harmony between ethnic groups.</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>-1.601</td>
<td>.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B10. Tourism helps to protect and conserve natural resources.</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>-3.92</td>
<td>.696</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Costs of Tourism Development</th>
<th>Hmong</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1. Tourism increases the cost of living compared to other places in the region.</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>.546</td>
<td>.585</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2. Tourism results in a reduction of agricultural production.</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>-1.216</td>
<td>.225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3. Distribution of income from tourism is not equal.</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>-.898</td>
<td>.370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4. Tourism results in changes to culture.</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>-1.831</td>
<td>.068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C6. Tourism degrades moral values of local residents.</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>.241</td>
<td>.810</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C8. If children earn money from tourism, they do not go to school.</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>-1.156</td>
<td>.249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C9. Tourism results in ethnic children not going to school.</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>.632</td>
<td>.528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C10. Tourism causes air pollution and damage to natural landscapes.</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>.074</td>
<td>.941</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q11. Building the cable car damaged the natural landscape.</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>.089</td>
<td>.929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C12. Tourism results in urbanization in Sapa.</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>-1.819</td>
<td>.070</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The current study found that there was a significant difference between Hmong and Other ethnic minorities on a few statements relating to tourism development. Table 6.10 presents the significant differences between Hmong and Other minorities in response to the statement that “Tourism helps to improve the quality of life” (B9). Other minorities (mean = 3.84) scored a higher mean than Hmong respondents (mean = 3.60) in relation to this statement. This finding indicates that other minorities agree that tourism helps to improve the quality of life to a greater extent than the Hmong group. This response could potentially be explained by the fact that Hmong people account for more than 52% of the population of Sapa, with other ethnic
minorities making up approximately 25%. Therefore, given the size of the population, Hmong people are more affected by tourism than other ethnic minorities.

In terms of the costs of tourism development, Other ethnic minorities (mean = 3.85) scored a higher mean than Hmong respondents (mean = 3.55) regarding the statement that *Tourism increases commercialization of local cultures* (C7). This result indicated that Other ethnic minorities are more in agreement than Hmong respondents that the commercialisation of local cultures is due to tourism. It could be explained that within ethnic minority groups, the culture of Hmong respondents is the main tourism product in Sapa and Hmong people are more often in contact with foreign tourists, therefore other groups such as Giày and Dao minorities are outsiders who see local cultures such as the Hmong as commercialising their culture for tourism.

*Table 6.10. Differences between Hmong and Other ethnic minorities in terms of Benefits and Costs of Tourism Development*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefits of Tourism Development</th>
<th>Hmong</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B9. Tourism helps to improve quality of life.</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>-2.250</td>
<td>.025*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4. Tourism helps local residents to sell more agricultural products.</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>-3.957</td>
<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5. The cable car in Sapa creates more job opportunities for you and your family members.</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>-3.710</td>
<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Costs of Tourism Development</th>
<th>Hmong</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C5. Tourism results in land acquisition and conversion.</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>-3.280</td>
<td>.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C7. Tourism increases commercialization of local cultures.</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>-2.619</td>
<td>.009**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at 5% level
**Significant at 1% level

6.5. Personal benefits and support for Tourism Development

6.5.1. Frequency analysis of Kinh and Ethnic minorities responses

Descriptive statistics of stakeholder personal benefits and support for tourism development are presented in Table 6.11. In terms of personal benefits from tourism, most of the respondents indicated that tourism helps to pay their daily expenses (PB1), with 87.3% expressing agreement from Kinh stakeholders and 69.84% agreement from Ethnic minorities respectively. This result reflects that both groups depend on tourism for their daily expenses. Both groups also agree that tourism helps them to learn more about the local cultures (PB3), as indicated by 37.56% of Kinh respondents and 41.27% of Ethnic stakeholders. Ethnic minorities (45.24%) show a higher percentage of agreement than their Kinh counterparts (38.05%)
regarding the benefits of tourism in helping to improve their tourism knowledge and communication skills (PB2), this finding is also in line with responses at the interview stage. The contextual explanation is that ethnic minorities tend to attach their life to tourism, and they are more often in direct contact with tourists, and as a result, learn more about English and communication skills, for instance, how to persuade tourists to buy their souvenirs.
### Table 6.11. Personal benefits and Support for Tourism Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Support for Tourism Development</th>
<th>Kinh</th>
<th>Ethnic minorities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S1. In general, tourism brings more benefit than negative impacts to communities.</td>
<td>(0.0%)</td>
<td>(2.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2. I would like to see more tourists in Sapa</td>
<td>(3.9%)</td>
<td>(4.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3. I support additional tourism activities and development in my community.</td>
<td>(0.9%)</td>
<td>(1.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Personal Benefits (PB)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PB1. Tourism helps me to pay for my daily expenses.</th>
<th>Kinh</th>
<th>Ethnic minorities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td><strong>2</strong></td>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PB2. Tourism improves my tourism knowledge and skills (communications…etc).</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PB3. Tourism helps me learn more about local cultures.</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Kinh stakeholders and Ethnic minorities respond that tourism brings more benefits than costs to communities (S1) with 83.9% in agreement of Kinh stakeholders, and 69.84% in agreement among Ethnic minorities in response to this statement. Tourism brings many benefits to Sapa such as local economic development, employment opportunities, cultural exchange …etc, thus both groups perceive its benefits outweigh the costs. Sapa stakeholders agree that they would like to welcome more tourists to Sapa (S2). 70.3% of Kinh stakeholders and 58.73% of Ethnic minorities agree to the proposal to support more tourism activities in their communities (S3). This finding corroborates the Stage One finding that Sapa stakeholders in general support tourism development.

6.5.2. Independent sample t-test

An independent sample t-test was conducted to find out the differences between Kinh and Ethnic minorities in terms of personal benefits and support for tourism development. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between groups regarding the statement that “Tourism helps to pay for daily expenses” (PB1), with Kinh stakeholders (mean = 4.24, SD = 0.78) scoring a higher mean than Ethnic minorities (mean = 3.83, SD = 0.98). The result suggests that Kinh receive greater benefits from tourism than Ethnic minorities. Moreover, this result may suggest that Kinh stakeholders are more economically dependent on tourism to cover their daily expenses than Ethnic minorities, since the latter groups are more likely to also engage in agriculture. There was no significant difference between groups in terms of statements (PB2) and (PB3). Both groups revealed that tourism helps to improve their knowledge and skills and tourism helps them to learn more about the local cultures.
Table 6.12. An independent t-test of Personal benefits and Support for Tourism Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Kinh (n=205)</th>
<th>Ethnic minorities (n=252)</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PB1. Tourism helps me to pay for my daily expenses.</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>5.018</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PB2. Tourism improves my tourism knowledge and skills (communications…etc).</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>-0.307</td>
<td>.759</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PB3. Tourism helps me learn more about local cultures.</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>0.784</td>
<td>.433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S1. In general, tourism brings more benefit than negative impacts to communities.</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>3.066</td>
<td>.002*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2. I would like to see more tourists in Sapa</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>1.911</td>
<td>.057</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3. I support additional tourism activities and development in my community.</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>3.342</td>
<td>.001*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at 1% level

There was a significant difference between Kinh and Ethnic minorities in terms of the statement that “Tourism brings more benefits than costs to communities” (S1). Kinh stakeholders (mean = 4.10) scored a higher mean than Ethnic minorities (mean = 3.82) in response to this statement. The result suggests that Kinh stakeholders consider tourism to be more beneficial than costly compared to Ethnic minority respondents. Moreover, Kinh respondents (mean = 3.81) are more supportive of additional tourism activities (S3) than Ethnic minorities are (mean = 3.56). There was no significant difference between the two groups in terms of the statement “I would like to see more tourists in Sapa” (S2), thus this result suggests that stakeholders of both groups would welcome the expansion of tourism to Sapa in the future.

6.6. Participation and Collaboration in Tourism Planning

6.6.1. Frequency analysis of responses to participation and collaboration in tourism planning

Frequency analysis for Kinh and Ethnic minorities perspectives on participation and collaboration in tourism planning are shown in Table 6.13. Kinh respondents show 74.5% agreement whereas, Ethnic minorities responded with 43.4% agreement with the statement that participation in tourism planning in Sapa follows a top-down approach (P1). This result partially supports the findings of the Stage One in which the majority of respondents reflected the top-down approach in tourism planning. This approach normally excludes local residents from the tourism planning processes. Such exclusion and low educational level of ethnic minorities would lead to lack understanding and awareness about tourism planning, therefore many ethnic
minorities responded neutrally to this statement, accounted for 37.05%. This result might suggest that Kinh stakeholders could have more chance than Ethnic minorities to participate in tourism planning so that they knew this is top-down approach.

Regarding the collaboration among stakeholders in tourism planning, Kinh and Ethnic minorities perceive that there are poor connections among local residents, authorities and tourism businesses in tourism planning (P3). Kinh respondents indicate 66.7% of agreement, and Ethnic minorities present 47.6% of agreement with this statement respectively. As the above pattern (P1), ethnic minorities show 33.86% of neutral response to this statement rather than Kinh (26.96%). This could be result of limited participation so that they do not have a chance to work together thus they present higher neutral response to this statement. This result helps to verify the findings of Stage One which show weak connections and lack of shared vision among stakeholders in relation to tourism planning in Sapa.

There are only 28.8% of Kinh and 27.1% of Ethnic minorities who present agreement to the statement that “Local authorities, local residents and tourism businesses worked together to make tourism plans for Sapa” (P2). This response seems to suggest that Sapa stakeholders have had very few chances to work together on tourism plans for Sapa. Moreover, 36.6% of Kinh and 30.1% of Ethnic minority respondents disagree with the statement that “The local authority pays attention to the views of local stakeholders when making tourism plans for Sapa” (P4).

There are 30.2% of Kinh and 32.3% of Ethnic minorities who present disagreement about the statement that “There is no domination in the collaboration among tourism stakeholders in tourism planning (P5). Thus, both groups concur that there are some degrees of domination among stakeholder groups in tourism planning. Domination in this context refers to the situation where one group of people controls or manages all economic and political activities in a destination. As mentioned in Chapter 1 (Introduction) tourism planning in Vietnam is mainly controlled by the Kinh people and this explains respondents’ answers. However, 45.4% of Kinh respondents and 45.4% Ethnic minorities gave neutral responses about this statement. This suggests that stakeholders may not have a chance to collaborate working on tourism plans; thus, they may not have been aware of the domination issue. Another reason could be explained for this result is that this might be a politically sensitive issue for both groups, so they did not want to state their perceptions on this statement. It is important to consider the possibility that even for the Kinh group, they see themselves as having dominant status in the Vietnamese society, but they did not want to present their agreement on this statement.
### Table 6.13. Kinh and Ethnic minority Perspectives of Participation and Collaboration in Tourism Planning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Kinh (n=205)</th>
<th>Ethnic minorities (n=252)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P1. Current participation among stakeholders in tourism planning follows top-down approach.</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>2.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P2. Local authorities, local residents and tourism business worked together to make tourism plans for Sapa.</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>19.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P3. The connection among local authorities, local residents and tourism businesses is weak in planning for tourism development.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P4. The local authority pays attention to the views of local stakeholders when making tourism plans for Sapa.</td>
<td>8.29</td>
<td>28.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P5. There is no domination in the collaboration among tourism stakeholders in tourism planning.</td>
<td>8.29</td>
<td>21.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P6. The tourism stakeholders do not hold agreed views about tourism planning for Sapa.</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>17.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.6.2. Kinh and Ethnic minority stakeholders’ perspectives on participation and collaboration in tourism planning

6.6.2.2. Independent sample t-test

An independent sample t-test was conducted to compare Kinh and Ethnic minority perspectives in terms of current participation and collaboration in tourism planning in Sapa. There was a significant difference in the mean scores for Kinh (mean = 3.93, SD = 0.76) and Ethnic minority groups (mean= 3.32, SD = 1.06); t (453) = 7.12, p = 0.00) regarding the statement that “Current participation among stakeholders in tourism planning follows a top-down approach” (P1). Kinh stakeholders score a higher mean than Ethnic minorities in this statement. This result suggests that Kinh are more in agreement than Ethnic minorities that tourism planning followed a top-down approach. As explained above, this could be explained by the fact that ethnic minorities have limited participation and understanding about tourism planning processes. There was a significant difference between Kinh and Ethnic minority groups in terms of the statement that “The connection among local authorities, local residents and tourism businesses is weak in planning for tourism development (P3). The result indicated that Kinh stakeholders (mean = 3.79, SD = 0.82) are more in agreement than Ethnic minorities (mean = 3.35, SD = 1.00). Kinh stakeholders might more understanding than Ethnic minorities that tourism planning requires participation and inputs of many parties, however, in practice there is a poor connection among stakeholders in tourism planning, thus they present higher mean score than ethnic minorities in this statement.

The result presented on the table 6.14 revealed that there was a significant difference between the two groups in response to statements that “The local authority pays attention to the views of local stakeholders when making tourism plans for Sapa” (P4). Both groups present low mean scores in this statement. However, more respondents among the Ethnic minorities (mean = 2.97, SD = 1.02) are in agreement than Kinh stakeholders (mean = 2.74, SD = 0.89) that the local authorities consider the views of local stakeholders when making tourism plans for Sapa. The contextual explanation is that the Vietnamese government has many prioritized policies or plans for Ethnic minorities in highland areas, including Sapa (Chapter 4, section 4.8), thus Ethnic minorities may think that the local authorities included their views in the tourism planning process.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Kinh</th>
<th>Ethnic Minorities</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P1. Current participation among stakeholders in tourism planning takes top-down approach.</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>3.93 0.77</td>
<td>251 3.32 1.06</td>
<td>7.12 0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P2. Local authorities, local residents and tourism business worked together to make tourism plans for Sapa.</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>3.04 0.84</td>
<td>251 2.93 1.01</td>
<td>1.29 0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P3. The connection among local authorities, local residents and tourism businesses is weak in planning for tourism development.</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>3.79 0.82</td>
<td>251 3.35 1.00</td>
<td>5.15 0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P4. The local authority pays attention to the views of local stakeholders when making tourism plans for Sapa.</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>2.74 0.89</td>
<td>251 2.97 1.02</td>
<td>-2.55 0.01*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P5. There is no domination in the collaboration among tourism stakeholders in tourism planning.</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>2.88 0.92</td>
<td>251 2.85 0.95</td>
<td>0.62 0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P6. The tourism stakeholders do not hold agreed views about tourism planning for Sapa.</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>3.07 0.78</td>
<td>249 3.10 1.04</td>
<td>-0.27 0.79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at 1% level

There was no significant difference between Kinh and Ethnic minorities in the statement “Local authorities, local residents and tourism businesses worked together to make tourism plans for Sapa” (P2). Both groups present mean low scores of 3.04 and 2.93 respectively to this statement. This result suggests that the respondents in this study have very low interaction, communication and connection to work together in order to develop tourism plans in Sapa.

The result in table 6.14 indicates that the two groups were not significantly different in their responses to the statement that “There is no domination in the collaboration among tourism stakeholders in tourism planning” (P5). Kinh and Ethnic minorities present low mean scores of 2.88 and 2.85 correspondingly to this statement. It could be explained by arguing that both groups have limited participation in the collaboration process in making tourism plans for Sapa, thus they may not know about the issue of domination in tourism.
planning in which Kinh stakeholders mainly manipulate and control all tourism planning activities in Sapa (as mentioned previously). In addition, both groups were not significantly different in their responses to the statement that “The tourism stakeholders do not hold agreed views about tourism planning for Sapa” (P6). The result suggests that Sapa stakeholders in general believed that there was not a shared or common view among stakeholders in relation to tourism planning for Sapa. This finding is congruent with the finding in Stage One which reveal a lack of shared vision among stakeholders in relation to tourism planning.

6.6.3. Engagement in tourism planning and decision-making processes

Table 6.15 shows the results of stakeholder engagement in tourism planning and decision-making processes. Sapa stakeholders were asked about their participation in tourism planning. The result reveals that 77.1% of Kinh respondents and 76.6% of Ethnic minorities had not been informed about tourism plans in their area, this finding reinforces the Stage One interviews in which respondents stated that many Sapa stakeholders lacked information and that they were not invited to meetings to discuss tourism plans. This finding also reinforces the study of Michaud and Turner (2017, 46) who revealed that local residents had not been informed or were not engaged in a public consultation process with regard to tourism-related plans in the district. One interviewee in their study stated “We get told nothing about the plans for our town, nothing. One day there’s a school there and that’s where our kids go, the next we are being told it has to move because investors now own that land. Move a school”.

Table 6.15. Engagement in Tourism Planning and Decision-making Process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Kinh (n=205)</th>
<th>Ethnic Minorities (n=252)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes (%)</td>
<td>No (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E1. Have you been informed about any tourism plans in your area?</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>77.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E2. Have you been invited to take part in meetings/surveys to express your opinions about tourism plans in your area?</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>86.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E3. Have you been involved in collaborative teams working on tourism planning in Sapa?</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>93.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E4. Have you had any input into the decision-making process of tourism development in Sapa?</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>91.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are only 13.2% and 11.5% of Kinh and Ethnic minority stakeholders respectively who have been invited to participate in meetings or to respond to a survey regarding their opinions about tourism plans (E2). There is a small portion of respondents who have been involved in collaborative teams working on tourism plans (6.9% and 11.9% for Kinh and Ethnic minorities) (E3). The rest of respondents 93.1% and 88.1% do not have an opportunity to work on tourism planning. However, data reveals that Ethnic minorities (11.9%) have more opportunities to work on tourism planning in collaborative teams than Kinh stakeholders (6.9%), and a possible explanation is that in Sapa there are a number of international projects (see Chapter 2) which support Ethnic minorities participating in tourism activities and planning.

6.6.4. Residents, tourism businesses and government officials’ perceptions of participation and collaboration in tourism planning.

The findings from Stage One (Chapter 5) reveal that there was a difference in perspectives of participation in tourism planning between respondents at lower level and the ones at higher level government positions. The differences in perceptions of current participation and collaboration in tourism planning between groups discussed in Chapter 5 are not only because of ethnicity but also the positions these respondents held in society. Therefore, this section presents a one-way ANOVA analysis to compare the perspectives of three stakeholder groups about their participation and collaboration in tourism planning. The stakeholder groups are: Government officials (G), tourism business owners (B), and local residents (R). Post hoc tests utilizing Tukey and Tamhane were conducted to find out which pairs are different. The Tukey test is applied when equal variances are assumed, but the Tamhane test is conducted when equal variances are not assumed.

The result of the Tamhane test indicated that there was no significant difference between the three stakeholder groups’ responses to the statement that “Current participation in tourism planning follows a top-down approach” (P1). This finding supports the outcome of Stage One interviews for this thesis. It is possible to explain that the top-down approach in planning is common in Vietnam, with the control of central government (see Chapter 4), thus three stakeholder groups presented similar responses to the current tourism planning that followed a top-down approach.
Table 6.16. Test of significance between Stakeholder groups regarding Participation and Collaboration in Tourism Planning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Government Official (G)</th>
<th>Tourism business owners (B)</th>
<th>Local residents (R)</th>
<th>Sig Levene Test of Homogeneity</th>
<th>F-value</th>
<th>Sig ANOVA</th>
<th>Tukey Test</th>
<th>Tamhane Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P1. Current participation of stakeholders in tourism planning takes top-down approach.</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P2. Local authorities, local residents and tourism business worked together to make tourism plans for Sapa.</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>15.02</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
<td>G&gt;B, R</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P3. The connection among local authorities, local residents and tourism businesses is weak in planning for tourism development.</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>0.01*</td>
<td>B&gt;G</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P4. The local authority pays attention to the views of local stakeholders when making tourism plans for Sapa.</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P5. There is no domination in the collaboration among tourism stakeholders in tourism planning.</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>16.65</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
<td>G&gt;B, R</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P6. The tourism stakeholders do not hold agreed views about tourism planning for Sapa.</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>10.90</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
<td>R&gt;B, G</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at 1% level

The result of the ANOVA test between groups found significant differences in four statements of P2, P3, P5, P6 (p<0.01), (Column 7, Table 6.16). The results of the Levene test for homogeneity of these statements are higher than 0.05, which suggests that equal variances are assumed; thus, post hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test was then conducted to determine which specific groups were different (see table above). The results reveal that differences in perceptions about the current participation and collaboration in tourism planning do exist between stakeholder groups.

Government officials and tourism business owners have different perceptions in response to four statements (P2, P3, P5 and P6) relating to current participation and collaboration in tourism planning. Responses by government officials show statistically significant differences from the local residents in relation to three statements (P2, P5 and
Thus, this result supports the finding in Chapter 5 that differences between government officials and local residents in terms of participation and collaboration in tourism planning exist. Details of differences between government officials, tourism business owners and local residents include the following:

There was a significant difference between government officials, tourism business owners and local residents to the statement that “Local authorities, local residents and tourism businesses worked together to make tourism plans for Sapa” (P2). Government officials (mean = 3.57) scored a higher mean than tourism businesses (mean = 2.69) and local residents (mean = 2.92) in response to P2. Thus, this result suggests that government officials perceive that there has been a higher level of collaboration than is experienced by tourism business owners and local residents in Sapa, suggesting a predictably greater degree of satisfaction with planning practices arising from their political dominance. Another explanation could be because government officials hold a position and they are a person who deploys tourism plans thus they believed that all stakeholders have been working together in tourism plans, but this is not experienced by residents and tourism business in practice.

Government officials and tourism business owners differed on the statement that “The connection among local authorities, local residents and tourism businesses is weak in planning for tourism development” (P3). Tourism business owners (mean = 3.86) score a higher mean than government officials (mean = 3.28) in response to this statement. The result suggests that tourism business owners are generally in agreement to a larger extend than government officials that there are poor connections among tourism stakeholders in tourism planning in Sapa, consistent with their responses to P2.

There was a significant difference between local residents, tourism business owners and government officials regarding the statement that “The tourism stakeholders do not hold agreed views about tourism planning for Sapa” (P6). The result indicates that local residents (mean = 3.59) are more in agreement than tourism businesses (mean = 3.03) and government officials (mean = 2.83) that there is a lack of agreed views about tourism planning in Sapa. Again, there is a systematic pattern of response reflecting degrees of satisfaction and dissatisfaction that conform to the hierarchy of political and economic power differentials across the three groups.

6.6.5. Hmong and Other ethnic minorities perspectives on participation and collaboration in tourism planning

The results of an independent sample t-test indicated that there are many similarities between Hmong and Other ethnic minority perspectives on participation and collaboration
in tourism planning (Table 6.17). Both groups share similar responses that tourism planning followed a top-down approach. Both groups present low mean scores regarding the statements that stakeholders in Sapa worked together to develop tourism plans (P2). However, they rated high mean scores in response to the statement that there were poor connections between stakeholders in planning for tourism development in Sapa (P3). These results reflect that there are homogenous perspectives within ethnic minorities in terms of participation and collaboration in tourism planning. There was a significant difference between the two groups on only one statement, and that was statement (P6) regarding the lack of shared views on tourism among stakeholders (see below).

Table 6.17. Hmong and Other ethnic minorities Perspectives of Participation and Collaboration in Tourism Planning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Hmong</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P1. Current participation of stakeholders in tourism planning takes top-down approach.</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>-.824</td>
<td>.411</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P2. Local authorities, local residents and tourism business worked together to make tourism plans for Sapa.</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>-.325</td>
<td>.745</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P3. The connection among local authorities, local residents and tourism businesses is weak in planning for tourism development.</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>-.474</td>
<td>.636</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P4. The local authority pays attention to the views of local residents when making tourism plans for Sapa.</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>-.389</td>
<td>.698</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P5. There is no domination in the collaboration among tourism stakeholders in tourism planning.</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>-.201</td>
<td>.841</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P6. The tourism stakeholders do not hold agreed views about tourism planning for Sapa.</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>-2.116</td>
<td>.035*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at 5% level

6.7. Aspects Motivating and Hindering Stakeholder Participation in Tourism Planning

The findings in the Stage One qualitative research (Chapter 5) revealed some aspects influencing the participation of tourism stakeholders in tourism planning comprising: government policy, economic benefits, social and cultural benefits, and socio-cultural and environmental costs. Thus, the survey’s statements focused on those four aspects that served as an interplay of factors that both motivate and hinder stakeholder’s participation in tourism planning.

6.7.1. Aspects of motivations

There were statistically significant differences in mean scores for Kinh (mean = 4.03) and Ethnic groups (mean=3.55; t = 5.33, p = 0.00, two-tailed) in response to the statement that “The current government’s policy about tourism is good for the local community” (M1). Kinh stakeholders are in greater agreement with this statement than Ethnic minority
respondents which undoubtedly influences their motivation to participate in tourism planning.

There were also significant differences between groups in response to the statement of about economic benefits for individuals and families (M2), Kinh stakeholders (mean = 3.84) consider economic benefits for themselves and their family members more important than Ethnic minorities (mean = 3.61) in their motivations for participation in tourism planning (see Table 6.18). This result could be explained by the fact that the livelihoods of Kinh people mainly depend on economic activities in Sapa, therefore economic benefits are an important factor motivating their participation in tourism planning. This result suggests that with broader involvement of Kinh stakeholders in the survey, both groups rely on tourism as a source of their personal income and their family, not only in the case of ethnic minorities in the Interview stage. In addition, many Kinh respondents in the Interview stage held a government position, hotel and restaurant owners who tend to have more general views about tourism rather than specific benefits for them and their family members. This finding is consistent with Truong (2014) who, indicated that the main driver for local residents’ involvement in tourism is personal economic benefits.

Table 6.18. Aspects motivating Stakeholders Participating in Tourism Planning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects of motivating Statements</th>
<th>Kinh</th>
<th>Ethnic minorities</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M1. The current government’s policy about tourism is good for the local community.</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M2. Economic benefits for myself and my family.</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M3. Social and cultural benefits for local communities</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M4. Participation helps me get to know other people.</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M5. Participation helps me to learn from other stakeholders and share mutual benefits.</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M6. Participation helps to realize goals for tourism development.</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M7. Participation helps to create new opportunities for me.</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at 1% level
Kinh (n=196), Ethnic minorities (n=234)

The results do not support the idea that there are statistically significant differences between Kinh and Ethnic minorities in terms of statements M3, M4, M5, M6, and M7 (Table 6.18). Both groups show no difference in response to the statement about social and cultural benefits for local communities (M3). Thus, this result supports the results of Stage One, which indicated that social and cultural benefits are important aspects influencing motivation
for participation in tourism planning for both Kinh and Ethnic minorities. There was no statistically significant difference between groups in response to the statement that the motivation for participation was because it helps to get to know people (M4). Kinh and Ethnic minorities do not exhibit differences in responding to the statement that Participation helps me to learn from other stakeholders and share mutual benefits (M5). Kinh and Ethnic minorities are also compatible in terms of responses regarding the fact that their motivation to participate in tourism planning helped to realize the goals for tourism development (M6) and create more opportunities for them (M7).

6.7.2. Hindrances to stakeholder participation

The aspects hindering stakeholder’s participation in tourism planning are presented in Table 6.19. There were statistically significant differences in mean scores between the two groups in response to four statements: H2, H3, H5 and H7 (see Table 6.19). Kinh stakeholders (mean = 3.51) scored a higher mean than Ethnic minorities (mean = 3.14) in responses to the statement that “Tourism does not provide economic benefits for myself and my family members” (H2). This finding suggests that Kinh consider economic benefits from tourism more important than Ethnic minorities from participation in tourism planning; thus, if tourism does not provide economic benefits for them this fact could hinder their participation in tourism planning. Similarly, Kinh respondents (mean = 3.46) consider the social and cultural benefits for local communities (H3) more important for participation than Ethnic minorities (mean = 3.01). Kinh stakeholders are more agreement than Ethnic minorities with the statement that “I do not have enough information about tourism planning” (H5); therefore, lack of information about tourism planning could be inferred to be a factor inhibiting Kinh stakeholders’ participation more than for Ethnic minorities.

There were significant differences between groups in response to the statement of H7, where Ethnic minorities (mean = 3.47) consider their limited understanding about tourism planning as something that hinders their participation more than Kinh respondents (mean = 3.05). This result might reflect that limited understanding and low levels of education can act as elements hindering the participation of ethnic minorities in tourism (Hoa & Lan, 1999).
Table 6.19. Aspects hindering Stakeholders Participation in Tourism Planning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hindering aspects</th>
<th>Kinh</th>
<th>Ethnic minorities</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Statements</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1. The current government’s policy about tourism is not good for local community.</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2. Tourism does not provide economic benefits for myself and my family.</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3. Tourism does not provide social and cultural benefits for local communities.</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4. Tourism results social-cultural and environmental cost for local communities.</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5. I do not have enough information about tourism planning.</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6. I do not have a chance to participate in tourism planning.</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H7. I do not understand about tourism planning.</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at 1% level
Kinh (n=196), Ethnic minorities (n=234)

Both groups of Kinh and Ethnic minorities share similar responses regarding the statement that the current government’s policy on tourism is not good for the local community (H1) and felt that this fact could hinder their participation in tourism planning. This result underpins the finding of the Stage One research that if government policy is not workable for the community then it hinders the participation of stakeholders in tourism planning. Ethnic minorities and Kinh respondents present similar responses regarding (H3) that if tourism increases cultural and environmental costs for community it could discourage participation in tourism planning. This result is also supported by the findings of Stage One.

6.7.3. Hmong and other Ethnic minorities perceptions of aspects motivating and hindering participation in tourism planning

The results of an independent sample t-test show that there were few significant differences between Hmong and Other ethnic minorities in aspects motivating and hindering participation in tourism planning. Both groups feel that government policy is an important aspect motivating them to participate in tourism planning. As mentioned previously, Chapter 4 indicated that the Vietnamese government has many policies which prioritize Ethnic minorities. If the implementation of such policies has not conformed to Ethnic minority cultural values, it is very difficult for it to succeed. Therefore, the results of this study also support the point that Ethnic minorities consider policy as a crucial aspect motivating them to take part in tourism planning. All groups are share views on the importance of economic benefits for themselves and their family members to motivate their participation in tourism planning.
planning. In addition, there were no significant differences with regard to the statement that “If tourism results in social, cultural and environmental costs for local communities these could hinder their participation in tourism planning processes”. Although there were a few significant differences between groups, Hmong and other Ethnic minorities share many similarities in terms of aspects motivating and hindering them to participate in tourism planning.

### Table 6.20. Hmong and Other ethnic minorities’ Perspectives of aspects Motivating and Hindering Participation in Tourism Planning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Hmong</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M1. The current government’s policy about tourism is good for the local community.</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>-.707</td>
<td>.480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M2. Economic benefits for myself and my family.</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>-1.450</td>
<td>.149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M4. Participation helps me get to know other people.</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>-.275</td>
<td>.784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M5. Participation help me to learn from other stakeholder and share mutual benefits.</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>-1.48</td>
<td>.882</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M6. Participation helps to realize goals for tourism development.</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>.057</td>
<td>.955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M7. Participation helps to create new opportunities for me.</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>-1.471</td>
<td>.143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1. The current government’s policy about tourism is not good for the local community.</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.162</td>
<td>.247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2. Tourism does not provide economic benefits for myself and my family.</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>2.306</td>
<td>.022*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3. Tourism does not provide social and cultural benefits for local communities.</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>3.351</td>
<td>.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4. Tourism results social-cultural and environmental cost for local communities.</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>-.098</td>
<td>.922</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5. I do not have enough information about tourism planning.</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>.169</td>
<td>.866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6. I do not have a chance to participate in tourism planning.</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>.894</td>
<td>.372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H7. I do not understand about tourism planning.</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>-3.057</td>
<td>.002**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at 5% level
**Significant at 1% level

### 6.8. Kinh and Ethnic minorities views of each other

The current study investigated the perceptions of Kinh people have of Ethnic minorities and vice versa. At the end of each survey, if the respondents were Kinh, they were asked to describe Ethnic minority people with three words and vice versa. When Kinh respondents were asked to describe Ethnic minority people, many of them mentioned Hmong, since in Sapa the Hmong people account for 52% of the ethnic minority population (Duy, 2015).

Some respondents were hesitant or refused to describe other people, as they felt that this was a sensitive or political issue. In the end, there were 170 valid answers from Ethnic
minorities and 157 from Kinh respondents. All words and texts from respondents were written down in the questionnaires. Subsequently, all texts and words were entered into a computer and analyzed by a word cloud in Microsoft Word, 2019. The word cloud was used to visualize how frequently words appeared in the text. This technique helped to illustrate an assemblage of words that are represented in font sizes to reflect how frequently they appeared in the source text (Hunt, Gao, & Xue, 2014). This technique provided a visual insight into the evolution and disappearance of major research themes. The results from the word cloud are described in the following sections.

6.8.1. Kinh respondents’ perceptions of Ethnic minorities

Some key words emerged and are reproduced in Figure 6.1. Most Kinh respondents’ views of Ethnic minorities are negative — dirty, lazy and following. However, some saw ethnic minorities as honest, hard-working and wise people. It is evident that most Kinh respondents perceive ethnic minorities as a homogenous population that is poor, and underdeveloped (Hạnh, 2008). In a personal conversation I had with a Kinh resident who has lived in Sapa for more than 30 years, he commented that due to tourism, Hmong people in Sapa Town are wiser or smarter than Hmong in the villages, because they are more often contact with tourists. He further noted that, although the Vietnamese government had many policies that prioritize Hmong people such as free tuition fees for Hmong children to go to school (as discussed in Chapter 4), their lives are still poor because they do not have savings, they tend not to engage in planning and are lazy and drunk all the time (personal communication with former director of Union Hotel in Sapa). He also commented that Hmong people in Sapa get married early and have many children and that his perception was that the children were also lazy about attending school. He said that when tourists come to Sapa Hmong women go out to earn money by selling souvenirs and handicrafts, but men stay at home to help with housework. This lifestyle and makes it difficult for them to escape the poverty trap and close the gap in living standards with the Kinh majority. Clearly ethnic and gender stereotypes are prevalent and significantly influence perspectives expressed in the Stage Two survey in which many respondents in both groups of this study are female who depend on tourism for economic benefits which lead to support further tourism development, thus gender could shape as the outcome of this thesis in not only perceptions of tourism impacts but also about the current tourism planning approach in Sapa.

6.8.2. Ethnic minority respondents’ perspectives to Kinh people

Figure 6.1 presents the opinions of ethnic minorities (Hmong, Tày, Giáy, Dao) about their Kinh counterparts. Most of respondents thought that Kinh people are generally good
people. That they are friendly, sociable, united, and helpful. However, many indicated that Kinh people are also dishonest, mean and that they discriminate against ethnic minority people. The results of the survey are also supported by a personal conversation between the researcher and an elderly ethnic minority person who commented that “Most Kinh people are good, but some of them are discriminative to Hmong, look down on Hmong people and tease Hmong people”. Michaud and Turner (2017, p. 45) write that Kinh tourists often poke cellphones in the faces of Ethnic minority people to take photographs without asking or thanking them, that they touch or grab their clothes or jewelry without asking permission and laugh at their Vietnamese language skills. Their study quoted a Dao woman selling textiles in Sapa Town who said: “I don’t like selling to Hà Nội tourists. The foreign tourists are kind and smile; the Hanoi tourists are rude and always want a very cheap price”. Thus, it is very common for Ethnic minorities to experience discrimination in their interactions with Kinh lowlanders.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kinh respondents’ description of Ethnic minority people</th>
<th>Ethnic minority respondent’s description of Kinh counterpart</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

![Word Clouds: Kinh and Ethnic minorities views of each other](image)

*Figure 6.1. Kinh and Ethnic minorities views of each other*
6.9. Qualitative Survey Findings

At the end of the questionnaire, the respondents have some space to express their ideas and concerns about current tourism development in Sapa. The aim of this section is to present the qualitative findings from the survey data collected. Three open-ended questions were included in the survey instrument. Content analysis was used to analyze respondent comments from these three questions. Information from the open-ended questions was used to further explain the statistical results in this chapter and this data can be used as rich information to corroborate the qualitative set of findings presented earlier in Chapter 5.

The three open-ended questions asked were:

1. Do you see any benefits or problems to yourself and to the community if tourism was to increase?
2. What kind of tourist attractions or tourism products would you recommend developing in future tourism planning?
3. Do you have any other comments/concerns about ethnic tourism in your community?

Table 6.21. Benefits of Tourism Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kinhs</th>
<th>Ethnic minorities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Economic Contributions</strong>&lt;br&gt;Most Kinhs tourism stakeholders responded that tourism contributed to local income and to the local economy. For example, “Tourism in Sapa attracts many investments, contributes to the local economy and local residents’ income”, (Government official).</td>
<td><strong>Income Increase</strong>&lt;br&gt;Many respondents confirmed that tourism brought more income for them and their family members. For instance, “Tourism helps me earn more money for my children to go to school. I have more money to buy fertilizers for my crops. Tourism helps me with more alternative sources of income for my family since I could sell things to tourists”, (Local resident).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Improving Quality of Life</strong>&lt;br&gt;Tourism helped to improve the life of residents; local stakeholders also had more knowledge of tourism. Tourism contributed to social benefits for many stakeholders. “Thanks to tourism, many facilities such as schools, hospitals and entertainment centers were built, people have more chance to access these facilities than before”, (Business owner).</td>
<td><strong>Job opportunities</strong>&lt;br&gt;Tourism in Sapa provided more jobs not only for local residents but also for outsiders. Tourism brought more jobs for people in villages, opened more business opportunities for many people. “I can have more homestay business for my family” (Local resident).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employment Opportunities</strong>&lt;br&gt;Tourism stakeholders agreed that tourism created many more jobs for residents. Many hotels, restaurants were built; therefore, there was a need for more staffs. Tourism attracted many graduates in the northern provinces of Vietnam. “Tourism provides many jobs for ethnic local residents to work in hotels, restaurants, tour guide and attract many</td>
<td><strong>Improving Infrastructure</strong>&lt;br&gt;In general, because of tourism, there are more investments in Sapa, many roads accessing the villages were built. All the water systems around Sapa were upgraded due to the construction of so many restaurants and hotels. “I have a better infrastructure for all of us” (Local resident).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
people from other provinces coming to work in Sapa.” (Government official).

road to access my village, so I can bring more tourists to my village with a motorbike”, (Local resident).

Social benefits
Tourism in Sapa helps residents improve quality of life and have more understanding about tourism. “Tourism helps facilitating my life and I can learn foreign languages from foreign tourists” (Local resident).

Table 6.22. Problems of Tourism Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kinh</th>
<th>Ethnic minorities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Pollution</td>
<td>Environmental Issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many tourism stakeholders commented that Sapa was being developed and there was a lot of building underway including, many roads, hotels, restaurants. Hence, environmental pollution was inevitable. Some indicated that because of tourism, much of the natural landscape was replaced by hotels or buildings. Particularly to give way for the cable car. “Some parts of the natural mountain environment were destroyed to open a new road, so I am worried about habitat living on the mountain”, (Local resident).</td>
<td>There is evidence that tourism in Sapa encountered environmental issues. Since, many buildings and roads were being constructed, therefore Sapa Town became very dirty and dusty. Furthermore, due to the volume of tourists visiting, waste was not managed very well so everywhere was very messy. “We seem to not have enough carrying capacity for Sapa, so there is much waste, garbage, and pollution for Sapa now” (Government official).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Engagement of Local Residents in Tourism Planning</td>
<td>Unequal economic distribution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinh stakeholders were concerned about their participation in tourism planning and development in Sapa. Most of the participants indicated they had little information about tourism plans in Sapa. Many respondents revealed that they had very limited participation and no input in tourism planning for Sapa. One business owner wrote “I never take part in any tourism planning processes in Sapa up to now, when I hear about tourism plans, it means that the plan will be implemented soon” (Business owner) “No chance for me to have my opinions on tourism plans in Sapa, and I was</td>
<td>Tourism attracted younger employees from outside Sapa. This led to a problem that ethnic local people without skills and experience may not be able to secure a tourism job. For instance, when the cable car was completed in 2016, it was hoped that it would provide more jobs for ethnic local residents in Sapa. However, this project attracted more employees from outside of Lào Cai province. Many graduates from other provinces came to get a job in the Cable car area in Sapa. “Economic benefits from tourism all come to outside business owners and some specific groups, not to local residents” (Local resident).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic minority residents’ involvement in tourism activities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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never invited by local authorities to participate in tourism planning processes”.
(Hotel owner).

Cultural Changes

Many Kinh stakeholders revealed that the culture of ethnic people significantly changed during the past 10 years. The culture of Hmong people was affected by many foreign tourists. The lifestyle of ethnic people changed to catch up with modernization. For instance, “The clothes of Hmong people now are the same Kinh and others, they do not wear their traditional dresses. They also changed their hair style with yellow or blue colors”, Kinh restaurant owner.

“Tourism results in losing the honesty of Hmong people, they got commercialization in their thinking, because they try to make money everywhere when they see tourists”, (Government official).

Moreover, some of them indicated that the local policy was not workable for them: “I have to preserve our traditional houses, and I am not allowed to modify our house, but local authority do not support us with money to do maintenance on the house”. (Local resident)

Many ethnic respondents who participated in this study revealed that they would like to participate more in tourism activities and plans issued by the local authority. Many of them felt excluded from tourism development, because they did not have information about tourism activities. “I want to have more tourism activities such as festivals, events, in my commune, and I want to take part in these activities, but I do not know where I can register or who I speak to”. (Local resident)

In this section, Kinh and Ethnic minority stakeholders were asked for their comments and concerns about tourism in their community. The responses are summarized below.

Table 6.23. Stakeholder’s Comments about Tourism Development in Their Communities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kinh</th>
<th>Ethnic minorities</th>
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<tr>
<td>Many stakeholders suggested that local authorities should have a strict policy to protect the environment for Sapa. They also expressed concern about the slow process of road construction; hence, the roads needed to be upgraded in a short time to facilitate access by local residents. They explained that the Government also needed to have regulations to preserve ethnic cultures. Furthermore, they did not agree that local authorities should charge entrance fees for tourists along the way from Sapa Town to the villages. This led to many tourists going back to Sapa Town because the ticket was expensive. “Since my restaurant is in the village, so I lost many customers because of expensive tickets, they do not come to my restaurant anymore”, (Government official).</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Government policy</td>
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<tr>
<td>The Government should have policies and regulations to protect tourism, environment, and culture and protect rice field terraces in the villages. One homestay owner noted that “We need more programs, signposts to raise the awareness of tourists and people about environmental protection for Sapa”</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Infrastructure such as roads and hotels should be constructed and completed in a short time, to the benefit of local residents. The Government should encourage more local residents to participate in tourism activities. Local authorities in Sapa should have clear regulations for Homestay building in the villages.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Many people from other provinces came to Sapa for tourism business. Therefore, the local authority should encourage more local residents to participate and become involved in tourism development. One restaurant owner commented “Tourism benefits are for people in Sapa Town, but not for local residents in villages”. Moreover, she commented “Tickets to enter the villages should be reduced so many more tourists could visit Ta Van and Ta Phin villages. Government should invest and build more tourism spots in Ta Phin villages”.

Respondents were asked about whether there were tourist attractions or tourism products that they would recommend developing in the future through tourism planning. The responses are presented below.

Table 6.24. Suggestions for Tourist attractions and Tourism products

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kinh</th>
<th>Ethnic minorities</th>
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<tr>
<td>Many Kinh stakeholders suggested that there needed to be proper management of tourism and better infrastructure to catch up with the demands of tourism growth. Souvenirs made by ethnic producers, local agricultural products, brocade, and cultural identity should be promoted to attract more tourists. The value of the terraced fields should be preserved and promoted to support tourism in Sapa. Traditional cultures in the villages should be maintained and encourage more locals in the villages to set up more homestays. Tourist products, brocade, traditional food, tourist destinations such as Hàm Rông Mountain, the cable car and tourism to the villages should be developed and promoted more. Tourism stakeholders commented that there needs to be quicker development of infrastructure including the roads to villages, electricity systems and clean water to tourist destinations to support the growth of this industry.</td>
<td>The minority respondents suggest tourism products which they would recommend for future tourism planning. Many respondents suggested that Cát Cát Village and Hàm Rông Mountain should be more developed to attract more tourists in the future. Moreover, many ethnic residents pointed out that there needs to be more development of local handicrafts such as Hmong brocade because it represents the colors of Vietnam’s ethnic minority groups. Another tourism recommendation by locals was to protect and promote the traditional foods of Ethnic minority people.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
6.10. Chapter Summary

This chapter reported the findings of the questionnaire conducted with Kinh and Ethnic minority stakeholders which qualified, corroborated and generalised the findings of the semi-structured interviews (see Chapter 5). This chapter underpinned that both Kinh and Ethnic minority groups identified positive and negative impacts of tourism development in Sapa. Both groups showed their agreement in term of the positive economic impacts of tourism. However, Sapa tourism stakeholders also revealed that tourism results in many negative aspects such as socio-cultural changes and environmental degradation. The perceptions of both groups about the statements of the costs and benefits of tourism are compared, an independent sample t-test indicated that there were statistically significant differences between Kinh and Ethnic minorities regarding many statements relating to the benefits and costs of tourism development. That was the fact that Kinh and Ethnic minorities shared more agreement in relation to the statements of costs arising from tourism development than the benefits. Furthermore, this chapter explained there were very few differences within ethnic minorities themselves (Hmong and Other ethnic minorities) in relation to the costs and benefits of tourism development in Sapa.

In terms of the participation and collaboration in tourism planning, the majority of respondents in both groups agreed that current participation of tourism stakeholders in tourism planning followed a top-down approach. Furthermore, 66.7% of Kinh and 47% of Ethnic minority stakeholders agreed that the connections among authorities, local residents and tourism businesses was poor in planning for tourism development in Sapa. The results suggested that the current collaboration among stakeholders in tourism planning is very limited. Sapa stakeholders showed their agreement that government policy, economic benefits for themselves and their families, as well as social and cultural benefits for their communities were factors motivating them to participate in tourism planning and these findings in this chapter validate the findings of Chapter 5. There were few significant differences between Hmong and Other ethnic minorities in terms of participation, collaboration and aspects motivating and hindering their participation in tourism planning.

The Word Cloud analysis illustrated the diverse perspectives of Kinh and Ethnic minorities toward each other. The results support the work of Michaud (2017) which indicated that Ethnic minorities are viewed by Kinh people as backward, slow and have a low educational level and paradoxically regret the cultural changes that have taken place due to tourism development. However, Ethnic minority perceptions of Kinh are generally good, but some of them are dishonest, mean and discriminative.
The qualitative findings on the questionnaire help to support and triangulate the findings in semi-structured interviews and the survey. The next chapter provides a discussion of the findings from Chapter 5 and 6 followed by a summary of responses to the research questions, as well as limitations and implications of this study. Policy recommendations are also presented in the next chapter.
CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

7.1. Introduction

The first part of this chapter summarizes the results of qualitative and quantitative stages of the research followed by each research question and provides a discussion of research findings in relation to issues raised in the literature review (Chapter 2). The second part presents the theoretical contributions of this research to the literature on tourism impacts, social exchange theory, stakeholder and collaboration theory. The last part of the chapter outlines some limitations, implications, suggestions for future research, and presents conclusions for the thesis.

7.2. Discussion of Research Findings

7.2.1. Similarities in perceptions of tourism impacts between groups

The findings indicate that there was general agreement within both Kinh and Ethnic Minority groups in Sapa that tourism has had positive influences such as economic development, income generation and raising of cultural awareness for those communities involved. These results are in line with several studies. For example, Liu et al. (2008) and Zurub et al. (2015) indicate that tourism is a fundamental industry which contributes to economic growth in destinations. Sapa stakeholders also agree that tourism creates employment opportunities not only for local people, but also for workers from other provinces in the tourism sector. This result is consistent with the study of Andereck and Nyaupane (2011) who suggest that tourism generates employment opportunities for local people.

The negative impacts of tourism recognized by Sapa stakeholders include economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts, but they appear to value the positive economic impacts more highly than the negative impacts. Therefore, local planners should ensure that the development of tourism results in more benefits for the local stakeholders. Local authorities in Sapa could disseminate these costs and benefits of tourism development to the wider community which would help local residents to understand more about current tourism development in Sapa and in turn lead to their active and meaningful participation in tourism planning and activities. Broader public understanding about tourism impacts could also help tourism planners in Sapa to have more information as a basis for their inputs in future tourism development plans. Moreover, local authorities can conduct an internal marketing program to promote the positive impacts of tourism to the local population. An understanding of tourism impacts in this study could provide useful information for educators who develop or
design education programs to educate local residents about the positive and negative impacts of tourism development in their community.

**7.2.1.1. Similar responses in perceptions of benefits**

Both Kinh and Ethnic minorities agree that the completion of the cable car in Sapa created more jobs for them (B5). This result is not consistent with the case study of the impact of a cable car in Doi Su Thep, Chiang Mai, Thailand in which there was a conflict interest between the governments’ role as arbiter between stakeholders and their own financial interests (Hirsch & Warren, 2002). The cable car in Chiang Mai is also a controversial issue because it affects an existing Buddhist temple in Doi Suthep, so that there are concerns related to culture and the environment. In the case of Sapa, however, when the cable car was built, the Sun Group also built a large Buddha statue and temple which was positively received by the local community. Thus, this study suggests that when a tourism project brings employment opportunities and does not conflict with local cultures, it could gain an acceptance within communities.

Kinh and Ethnic minorities both agreed that tourism development enhances harmony within ethnic groups (B8). With the tourism development in Sapa, many ethnic groups have a chance to provide services to tourists, this activity helps them come to work together and could enhance the harmony between ethnic groups. This finding reinforces the argument made earlier in this thesis (Chapter 2) that tourism assists in the breakdown of socio-cultural, racial and religious barriers, and helps local communities to live in harmony (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003). This finding might suggest that Sapa authorities should actively provide more opportunities for the many ethnic groups to participate in tourism activities.

Both Kinh and Ethnic minorities share the view that tourism helps to improve their quality of life (B9). This finding supports the seminal study of Andereck and Nyaupane (2011) who indicate that tourism influences the quality of life by improving related items such as public services and providing more recreation opportunities. This study suggests that there is a need for well-managed investments to Sapa that could improve resident’s quality of life and satisfy tourist needs. However, Sapa authorities should control and limit these investments to avoid rapid urbanization and land conversion.

**7.2.1.2. Similar responses in perceptions of costs**

Tourism results in increased living costs and the price of commodities (C1). The respondents in this survey revealed that the price of commodities in Sapa is higher than other provinces. This is explained by the fact that tourist destinations attract many affluent tourists who can afford to pay higher prices for goods and services. The findings in this study are
consistent with the existing literature that suggests that tourism leads to an increase to the cost of living for the host community (Andereck et al., 2005) and causes an increase in the cost of local commodities (Williams & Lawson, 2001). In addition, respondents in this study indicated that housing and land prices are much more expensive than before, which makes it difficult for members of ethnic minority groups in particular to afford to buy their own land. Local authorities could give priority to enabling ethnic minorities to buy less expensive houses such as through a social housing program.

The economic benefits from tourism are unequally distributed to ethnic minority residents (C3). As indicated in the Introduction (Chapter 1) high value economic activities are mainly controlled by Kinh people; many restaurants, hotels and tourism businesses are in the hands of the Kinh, thus, the economic benefits are accrued by them. Ethnic minorities in Sapa have a chance to diversify their income by participating in tourism activities; However, they are still poor because of their lack of skills and proficiency in foreign languages (Truong, 2014). Although, tourism is often considered as a tool for poverty reduction, Chok et al. (2007) argue that there is a lack of convincing empirical evidence that increased tourism development will lead to significant benefits for the poor, such as the minorities in Sapa. They also note that tourism development is highly political, and the values of powerful stakeholders such as Kinh in the Sapa context greatly shape the outcomes. Thus, with the top-down government approach in Vietnam, tourism plans and policies would be less likely to reflect the social, cultural and environmental concerns of local communities and would tend to favor the economic interests of those in power.

Kinh and Ethnic minorities both indicate that the decline in agricultural production is due to tourism development in Sapa (C2). This finding suggests that the provision of tourist services as a way of earning money has resulted in a decrease in time and resources allocated to farming. This is because tourism can provide quick cash, whereas growing a crop takes time, and its success is dependent on the vagaries of weather in Sapa (see Chapter 6). This finding is predictable and consistent with Liu et al. (2008) who describe how the area near a resort directly affected by tourism development had a decline in agricultural growth because many people were engaged in tourism activities. Thus, this study indicates that local authorities should encourage zoning and land use policies to protect farmland and to maintain their crops and rice terrace. Since these are Sapa attractions mechanisms should be found for subsidizing and value adding to farming activities in order to support of this way of life.
Both groups share an awareness that tourism results in land acquisition and conversion (C5). The land acquisition and land use change process is triggered by high demand for land by Kinh people who have moved to Sapa as a New Economic Zone\textsuperscript{16} (Chapter 4), and by the expansion of tourism especially for the development of hotels, restaurants, villas and facilities that support the tourism market. The situation in Sapa is similar to Indonesia where the development of tourism has resulted in extensive land alienation and conversion of agricultural and forest lands (Kodir, 2018). It is necessary for Sapa authorities to review land policy and ensure a balance of land allocation for tourism and agricultural production.

Both groups agree that tourism has resulted in their children losing interest in attending school (C9). Chapter 5 indicated that many ethnic minority children joined their parents to work in tourism or were required to work in the rice fields in the place of their parents, leaving limited or no time for schooling. Similarly, Hoa and Lan (1999) found that ethnic minority children spent most of their time in Sapa selling handicrafts or spending time with foreign tourists. Many of them do not go to school, which creates many latent social consequences in the longer term. As indicated in Chapter 4, although the Vietnamese government has many priorities to encourage ethnic minority children to remain in school, many of them still drop out early. This issue needs to be addressed by state policy on child labour and through schooling subsidies from local authorities.

Kinh and Ethnic minorities both state that tourism causes air pollution and damage to natural landscapes (C10). This finding is in line with studies by Sharma et al. (2016a) and Ko and Stewart (2002) which indicate that negative environmental impacts such as water and air pollution, waste and devastation of natural vegetation can be seen as resulting from tourism. In order to accommodate increasing tourism demand, many hotels, restaurants and recreation facilities have been built. Therefore, large parts of Sapa have become construction sites and there is subsequently a lot of air pollution and loss of natural landscape. Greater regulation and restriction of building construction needs to be implemented by Sapa authorities.

7.2.2. Differences in the perceptions of tourism impacts between groups

The findings of the interview stage of this study reveal an interesting pattern between the two groups in their views on the effects of tourism development in the Sapa region. The main difference in perceptions between Kinh and Ethnic minorities is that, the Kinh

\textsuperscript{16} In 1970s, New Economic Zone (Vùng kinh tế mới) was introduced by Socialist Republic of Vietnam to encourage lowland Kinh people migrated to the northern uplands.
perceived the impacts of tourism in generic ways whilst Ethnic minority populations responded very personally. Kinh stakeholders were concerned about the impact of tourism at the macro level, for example, the way tourism contributes to the local economy, whereas Ethnic minority groups considered how tourism directly influenced their cultures, lifestyles and livelihoods more broadly. The survey finding helps to interpret the differences in perceptions of the costs and benefits of tourism development.

7.2.2.1. Significant differences in statements of benefits

The survey results reveal that Kinh stakeholders agreed more strongly than Ethnic minorities regarding the positive contribution of tourism to local economic development (B1). The finding is consistent with the rationale of Social Exchange Theory (SET) which indicates that the persons who receive the most economic benefits from tourism tend to perceive the positive economic impacts of tourism most strongly. Kinh stakeholders had a more positive perception of the contributions of tourism to job opportunities for themselves and their family members more Ethnic minorities (B2), which logically follows from the fact that many Kinh people have moved to Sapa for economic reasons. Many Kinh people are owners of hotels and restaurants which might lead to their employment of relatives to work in the tourism industry. In the Vietnamese context, clientelism is often prevalent where government officials favor relatives or supporters in decision-making and also in allocating employment opportunities. This contributes to the unequal distribution of economic benefits from tourism (Healey, 1997). Ethnic minorities might be employed in the tourism sector, but in lower positions with lower wages. There is a need of regulations that prioritize Ethnic minorities in terms of job opportunities and for upskilling the local population in order to fill these positions.

Andereck et al. (2005) note that tourism leads to an improvement in community infrastructure and public facilities. Thanks to tourism development, investment in Sapa’s infrastructure, and public facilities such as roads networks, water and electricity systems in Sapa have been upgraded. Kinh stakeholders believe more strongly than Ethnic minorities that tourism helps to improve infrastructure in Sapa (B3) because they have the capital to invest in facilities which advantage their tourism businesses. Another possible reason could be many tourism businesses in hand of Kinh people, and they put in these investments because of clientelism (see Chapter 1). Ethnic minorities lack funding and skills for doing business as mentioned earlier. Thus, greater public investment in training and start-up courses and micro-finance facilities should be provided for Ethnic minorities.
The findings of this study indicate that Ethnic minorities believe more strongly that tourism contributes to the preservation of ethnic minority cultures than their Kinh counterparts (B6). Undoubtedly in the Sapa context tourism development provides many opportunities for Ethnic minorities to showcase their own cultures to tourists, which helps them to celebrate and preserve their cultures. This finding is consistent with the tourism literature which indicates that tourism is perceived by ethnic minorities in the host community as a device for revitalizing cultures (Besculides, Lee, & McCormick, 2002; Ryan et al., 2011). At the same time, there is a need for more promotion and encouragement to ethnic minorities to maintain, preserve their own cultures.

Kinh stakeholders believe more strongly than Ethnic minorities, that tourism helps residents to sell more agricultural products (B4). In Sapa, agricultural products such as vegetables, medical herbs, rice, corn and cardamom are mainly grown by members of Ethnic minority groups. Kinh people in Sapa are predominantly involved in businesses, running most of the local hotels and restaurants, and often playing the role of buyer of products for their business operation, while Ethnic minorities serve as sellers. Kinh tend to assume that the more tourists come to Sapa the better, and that Ethnic minorities automatically benefit by selling more of their agricultural products. This was not necessarily the experience of the Ethnic minorities. Sapa authorities should promote local agricultural products and encourage local businesses to use them. Improved prices and market access would also help ethnic minorities remain attached to their land and agricultural way of life.

The survey stage of the research supported assumptions that tourism helps local residents improve knowledge of tourism and awareness of their local cultures (B7). Local residents had more opportunities to communicate with tourists, thereby improving their English language skills. Such findings are in line with Goeldner and Ritchie (2003) who indicate that tourism development creates significant social and cultural benefits, such as broadening education, and fostering cultural exchange. Kinh stakeholders believe more strongly than Ethnic minorities that tourism increases their awareness of the local cultures Kinh people come to stay and make their livelihoods in Sapa, they believe their increased contact with Ethnic minorities helps them to understand more about these cultures. The minorities on the other hand feel less engaged with Kinh migrants, suggesting that there is a need for more exchange activities through games, cultural events, and festivals between Kinh and Ethnic minorities.
7.2.2.2. Significant differences in perceptions of costs

Tourism stakeholders in Sapa recognized the negative cultural impacts of tourism for instance, resulting in changes in Hmong’s appearance, lifestyles and in the commercialization of local cultures, a point also made in the study of Hoa and Lan (1999). Kinh stakeholders agreed more strongly than Ethnic minorities with the statements in the quantitative survey that “Tourism results in changes of ethnic cultures” (C4) and “Tourism increases commercialization of local cultures” (C7). The possible explanation for these statements could be different in ideology, perceptions and valuations which constitute the key elements of culture of both groups. Another explanation on surface is that Kinh have observed the changes of ethnic minorities over the years and they see the changes of hair style, clothes and modified festivals of ethnic minorities. This could lead to the result that Kinh agree more strongly than Ethnic minorities that tourism results in changes and commercialization of the local cultures. In addition, Kinh are more in agreement that tourism degrades the morals of local people than Ethnic minorities (C6). These findings are consistent with Kayat (2002) who investigated the perceptions of tourism impacts between power holders who own land, have access to capital, hold high positions, and have high levels of education and non-powerful residents in Langkawi. The study showed that the respondents in the group with more power such as the Kinh group in Sapa expressed their concerns about social and cultural costs brought by tourism to the communities. However, this finding does not support the tourism literature which indicated that the host community such as Ethnic minorities in Sapa more concerned about the socio-cultural effects of tourism than guests such as Kinh (Brunt & Courtney, 1999; Holden, 2010).

The building of the cable car devasted some parts of the mountain ranges and could affect some habitats in Hoàng Liên National Park and the livelihoods of ethnic minorities. Both groups of tourism stakeholders in Sapa do agree with the statement that “Building the cable car caused damage to natural landscapes” (C11). However, Ethnic minorities are more in agreement with this statement than their Kinh counterparts. As explained earlier, this is because their livelihoods are more dependent on nature, such as crop growing and hunting in the mountains, than Kinh people are. This finding supports the literature that the greater the degree of community attachment, the more residents evaluate environmental impacts negatively (Jurowski et al., 1997). Following the logic of this finding, one advantage of greater participation of Ethnic minorities in tourism planning would likely be better protection of environmental values.
The findings of this study indicate that Kinh respondents are more in agreement that tourism results in urbanization in Sapa than Ethnic minorities (C12). The rapid growth of tourism in Sapa is a consequence of urban transformation with large-scale investments. Chapter 4 indicated that there was a rapid increase in the number of hotels, restaurants, and other forms of accommodation. These facilities and investments are normally in the hands of Kinh middle class who mostly come from Hanoi and surrounding provinces. It is unclear why Minority groups were less likely to perceive the negative impacts of urbanization given their cultural attachment to places that were not urban. Nonetheless, local authorities should research the capacity of Sapa tourism and to constrain such rapid urbanization.

7.2.2.3. Implications of differential perceptions of the relative benefits to costs arising from tourism development

The differing interests of stakeholder groups must be understood for tourism development to have the greatest chance of success (Byrd et al., 2009). The survey findings indicate that there are more differences in perception of the benefits than the costs of tourism development. The main reason for disagreement between groups could be unequal distribution of economic benefits from tourism, as mentioned previously, Kinh stakeholders mainly control economic activities in Sapa. Such unequal of benefit sharing could be challenged to include local residents in tourism planning. Latip et al. (2018) argue that effective and productive community involvement in the context of indigenous tourism depends on having mutually beneficial relationships between local stakeholders in the community. However, such relationships could not be achieved in Sapa due to the differences in values, culture and social roles, as well as political and economic positions, which may act as a barrier to Ethnic minorities and Kinh stakeholders reaching mutual understanding.

Another reason for such differences in the sharing of benefits from tourism between groups could be the limited genuine participation of local stakeholders at community level in tourism activities. Rasoolimanesh, Jaafar, Ahmad, and Barghi (2017) indicate that the success of local community participation depends on the institutional or legal framework that guides participation as well as the education level or personal interests of individuals. Unquestionably, in the Vietnamese context, the top-down tourism planning approach makes it more difficult for Ethnic minorities to have a presence in the planning processes (Nguyen Huy, Diane, & Newsome, 2020). This study shows that the low education level of ethnic minorities makes it more difficult for them to achieve fair economic benefits from tourism. This study confirms the work of Truong (2014) showing the barriers which restrict ethnic
minorities from participating in tourism activities are a lack of professional knowledge and skills in tourism. Clearly political and educational factors are linked factors in explaining Ethnic minority disadvantage and exclusion.

7.2.3. Personal Benefits and Support Tourism Development

In term of personal benefits from tourism, both groups acknowledged that tourism brings many personal benefits for them. Interview results indicated that tourism helps stakeholders to cover their expenses and contribute to family income. This finding is refined in the survey results which reveal that the majority of Kinh and Ethnic minorities agreed with the statement “Tourism helps them to pay for my daily expenses” (PB1). As argued in Chapter 2 personal benefits directly affect the perceptions of tourism impacts and are related to support for tourism development. Thus, tourism policy makers should emphasize policies that maintain priority for residents’ benefits derived from tourism activities.

This study indicates that there are social and cultural benefits from tourism which helps local residents improve their tourism knowledge, communication skills, and increasing their cultural awareness. These findings are in line with a work of McIntosh (2002) who indicates that personal benefits from tourism need to include non-economic values such as better education opportunities, more understanding of people and culture (see Chapter 2). Thus, it is suggested that investment in infrastructure and public services that benefit the community while respecting and protecting local customs and cultures is important. In addition, it is very important for Sapa authorities to enhance residents’ sense of belonging with the community by respecting the rights, values, symbols and customs of Ethnic minorities.

With regard to the support for tourism development, the findings of both stages suggest that Sapa stakeholders with varying reservations support tourism development. Both groups recognized the costs of tourism development, but because they had greater dependence on tourism for economic purposes, they were willing to accept the costs of tourism in their community. This finding is in line with the seminal research of Liu and Var (1986) which shows that communities view tourism as an important means of improving their economic status and they tend to overestimate the benefits of tourism and underestimate its costs. Moreover, the study finding also supports the view that benefits from tourism lead to support for further tourism development, a view which is evident in many of the key studies in the field (Andereck et al., 2005; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Perdue, Long, & Allen, 1990). However, findings of both stages reveal that Kinh people are more in support of tourism because of the greater economic benefits they derive than Ethnic minorities who
advocate for tourism not only for its economic purposes but also for its socio-cultural benefits, such as pride and recognition of their culture. In addition, Kinh people agree more strongly with the statement that tourism brings more benefits than costs to communities than Ethnic minorities. Since ethnic minority people and their cultures are the key components of local tourism development in Sapa, and they are deeply connected to the place as their homes, they experience the costs of tourism development more than Kinh stakeholders. Ethnic minorities who have strong, long-term attachment to their communities are more concerned about the negative impacts of tourism than those less attached such as Kinh stakeholders. As a result, Kinh stakeholders are more in support of additional tourism activities and development in communities than Ethnic minorities. McCool and Martin (2016) also found that newer residents are more in favor of further tourism development than long-term residents. Local government should ensure that the negative impacts of tourism are minimized by setting and implementing socio-cultural and environmental protection.

7.2.4. Forms of stakeholder participation in tourism planning

7.2.4.1. Top-down planning approach

In Vietnam many tourism development projects are designed and planned by the Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Sport. The local tourism authority is only responsible for supervising projects and reporting to the minister. The central government has put in place mechanisms for local consultation, but so far, the consultations are limited to government seeking local endorsement than really encouraging a system for formal public input to development plans and processes (Chapter 2). The findings in this study also indicate that stakeholder participation in tourism planning in Sapa, Vietnam follows a top-down approach, due to the political system, with little in the way of structural support for genuine local engagement. There are very few opportunities for ethnic local community members to voice their concerns or provide inputs to government plans and proposals. These results are in line with the study by Downe, Cowell, and Morgan (2016), which showed that local people in most developing countries tend to have limited input in political decision making due to dominant local and national groups that keep them in a subordinate position. Tosun (2006) presents three types of community participation -spontaneous, induced, and coercive. Induced participation described as top-down, mostly indirect, tokenistic and manipulated, is common in developing countries such as Vietnam. This situation is also referred to as passive participation, which occurs when people are merely involved in the implementation of decisions about which they were not consulted.
It is important that Sapa local authorities make appropriate use of participation mechanisms to encourage the ethnic local community members to become involved in tourism development and planning. These may include communication activities, meetings, focus groups, and surveys. The Vietnamese government could adjust the approach to tourism planning to achieve a high degree of citizen involvement, equity and efficiency (Simmons, 1994). There is a need to involve more local stakeholders in tourism planning and development; there also is a need to change the traditional top-down, centralized method of governance to a decentralized approach in order to encourage broader community participation in tourism planning and development. With the participation of local residents in tourism, local communities are empowered by taking control over the development and management of the tourism where they reside (Lew & Hall, 1998). Vargas-Sánchez, Porras-Bueno, and Plaza-Mejía (2011) argue that such a level of community control could not only provide communities with a sense of ownership and belonging but also might have resulted in developments that are more culturally and environmentally appropriate.

**7.2.4.2. Opposing views between stakeholders**

This study reveals that at an on-site management level, there are contradictory perspectives on participation in tourism planning between high ranking (Kinh) and low ranking (Ethnic) management levels. Stakeholders at the local level indicated that they have very limited participation in tourism planning, however, Kinh tourism stakeholders at top-management level did not share this view. This finding reinforces the argument of Nguyen (2014) that the citizen participation in political activities in Vietnam is procedural rather than substantive (see Chapter 2). Such limited participation suggests that local residents lack power and indicates an imbalance of power in tourism planning in Sapa, even though they are legitimate stakeholders in tourism development. In reality, full local resident participation in tourism planning is not feasible in all contexts and stages due to structural barriers and limited resources (Tosun, 2001). However, wider engagement with indigenous residents in tourism planning processes and the move towards higher levels of participation should be an integral component of a long-term strategy and revised vision for planning.

The opposing views between the two groups regarding participation in tourism planning are likely to increase the difficulty of promoting collaborative approaches in tourism planning in Sapa. The situation reported at Sapa indicates a lack of shared vision which is one of the main problems faced by community-based tourism and participative approaches (Sautter & Leisen, 1999). Exclusion of local stakeholders from the design and implementation of tourism plans in Sapa is common to research findings in other developing
countries (Timothy, 1999; Tosun, 2000). In addition, moving toward participatory tourism development policy requires a change of public administration systems including tourism planning. Accordingly, local government should be re-organized to reflect the concerns and interests of local people in general and tourism stakeholders in this context. In addition, there is a need for a formalized forum for regular interaction among tourism stakeholders to discuss and share ideas about tourism planning and development in tourism settings. Hall (2008) also suggests that to strengthen destination management, stakeholders need to work together and apply a bottom-up management system, providing educational programs to inform public perceptions, as well as conducting scientific research on the broad impacts of tourism – social, cultural, environmental and economic.

The participation of local stakeholders or communities would not only achieve more efficient and more equitable distribution of material resources, but also share knowledge among stakeholders. Wider participation of stakeholders could bring ideas and knowledge from many disciplines, this would also help to enable redistribution of power and to fairly redistribute the benefits and costs of tourism development. This is very important for Sapa in which political power tends to rest mainly in the hand of Kinh elites, while Ethnic minorities carry the burden of the many costs of tourism development. Thus, local authorities in Sapa should focus on improving the knowledge and awareness of Ethnic minorities to increase their willingness to participate in tourism activities. In addition, Rasoolimanesh et al. (2017, p. 150) argued that local residents in many developing countries are simply not interested in participating in tourism development unless they believe that local authorities are willing to share power and provide suitable circumstance for their participation.

7.2.5. Factors motivating or hindering tourism stakeholders’ participation in tourism planning

The results of the interview stage indicate there are four main factors affecting tourism stakeholder participation in tourism planning. Statements in the survey were based on these four factors, and the survey results refined these findings. These four aspects in this study refer to firstly, the perception of stakeholders toward economic, cultural, social and environmental impacts of tourism development (Latip et al., 2018). Secondly and thirdly, perceived positive impacts motivate stakeholders to support and participate in tourism activities, while perceived negative impacts could reduce their support for tourism development and hinder their participation in the process of tourism planning and development (Gursoy et al., 2002). Finally, beside these perceptions of tourism impacts,
government policies in the context of this study are also considered as an important aspect of motivating and hindering stakeholders’ participation in tourism planning.

7.2.5.1. Government policy

The interview results reveal that if the government had a workable policy for the local community, tourism stakeholders would be more likely to participate in tourism planning. This result validates the survey in which both groups of stakeholders showed agreement with the statement that “The current government policy about tourism is good for the local community”. Both groups also perceived that if the government policy is not workable for local communities, participation in tourism planning will be hindered. The survey finding indicates that Kinh stakeholders are more in agreement than Ethnic minorities that government policy determines their participation in tourism planning. A possible explanation is that in tourism development the government policy mostly focusses on resource ownership including land acquisition, as well as economic support for tourism development. Thus, these favourable policies toward Kinh interests would more likely influence their attitudes toward participation. Ethnic minorities’ main concern with land and culture is in regard to their livelihood and cultural attachments.

The finding is in line with Fletcher et al. (2016), the participation of indigenous people in tourism development needs a suitable governance and policy structure which could protect local cultures while at the same time bringing long-term economic improvement and employment. Furthermore, the finding is supported by Bunten (2010) who suggests that indigenous participation in tourism development needs regulations to protect local cultures from distortion in responses to the pressures of the Western market economy. The finding of this study also supports the work of Ruhanen (2013) indicates that local government plays an important role in facilitating sustainable tourism through policy, planning and regulation. However, the study also reveals that power imbalance, tokenistic public participation and strong influence of central government on local pollical structures could inhibit sustainable tourism development which is apparently the case in the Vietnamese context.

7.2.5.2. Economic benefits for tourism stakeholders

The qualitative interview results indicated that economic benefits for tourism stakeholders and their family members are an important factor motivating their participation in tourism planning. This result is underpinned by the survey stage which revealed that Kinh and Ethnic minority stakeholders both agreed on this aspect. The result is in line with Latip et al. (2018) who indicated that perceived economic benefit is an important factor motivating indigenous people in conservation of protected areas and tourism development programs.
The finding also confirms a study of Rasoolimanesh, Jaafar, Kock, and Ramayah (2015) which showed that economic gain is an important factor to participating in tourism development. Kinh stakeholders are in greater agreement than Ethnic minorities in the statement that economic benefits for themselves and their family members could affect their motivations to participate in tourism planning. As explained in the previous section (7.2.2.1), Kinh people mainly dominate economic activities in Sapa.

7.2.5.3. Social and cultural benefits for local residents

A third factor concerns social and cultural benefits for local residents. As perceived by Sapa tourism stakeholders, if tourism brings social and cultural benefits for local residents, they are more likely to participate in tourism planning, otherwise they are not. This finding is reinforced by the survey results which showed no significant difference between stakeholder groups in this statement. It is also consistent with many previous studies (Látková & Vogt, 2012; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015) revealing that if tourism stakeholders perceived positive socio-cultural impacts of tourism, they are likely to participate in tourism planning and development. In addition, Simmons (1994) suggests that if stakeholders do not understand the impacts of tourism in a community which could be a barrier to participate in tourism planning processes. Reid, Maïr, and Taylor (2000) also indicate that the lack of awareness about the impacts of tourism could lead to limited appreciation of the importance of planning processes by potential participants. Thus, this might suggest that Sapa authority should raise more awareness of local stakeholders about these benefits of tourism through TV, radio channels, leaflets which could help more willing and active participation in tourism. It is also important for planners to ensure that ethnic minority stakeholders could receive such benefits.

7.2.5.4. Socio-cultural and environmental costs

The last factor is the socio-cultural and environmental costs. Tourism stakeholders suggested that if tourism plans incur socio-cultural and environmental costs to communities this could hinder their participation in tourism planning. The mean scores from the quantitative results rated by stakeholders show their level of agreement; there were no significant differences between Kinh and Ethnic minorities in response to this statement. This finding is similar to that of Jaafar, Rasoolimanesh, and Ismail (2017) who revealed that residents’ perceptions of social and cultural impacts were a factor influencing them to participate in tourism development activities. Moreover, Látková and Vogt (2012) reinforce that supporting tourism development heavily depends how local residents perceive the social-cultural impact of tourism development in their communities. Sapa authority could
reduce these costs and the negative perceptions they cause by introducing more regulations to protect the environment and preserve local cultures.

By understanding the interplay of these above factors motivating or hindering the participation of stakeholders in tourism planning, planners in Sapa could adjust the policy to target each tourism group to participate in tourism planning processes. Therefore, suitable plans, policies, regulations, and interventions for each group, especially for ethnic minorities could reduce their concerns about the costs of tourism development. In addition, each strategy could be applied for Kinh or Ethnic minority groups in order to motivate them to participate in tourism planning and development. For instance, authorities in Sapa should listen and understand the concerns of ethnic minorities before the implementation of tourism plans. Furthermore, understanding the cultures of ethnic minorities could help local authorities to successfully apply the government policies.

7.2.6. Current stakeholder collaboration in tourism planning in Sapa

Many tourism development projects in Sapa were a result of collaboration between government and large corporations with very limited input from local stakeholders. Respondents in this study also pointed out that there is very little communication and collaboration among local stakeholders. Many local residents showed a surprising lack of awareness about tourism development projects that were happening in their area. Most decisions about tourism projects were made with little or token consultations with the local stakeholders, whose role was primarily to provide tacit approval of the projects conceived by the authorities in Sapa. Thus, the findings of this study indicate that there are limitations to working together among tourism stakeholders to make tourism plans for Sapa. In addition, the current connection and collaboration among stakeholders is poor in terms of planning for tourism development for Sapa. This could be a result of limited participation in tourism planning (RQ2). Therefore, both Kinh and Ethnic minority stakeholders who participated in this study are aware of the need for stakeholder collaboration in tourism planning.

As argued in Chapter 2 collaboration helps to redistribute power to communities and to resolve conflicts among stakeholders, these are difficult to achieve because at this moment the current level of collaboration among tourism stakeholders in tourism in Sapa is very limited. Previous research indicated that government policy strongly affects destination stakeholders, and collaboration among them really depends on institutional mechanisms and policy settings by government. Thus, the finding of this study suggests that there is a need of continuous monitoring and controlling the actual implementation of the policy in term of collaboration in any specific tourism projects.
There is a need for establishing active local tourism stakeholder collaboration in tourism planning and development. At this stage, Sapa tourism stakeholders do recognize the need for stakeholder’s collaboration, although actual collaboration among stakeholders in tourism planning is limited. Moreover, common vision and mutual understanding among tourism stakeholders need to be developed for effective engagement. At this stage, contributions from ethnic local communities to tourism planning are particularly limited since there is poor connection and communication among tourism stakeholders. Therefore, it is important for Sapa local authorities to open more channels of communication between local residents and government officials as well as structures for stakeholder’s participation in tourism development (Marzuki et al., 2012; Tosun, 2006).

7.2.6.1. Recognition of interdependence and lack of shared vision among stakeholders

Sapa stakeholders recognized that there is a need for building interdependence among them through tourism planning and development. Results from Sapa align with those of Jamal and Getz (1995) who suggested that the first condition of collaboration is the recognition of interdependence of stakeholders. However, in Sapa, interdependence among stakeholders is not yet formalized into an inclusive decision-making structure. As a result, there is a very limited collaborative approach in the tourism planning process, because stakeholders are not informed, and they do not share a common vision about tourism development. Lack of information also leads to isolation of the local community from the tourism development process, and limited open discussion enabling some stakeholders to gain personal benefits from such restricted information could lead to conflicts between local authorities, private interests and resident groups (see Chapter 2).

7.2.6.2. Recognition of mutual benefits derived from the collaboration process

A second condition for collaboration suggested by Jamal and Getz (1995) is the recognition of mutual benefits derived from the process. Both Kinh and Ethnic stakeholders recognized that economic benefit from tourism development is the main factor encouraging them to participate in tourism planning (RQ3). However, the mutual economic benefits accrued are only between Kinh government officials and large corporations such as Sun Group. Exclusion from economic benefits is likely to prevent Ethnic minority stakeholders from joining the collaboration process. However, this issue could be resolved if tourism planners applied suitable policy incentives and government services through taxes which could be distributed fairly. However, Xu, Lü, Chen, and Liu (2009) indicate that tourism income is not shared equitably amongst local residents because of limited skills and capital availability to invest in tourism activities. Hence, there is a need for training and education
to provide knowledge and experience of tourism for ethnic stakeholders who currently lack skills and capacity. Moreover, Bello et al. (2018) suggest that unequal distribution of tourism benefits could be solved with linkages that provide local residents with direct access to tourists and the tourism industry.

7.3. Participation is a two-sided coin

There are many constraints or barriers that limit local tourism stakeholders’ involvement in tourism planning not only in Vietnam but also other developing countries. Such limitations are lack of financial resources, investment capital, know-how, apathy, and a low level of awareness within the local community (Nyaupane, Morais, & Dowler, 2006), (Chapter 2). In Sapa, there is a need for more financial resources, investment and competencies among Ethnic minority stakeholders. Therefore, traditional top-down approaches might still be useful because this could at least provide benefits in terms of employment and compensation for local people who are lacking skills and knowledge. However, traditional top-down approaches could be adjusted to encourage more Ethnic minority stakeholders to participate, contribute, and share their ideas to develop tourism based on the local cultures. Stewart, Dawson, and Draper (2011, p. 104) reinforce the point that ‘the identification of appropriate interventions has a better chance of success if they are developed in collaboration with local people”.

This research provides a practical case study for international researchers and planners who are interested in contemporary tourism planning. First, in Vietnam, the political system under which a tourism plan is formed plays an important role in the process. Second, the power of stakeholders in the community may influence their participation and implementation of a tourism plan. Finally, local residents participating in tourism planning could result in a variety of benefits to the community such as reducing social conflicts and costs. However, there are some disadvantages that must be taken into account to facilitate broad citizen involvement in tourism planning. For example, Jordan et al. (2013) indicated that the major difficulty for participatory planning is the time commitment required. This needs to be applied to all stakeholders to be successful. If communities decide to undertake tourism planning with stakeholder involvement, the plan needs some conditions, and potentially subsidies for ordinary residents to undertake time-consuming roles, for adoption and implementation. The findings from this study suggest that the following approaches will facilitate this process:
1. Development of a shared vision amongst stakeholders
   a. This can be achieved through training, seminars and educational workshops
2. Greater distribution of the benefits and costs of tourism
   a. This includes the development of skills within the local community; and
   b. stronger linkages to provide access to tourism benefits for stakeholders.
   c. Protection and preservation of Ethnic minority cultures

The results of Chapter 5 reveal that there are issues associated with the inclusion of Ethnic minority stakeholders in tourism planning since they lack education and understanding of such planning. Therefore, a third condition facilitating community-based tourism collaboration is the need for a convener who must be legitimate and who has expertise in tourism destinations (Jamal & Getz, 1995). The role of the convener is to identify and bring all legitimate stakeholders to the table. In Sapa, the local authority and NGOs with experiences with ethnic minority groups could perform the role of the convener, particularly in the case where there is limited understanding of tourism by local ethnic minority people, and also where there is need to have a mandate or a representative from Ethnic minority groups. However, if the convener is a Kinh person, they could favour some Kinh stakeholders and marginalize other ethnic people. Thus, a legitimate, expertise and responsible person for tourism planning could act as a convener. Also, as suggested by Bramwell and Sharman (1999) collaboration could be more successful if there is inclusion of stakeholders who are likely to be responsible for policy implementation;

3. Provision of a convener from the Sapa local authority,
   a. Who will engage the Ethnic minority people in the process;
   b. Who is sensitive to Ethnic values; and has
   c. strong knowledge of tourism development.

7.4. Theoretical Contribution

This research primarily contributes to the literature on stakeholder’s perspectives of the tourism impacts, sustainable tourism development, stakeholder participation and collaboration in tourism planning.

7.4.1. Contribution to Tourism Impacts Literature

It is evident that the perceptions of tourism impacts held by local residents have been intensively explored in tourism literature (Andriotis & Vaughan, 2003; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Perdue et al., 1990; Tosun, 2002), (see Chapter 2). Relatively few studies included multiple stakeholders’ perspectives regarding the impacts of tourism, especially in
the context of Vietnam. Therefore, this study helps to build on the existing body of knowledge about stakeholders’ perceptions of tourism impacts in an area with diverse ethnic minorities cultures. This study contributes to the literature on tourism impacts by demonstrating that some existing attributes of tourism impacts must be adapted in order to be relevant to the distinctive characteristics of Sapa, in particular in relation to ethnic minority cultures, and the commercialization of cultures. The first stage of data collection in this study was the semi-structured interview with stakeholders regarding the impacts of tourism, which aimed to help to understand the underlying impacts of tourism for local stakeholders personally and emotionally and generate the specific attributes of tourism impacts in Sapa used in the follow-up survey.

Another contribution of this research to the current literature is that it expands the body of knowledge on stakeholders’ perceptions of tourism development by examining the perspectives of diverse groups of stakeholders where the economy is shifting from predominantly agriculturally based to one in which there is a rapid growth of tourism, as is the case in Vietnam. This contribution to the literature positions this study as complementary to previous research based on Sapa.

7.4.2. Contribution to Social Exchange Theory (SET)

SET has been applied in many studies and destinations (Andriotis & Vaughan, 2003; Látková & Vogt, 2012), (Chapter 2). However, prior to this study, there was a lack of research applying SET in tourist destinations where most of the stakeholders were ethnic minorities. This study has added to the current literature on SET by explaining Kinh and Ethnic minority stakeholders’ perception towards tourism development in a destination with a majority population of diverse minority cultures.

Both groups in this study appreciated the benefits of tourism more than costs, and in general, are supportive of further tourism development (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Vargas-Sánchez, de los Ángeles Plaza-Mejía, & Porras-Bueno, 2009). Consequently, this research supports SET which suggests individuals are likely to participate in an exchange if they believe costs will not exceed benefits. Residents who personally perceive benefits from tourism, are likely to support tourism development. The findings of this study are clearly consistent with the logic of SET. Accordingly, this study confirms that SET can be applied to explain stakeholder’s perceptions in diverse cultural destinations where most ethnic minority stakeholders are low status, poor and marginal in society. This study also supports the work of Maruyama et al. (2019) who suggested the importance of understanding the
perspectives of multiple groups of people in a community, because people may have different perceptions toward the tourism environment in their community.

7.4.3. Contribution to Stakeholder Theory

Plans for tourism development in Sapa affect many groups of people, primarily Kinh, Hmong, and a smaller number of Other minority groups. Therefore, these stakeholder groups are legitimate participants in tourism plans and activities. However, the situation in Sapa indicates that many of them at the local level are excluded from the development process. Stakeholder theory developed by Freeman (1984) focuses on the relationship between the interests and opinions of stakeholders, organizational objectives and strategies. Stakeholder theory posits that successful strategies account for the interests and perceptions of all stakeholders (Byrd, 2007) and “how stakeholders with similar interests or rights form a group” (Wagner Mainardes, Alves, & Raposo, 2011, p. 229). However, in this research, there are dissimilar perceptions of tourism impacts between the Kinh and Ethnic minority groups; therefore, it may be difficult to form one group to successfully implement tourism plans. Furthermore, Byrd (2007) suggests that sustainable tourism demands that interests, needs, and attitudes of various stakeholders should be considered and their participation in tourism development should be encouraged. The participation of local stakeholders would lead to the collaboration between community members to achieve common goals, improve the local community and enable them to pursue individual benefits.

Stakeholder theory indicates that there is a need to identify the interest of all stakeholders. By identifying the interests of the affected tourism stakeholders, this research is in line with stakeholder theory that stresses the importance of identification and involvement of legitimate stakeholders in tourism planning for development and as an essential tool for effective tourism management. Therefore, this study supports the theory that identifying and understanding the respective perceptions of tourism impacts and the full participation of both groups is necessary for tourism planning processes. Although, all stakeholders could not to be involved equally in the tourism planning process it does require that all interests are identified and understood.

The study provides empirical support to the stakeholder theory that all stakeholder groups that have a stake or legitimate interest should collectively manage tourism destinations. The results reinforce the argument that the achievement of sustainable outcomes requires the active participation of all relevant stakeholders (Byrd, 2007). Stakeholder participation is even more crucial when the interests of various stakeholder groups are in conflict. Given that stakeholder participation is not a one-time activity, various
stakeholder groups should be involved through the entire planning, management, and decision-making process.

7.4.4. Contribution to Collaboration Theory

Collaboration theory in tourism planning at community level has been applied in few studies, and most of these studies focus on developing the theoretical constructs, scope and structure of collaboration (Gray, 1989; Jamal & Getz, 1995; Jamal & Stronza, 2009). Lack of previous studies applied the collaboration theory in tourist destinations with diverse ethnic groups who have different cultures such as Sapa (Le, 2014; Truong, 2014). Thus, this study makes a valuable theoretical contribution to both collaboration theory and indigenous tourism literature.

A seminal study by Gray (1989) indicated that collaboration could be used effectively to resolve conflict and advance shared visions where stakeholders recognize the potential advantages of working together. The results of this study support collaboration theory in terms of arguing that Sapa tourism stakeholders recognized the need of working together to achieve an aim for tourism development. Consequently, the finding of this study suggests that current collaboration among stakeholders in Sapa is at the problem-setting stage in Gray’s 3-stage model and can be classified as characterized by the exploratory form (see Chapter 2) in which stakeholders start to appreciate the interdependence among themselves to solve problems that cannot be handled by an individual, and there are loosely linked relationships among stakeholders in this form.

Jamal and Getz (1995, p. 188) posit that “collaboration for community-based tourism planning is a process of joint decision making among autonomous, key stakeholders of an inter-organizational, community tourism domain to resolve planning problems of the domain and/or to manage issues related to the planning and development of the domain”. However, the results of this study showed that the collaboration among local tourism stakeholders in Sapa tourism planning was very limited. Thus, the joint decision making among key tourism stakeholders in Sapa could be difficult to achieve. This study supports a work of Jamal and Getz (1995) proposes the following to facilitate stakeholder collaboration at community level: a recognition of interdependence among stakeholders; recognition of mutual benefits; and a need for a convener experienced in community-based tourism collaboration.

This study has not only contributed to collaboration theory, but also has implications for related topics in sustainable tourism destination management. The use of tourism stakeholder collaboration could be employed as a tool to support the management of sustainable tourism destinations by promoting mutual goals and understanding among
stakeholders in destinations. Hence, an understanding of the roles and the perceptions and values that are common to all stakeholders, but also recognition of knowledge, perspectives and values that are not shared would be important for building effective collaboration. Although, the current study suggests that stakeholders should consider their capacity to contribute to the process of integration and collaboration, since it is hard for some stakeholders who have limited knowledge contribute to the collaboration process of tourism development. However, their presence and voice must be considered in tourism development processes. In Sapa, this seems to lack both of knowledge of ethnic minorities about tourism and Kinh people failure to recognize the values of environment and culture as well as the difficulties of ordinary people of both groups in understanding a complex and technical issues in tourism planning; in addition, planners and authorities may ignore general difficulties of foreseeing the broader impacts of tourism development. These could make more difficult to implement the collaboration approach.

7.4.5. Contribution to Methodology

There are few studies on resident perceptions and attitudes (Andereck, Valentine, Knopf, & Vogt, 2005; Andriotis, 2005) that systematically incorporate the perceptions of diverse cultural and socio-economic groups. Thus, this study addressed these shortcomings by including various stakeholder groups, such as government officials, tourism business owners, academics as well as local residents of different ethnic backgrounds as respondents in this study. Research data has been collected through several methods including semi-structured interviews, questionnaire surveys, observations, and data that was analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. Thus, research findings have been enriched and verified by cross checking and hence have helped to improve the reliability of the research overall. This research was designed in two stages where one stage helped to inform the other (the survey stages build on the interview results). The first stage involved semi-structured interviews with key tourism stakeholders in Sapa to gain deep insights into their perspectives on tourism impacts as well as their level of participation and collaboration in tourism planning. The second stage aimed to elicit data from a greater number of respondents and therefore helped to expand the breadth of the research. The study responds to Beeton (2005) call for tourism scholars to use multiple research methods in tourism studies. Furthermore, semi-structured interviews and onsite and face-to-face questionnaire surveys proved most suitable in the case study of Sapa where minority local residents have lower educational levels, which makes it difficult to collect responses through mail or online platforms.
7.4.6. Sustainable Tourism Development

In terms of theory, the three-pillars of sustainability including economic, socio-cultural, and environmental, which are proposed by UNWTO (2005), should be considered. However, in practice obtaining a balance of these pillars has been criticized and has proved difficult to achieve. This was evident in the strong tendency of tourism stakeholders in Sapa to grant greater importance to the positive economic impacts of tourism than the negative environmental and socio-cultural impacts (as mentioned in chapter 5). Therefore, local authorities should aim to balance the development of these three pillars by introducing and implementing regulations to protect the environment and cultural identity of local groups from tourism development; For instance: protecting traditional houses of Ethnic minorities, facilitating Hmong organizing their own Tet holiday and their own festivals and events (see Chapter 4), and especially by providing training and education for Ethnic minorities.

Inevitably, diverse stakeholders in a tourism destination hold different interests, which may lead to conflict over the pillars of sustainability and the relative importance of economic, socio-cultural and environmental aspects in tourism development. In Sapa, the different interests of stakeholders in term of tourism development could be difficult to overcome in the interests of achieving sustainable tourism development in practice.

Tourism is highly political as mentioned earlier, facilitation of tourism might not always bring benefits to disadvantaged communities (Chok et al., 2007). In addition, the main aim of sustainability is not only to balance the three pillars but also to bring equal benefits to local communities. In order to coordinate and progress all three pillars of sustainability in tandem governance is an important consideration, especially in the Vietnamese context where tourism is mainly controlled by the central government under the communist party who utilize a top-down approach in tourism planning.

Findings from this study indicated that, Ethnic minorities emphasized the importance of engaging local minority residents in tourism activities, due to their greater cultural understanding than Kinh stakeholders and outsiders. However, Kinh stakeholders are more concerned about losing control over tourism management and, on the surface Kinh people worried about loss of cultural traits among ethnic minorities in Sapa due to rapid tourism growth. This could be explained that tourism businesses of Kinh people might depend on ethnic minority culture which are the main component to attract tourists to Sapa. An understanding of stakeholder perspectives on sustainable tourism development in a variety of stakeholder groups could assist Sapa planners in measuring the community's knowledge of current tourism development. With this understanding, planners can better address the
concerns in the community and tourism development that represents the interests of all stakeholder groups. In addition, the perceptions of tourism stakeholders on the impacts of tourism influence their support for sustainable tourism development. Thus, there is a need for tourism information sharing among the stakeholders so that informed decision making could be made in the future. There is a need for greater communication between Kinh and Ethnic minority groups, this could help enable the sharing of ideas, concerns, and suggestions which may strengthen partnerships and collaboration among the stakeholders. In addition, sustainable tourism development could be achieved if the interaction between groups are maximized (Hardy, 2005).

7.5. Limitations of the Study

It is acknowledged that there are some limitations associated with this study. First, the primary data was collected in the Sapa region. Although the results of this study could be replicated in other tourist destinations, however, these results should be regarded as directly reflecting only the Sapa region. Stakeholders in other areas might have different perceptions concerning the impacts of tourism development, stakeholder participation and collaboration in tourism planning. Therefore, further development of survey instruments would be required for different local tourism contexts. Second, time and budget were also constrained for this study. Since the researcher was based in Australia during the study period, the timeframe of three months for data collection was somewhat limited to develop a deeper understanding of the cultures of Ethnic minority people. Moreover, language issue should be considered as a constraint since the main researcher is from the Kinh majority and could not speak the ethnic minority languages.

A third limitation is the snowball sampling technique utilized for the stage 1 (interview), although the snowball sampling is considered the best method to obtain respondents in the Vietnamese context when the main researcher had no relationship with tourism stakeholders in the research area. One of the concerns of snowball sampling is the tendency to obtain like-minded respondents, especially in the situation where the process begins with government officials who have an interest in having the study reflect establishment interests. A fourth limitation relates to the sample in the stage 2 (survey), ethnic minorities account for 80% of population in Sapa, whilst they represent only 55% of the sample. Although the target sample for Ethnic minorities is greater than Kinh and research team was trained and could access with ethnic minorities (Chapter 3), however, many questionnaires from ethnic minorities were not completed due to their Vietnamese literacy. Gender could also shape results of this thesis; for instance, in the interview stage
there were more male than female respondents (see Chapter 3) because many interviewees are government officials, managers and leaders in positions normally held by men in the Vietnamese society. This thesis was undertaken at an Australian university and as a result, the review of literature was primarily obtained from western resources which may have resulted in a bias against existing Vietnamese language literature, however the researcher also utilized Vietnamese papers where applicable and available.

An issue in term of methodology for researchers conduct fieldworks among ethnic minorities in upland of the countries where nowadays interweaves economic liberalization with centralized and authoritarian political structures such as Vietnam. Turner (2010) suggested that to be allowed to undertake officially authorized social science fieldwork in Vietnam, researchers must have a current “red stamp” which allows researchers to undertake research at a particular site. Therefore, before conducting interviews with tourism stakeholders in Sapa, I obtained a Letter of Introduction from TUEBA to the Department of Tourism in Lào Cai for a permission to start conducting the interviews. However, in the Vietnamese context, a personal relationship between a researcher and government officials is very important for gaining permission to carry out research and for successful of the interview. These relationship issues have potentials to create conflict between the political interests and the free expression of attitudes of researchers.

7.6. Implications for Future Research

This study can have implications for other tourism destinations with similar characteristics, such as Đà Lạt (a colonial hill station in the southern Vietnam) and Lijiang in China where the culture is a key attraction and tourist numbers have grown at a staggering rate (Wu, Xu, & Eaglen, 2011). This study also provides insights into the perceptions of diverse ethnic groups about tourism impacts, current participation and collaboration of local tourism stakeholders in tourism planning that may apply more widely in developing countries. This study collected data on stakeholder perceptions and attitudes that only provides useful information at one point in time. Further research should be conducted to monitor stakeholder perceptions of tourism development over time (longitudinal studies), so that such results could be compared with this study. Moreover, this study only draws a general conclusion about the current levels of participation and collaboration of Sapa stakeholders regarding tourism planning; future research could examine the findings of this study toward further research in the context of a specific plan for tourism in Sapa. Only study of Woosnam, Maruyama, & Boley (2016) explored levels of emotional solidarity between different cultural groups, Brazilian and Japanese, thus future studies could refine Emotional
Solidarity Scale by examining the relationship between Kinh and Ethnic minorities in Sapa context. Future studies could be enhanced by an anthropological lens to gain deeper understanding about social relationship among ethnic groups. In addition, the other groups of people, for instance Tai-speaking groups such as the Tay who live closer to Sapa and have long been part of feudal systems. Their heritage and cultures now become similar to Kinh majority because of the expansion of Kinh culture in the upland areas. The future research could compare perspectives of Tai-speaking groups with Kinh majority about tourism development.

In Chapter 2, I presented an argument that collaboration for sustainable tourism is important in the context of market failure, and that there is a need for government intervention which requires collaboration between public and private sectors. COVID 19 has obviously impacted on Sapa tourism and other tourist destinations, therefore, future research could examine the extent of collaboration and cooperation between Kinh and Ethnic minorities during and after COVID 19 to see how they deal with this pandemic, because at this moment Sapa stakeholders only recognize the need of collaboration. If they do have stakeholder collaboration to overcome this disaster, has this collaboration helped to redistribute the authorities’ power (Kinh) over communities (Ethnic minorities) in Sapa? This question should be studied in future research.

Future research should incorporate a broader range of concerns and sensibilities into SET because social exchange needs to be taken beyond its limited focus on economic goals. In particular, power and trust have to be considered as important influences on the social exchange process which were not incorporated in the SET model used in this study. Therefore, future studies should incorporate the trust variable and investigate the relationship between political trust and support across different types of tourism development policies and strategies. The findings reveal that government actors influence most tourism planning and stakeholder perceptions in Sapa. Future research should study how powerful groups use their advantageous position in Vietnamese society.

Many aspects motivating and hindering stakeholder participation in tourism planning and development in this study are similar in the MOA model (Motivation, Opportunities and Ability) which was employed in previous studies (Hung et al., 2011; Latip et al., 2018). However, these studies have not considered the government policy as a significant factor affecting the study context. This study found that the government policy factor played an important role in influencing stakeholders’ participation in tourism planning in the Sapa
context. Thus, this current study contributes to the current literature that the government policy could be added to the MOA model for future studies.

7.7. Thesis conclusion

This study aims to investigate the perspectives of Kinh and Ethnic minorities about tourism impacts, participation, and examines their motivations for participating in tourism planning and the current collaboration among stakeholders in term of tourism planning in Sapa, Vietnam. To fulfil these objectives, a mixed method comprising semi-structured interview and follow-up survey questionnaires was employed. In terms of qualitative data analysis, this study utilized qualitative content analysis and direct approach of qualitative content analysis. Regarding quantitative data analysis, this study showed that both parametric and non-parametric tests produced the same results. The interview findings revealed that ethnic minorities perceived tourism impacts personally while Kinh stakeholders concerned about the impacts of tourism more general. The survey findings of this study indicate that there were similarities and differences in the perceptions of tourism impacts between groups, the differences mainly related to the perceptions of statements of benefits arising from tourism. Both groups strongly perceived that participation in tourism planning followed a top-down approach, and different views between stakeholder groups about participation in tourism planning are not only ethnicity but also positions held in society. The study revealed that there were four factors motivating and hindering stakeholder participation in tourism planning. These factors included the government policy, economic benefits and distribution of the benefits, social and cultural benefits for local residents, socio-cultural and environmental costs. The current collaboration in tourism planning is limited due to lack information, weak connection and lack of shared visions among stakeholders.

Within ethnic minorities themselves, there little difference was found in terms of perceived costs and benefits of tourism development, participation, collaboration and motivations for participating in tourism planning. The qualitative data in the survey as well as word cloud analysis helps to deeper understanding the perspectives of both Kinh and Ethnic minorities.

This study suggests that tourism in Sapa is mainly promoted by state and local authorities and outside investors who may have no deep affinity with local culture. Therefore, ethnic tourism tends to become nothing more than a highly commodified, possibly exploitative activity that provides economic benefits to the outside entrepreneurs but returns few benefits to the local community. This is in line with Hipwell (2007) who indicates that external control of tourism development has led to situations where local
people bear the greatest burden of negative impacts of tourism with few benefits in return. Despite the negative impacts of tourism perceived by stakeholders, the findings of both qualitative and quantitative stages of research reveal that participants value the positive economic impacts of tourism more than other impacts such as socio-cultural and environmental effects and consequently support further tourism development.

Vietnamese government policy aims to modernize and support ethnic minority people in Sapa to ‘catch up’ within the market economy\(^{17}\), in order to reduce the poverty gap in rural areas. Such modernization could be criticized for changing the architecture and lifestyle of ethnic people, which is paradoxically a key draw card for tourism. However, culture is not static but dynamic, and perhaps it is not possible for the more traditional lifestyle of ethnic people to remain unchanged in a changing world (Yang & Wall, 2009b, p. 94). Sapa tourism planners need to collaborate with Ethnic minority groups to find an appropriate balance between economic development and cultural preservation. As suggested by Zeppel (1997), the maintenance of cultural integrity is essential for sustainable ethnic tourism development and should receive serious consideration by authorities when making investments, developing amenities, and improving infrastructure.

The study found that the perceptions of Kinh and Ethnic groups regarding the impacts of tourism are not homogeneous. This result aligns with the findings of Sautter and Leisen (1999) who indicate that different perspectives of tourism impacts increase the difficulties of collaborative approaches. Moreover, this finding supports the study of Kuvan and Akan (2012) who suggest that different perceptions among affected stakeholders result in difficulties in goal sharing, the building of trust and a wider acceptance of plans and policies. Because of the differences in opinions and conflicts of interest between the two stakeholder groups as well as political structure with top-down planning approach, there is a critical barrier to the practical application of participatory approaches in tourism development. Yet participation and collaboration are at the same time, the key to building common ground. Although there were differences in perceptions between groups, this study supports the argument that all voices of stakeholder groups should be heard in tourism planning and decision-making processes (Byrd, 2007), and that priority should not be given to one group over others (Jamal & Getz, 1995). Therefore, tourism planners should ensure that tourism policies are not made in their own interests or only in favor of a dominant group of stakeholders, but also for the community at large.

\(^{17}\) In 1986, Vietnam launched an economic reform program, called Doi Moi to move the country toward a socialist oriented market economy which remains under the control of the Communist Party of Vietnam.
A destination can be seen as an open social system of interdependent and multiple stakeholders (D'Angella & Go, 2009). Therefore, due to this interdependence, a “shared vision” by all parties involved in the form of agreed goals and policies, is very important. Such a “shared vision” could provide the means for participation, communication, interaction and collaboration of all tourism stakeholders in formulation of tourism plans and policies (Kuvan & Akan, 2012). However, the dissimilar perspectives between groups in tourism development might pose difficulty for a achieving a shared vision. Due to the differences in perceptions between Kinh and Ethnic minority groups regarding tourism impacts, a “one size fits all” approach is not suitable to summarize the opinions of all stakeholders (Tkaczynski, Rundle-Thiele, & Beaumont, 2009, p. 169). Moreover, such differences among stakeholders could limit a collaborative approach to tourism development and management; Kinh powerholders may not be interested in collaboration if it weakens their ability to gain more tourism benefits (see Chapter 2, Tanzania case).

The comparison of views and opinions of Kinh and Ethnic tourism stakeholders with respect to tourism development in Sapa echoes the similarities, and differences in their expectations, preferences, and experiences which are important to understand in managing conflicts among stakeholders through communication, cooperation, and collaboration for successful and sustainable tourism development (Yu, Chancellor, & Cole, 2011). The study findings address the complex challenge of developing sustainable tourism in rapid growth destinations because it needs a balance of three pillars of sustainable development including economic, social/cultural and environmental. However, to this point, Sapa stakeholders are more positively predisposed to economic development rather than socio-cultural and environmental preservation. Unless this critical imbalance is addressed, the long-term prospect of over development and destination decline will undermine even the economic advantages that have been traded off.

In summary, throughout many years, the development gap between the Ethnic minorities and Kinh majority still exists despite many policies issued by the Vietnamese government. In Vietnamese society with the unequal structural position of these cultures, the Kinh perspectives towards ethnic minorities as “slow and backwards”, excludes economic development processes, and prevents change to prejudicial perceptions. With the modernization and development of tourism, it is true that these processes may bring economic benefits for ethnic minorities, but also result in ethnic minorities lagging behind the majorities in terms of development. Tourism brings many benefits but not always for Ethnic minorities and the poor (Chok et al., 2007; Hoa & Lan, 1999; Truong, 2014). This
research investigates the perspectives of both groups regarding the impacts of tourism development, and the participation and collaboration of ethnic minority people in tourism planning in a destination where ethnic minorities are in the majority. This research is intended to sound an alarm about the implications of unequal social relations of people in Vietnamese society, and unbalances in the triple bottom line of development. This study can only take a snapshot of peoples’ perspectives. Comprehensive longitudinal studies tied to policy reform will be needed to carry the questions raised in this thesis forward.

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## APPENDIX 1: Normality Test for Tourism Impact Attributes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tests of Normality</th>
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<td>2.3. Tourism helps improve infrastructure in Sapa.</td>
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<td>2.6. Tourism results in a reduction of agricultural production.</td>
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<td>2.7. Distribution of income from tourism is not equal.</td>
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Normality Test for Participation and Collaboration Attributes

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<sup>a</sup> Lilliefors Significance Correction

Normality Test for Aspects of Motivating and Hindering Participation in Tourism Planning

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<sup>a</sup> Lilliefors Significance Correction
An Independent Sample t-test for Benefits and Costs of Tourism Development

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<th>t-value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Cohen d'</th>
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<td>3.95</td>
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<td>3.93</td>
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<td>0.88</td>
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<td>B5. The cable car in Sapa creates more jobs opportunities for you and your family members.</td>
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<td>1.10</td>
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<td>0.80</td>
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<td>1.959</td>
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<td>B10. Tourism helps to protect and conserve natural resources.</td>
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<th>SD</th>
<th>t-value</th>
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Mann-Whitney U test between Government officials and Tourism business Owners

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<th>Sum of Ranks</th>
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### Mann-Whitney U test between Government officials and Local residents

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### Mann-Whitney U test between Tourism Business Owners and Local residents

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APPENDIX 2: Non-parametric test results

*Kinh and Ethnic minorities perspectives of costs and benefits of tourism development*

Mann-Whitney U-test is the non-parametric test which is equivalent to the independent samples t-test. This test is appropriate to compare two independent samples. The samples are combined, and rank ordered together. If the values from the two samples are randomly mixed in the rank ordering, the samples are not different; if they are clustered at opposite ends when combined, there is a difference between them (Corder & Foreman, 2014, p. 70).

Table 7.1 presents results of the Mann-Whitney U Test to find out the differences between Kinh and Ethnic minority groups with 22 statements related to the costs and benefits of tourism development in Sapa. In relation to statements of benefits of tourism development, there were statistically significant differences between two groups in 07 statements (B1, B2, B3, B4, B6, B7, and B10), but there were not statistically significant differences between them in 03 statements (B5, B8, and B9). These results are similar to results of an independent samples t-test (see Chapter 6).

The test pointed out that Kinh stakeholders scored higher (mean rank = 247.27) on the statement of that *Tourism contributes to local economic development* (B1) than Ethnic minorities (mean rank = 214.14). Mann-Whitney U-value was found to be statistically significant (U = 22084.50, Z = -2.887, p = 0.00 <0.01), and the difference between the Kinh and Ethnic minorities was small (r=0.135). Therefore, the result suggests that Kinh stakeholders perceive tourism contributed more to local economic development than Ethnic minorities. It is possible to have an explanation that Kinh stakeholders gain more economic benefits from tourism and many tourism activities in Sapa control by Kinh stakeholders.

Kinh stakeholders scored higher (mean rank = 243.64) in response to the statement that *Tourism provides more job opportunities for me and my family members* (B2) than Ethnic minorities (mean rank = 217.09). The Mann-Whitney U-test was found to be statistically significant in relation to statement B2 (U=22829.50, Z = -2.288, p = 0.02<0.05), and the difference between Kinh and Ethnic minorities was small (r=0.107).

The result shows there is a statistically significant difference between two groups regarding the statement *Tourism improves the infrastructure in Sapa* (B3) (U = 22617, Z = -2.491, p = 0.01>0.05). Kinh stakeholders (mean rank = 244.67) believed that tourism helps to improve the infrastructure for Sapa more than Ethnic minorities did (mean rank = 216.25). The result reflects that the difference between two groups to the statement B4, (U = 19069, Z = -5.266, p = 0.00<0.05). Kinh people (mean rank = 261.98) believe that tourism helps
local residents sell more agricultural products than Ethnic minorities (mean rank = 202.17). This could be explained contextually by the fact that Kinh people thought tourism helped minorities to sell more of their agricultural products, but Ethnic minorities did not.

Ethnic minorities (mean rank = 249.53) believe that tourism helps to protect and conserve natural resources (B10) more than their Kinh counterpart do (mean = 203.76). The Mann-Whitney U-test found statistically significant differences between groups (U = 20656.5, Z = -3.836, p = 0.00<0.05). Furthermore, Ethnic minority stakeholders scored higher (mean rank = 253.38) regarding the statement that Tourism contributes to the preservation of ethnic cultures (B6) than Kinh counterpart (mean rank = 199.04). The Mann-Whitney U-test was found to be statistically significant in the statement of B6 (U = 19687.50, Z =-4.524, p=0.00<0.05), and the difference between Kinh and Ethnic minority stakeholders was small (r=0.212). Thus, the data supports the claim that Ethnic minorities see tourism as contributing more to the preservation of ethnic cultures than Kinh stakeholders. However, there was no statically significant difference between the two above groups regarding the statements that The cable car creates more job for them and their family members (B5) (U = 25116.00, Z = -0.537, p = 0.59 > 0.05), or Tourism enhances harmony between ethnic minority groups (B8) (U=23877.5, Z = -1.473, p = 0.14) and that Tourism improves quality of life (B9) (U= 24192, Z = -1.318, p = 0.19).

### Table 7.1. Comparisons between Kinh and Ethnic groups regarding the costs and benefits of tourism development (Mann-Whitney-U-Test)

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Regarding the statements of costs arising from tourism development, there were statistically significant differences between Kinh and Ethnic minorities in 05 statements (C4, C6, C7, C11, and C12). However, there were not significant differences between two groups in 07 statements (C1, C2, C3, C5, C8, C9, C10). These results are similar to the results of an independent sample t-test (refer to table 6.7 and 6.8, section 6.4.2.2).

The different perspectives on the costs of tourism development perceived by both groups is presented in Table 7.1, Kinh stakeholders (mean rank = 257.38) are more concerned about the impact of tourism on changing local culture (C4) than Ethnic minorities (mean rank = 205.91), the test result shows the difference between groups (U = 20012.5, Z = -4.428, p = 0.00). Moreover, Kinh people (mean rank = 243.38) believe that tourism lead to the commercialization of local cultures (C7) more than Ethnic minorities (mean rank = 217.30).

The Mann Whitney U-test reflected that, there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups (U = 20956, Z = -3.672, p = 0.000) in the statement that Tourism degrades the moral values of local residents (C6). Kinh respondents (mean rank = 252.78) scored higher mean rank than Ethnic minorities (mean rank = 209.66) in this statement; thus, the result suggests that Kinh stakeholders consider tourism degrades the moral values of local residents more than Ethnic minority respondents.
Ethnic minority stakeholders scored higher (mean rank = 245.54) in response to the statement that *Building the cable car damaged to natural landscapes* (C11) than Kinh stakeholders (mean = 208.67). The Mann-Whitney U-test was found to be statistically significant C11 (U=21663.00, Z = -3.115, p=0.00<0.05), and the difference between Kinh and Ethnic minority stakeholders was small (r = 0.146). This result could support the claim that ethnic stakeholders perceived that the construction of cable car to be more damaging to the natural landscapes than Kinh stakeholders. It is possible to explain this by stating that ethnic minority livelihoods are directly linked to many activities in the mountains and that these were destroyed partly to give a way to build the cable car. Thus, they think that the building of the cable car caused more damage to the natural landscapes than Kinh people. This finding also underpins the semi-structure interview (Stage 1), which revealed that the ethnic minority stakeholders perceived the impacts of tourism as having more specific and directly observable impacts on their livelihood.

The rest of the statements (C1, C2, C3, C5, C8, C9, C10) related to costs showed no statistical difference between the two groups. The effect of size of differences between the two groups was calculated, but they all were small differences between two groups according to Cohen’s effect size estimates (r).

**Kinh and Ethnic minority stakeholders’ perspectives on participation and collaboration in tourism planning**

The Mann-Whitney U Test was used to compare the differences between Kinh and Ethnic minority groups with six statements related to perceptions of current participation and collaboration by tourism stakeholders in tourism planning (see table 7.2). There were statistically significant differences between two groups in 03 statements (P1, P3 and P4).

Kinh stakeholders scored higher (mean rank = 270.24) than Ethnic minorities on the statement *Current participation among stakeholders in tourism planning takes top-down approach* (P1) than Ethnic minority stakeholders (mean rank = 193.67). The Mann-Whitney U-value was found to be statistically significant (U = 16986.00, Z = -6.50, p = 0.000 <0.01), therefore, the data support the argument that Kinh stakeholders perceived that tourism planning in Sapa followed a top-down approach more than Ethnic minority stakeholders.

Kinh stakeholders scored higher (mean rank = 258.40) than Ethnic minority stakeholders (mean rank = 203.29) in terms of their responses to the statement that *The connection among local authorities, local residents and tourism businesses is poor in planning for tourism development* (P3). The Mann-Whitney U-value was found to be statistically significant (U=19399.50, Z = -4.70, p = 0.000<0.01). This result suggests that
Kinh stakeholders consider that the connection among stakeholders in tourism planning is poor more than is the case for their Ethnic minority counterparts.

The Mann-Whitney U-value was found to be statistically significant between the two groups (U= 22248.00, Z = -2.62, p = 0.009<0.01) regarding the statement that *The local authority pays attention to the views of local residents when making tourism plans for Sapa.* (P4) Ethnic stakeholders (242.36) scored a higher mean rank than Kinh people (211.53). The data suggest that Ethnic minority stakeholders may believe that the local authority pays attention to the views of local residents when making tourism plans more than Kinh people do.

Table 7.2. Comparing the perceptions of participation and collaboration between Kinh and Ethnic stakeholders in tourism planning in Sapa (Mann Whitney U – Test)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean Rank</th>
<th>Mann-Whitney U</th>
<th>Wilcoxon W</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P1. Current participation among stakeholders in tourism planning follows top-down approach.</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>270.24</td>
<td>16986.00</td>
<td>48612.00</td>
<td>-6.50</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>251</td>
<td>193.67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P2. Local authorities, local residents and tourism business worked together to make tourism plans for Sapa.</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>236.04</td>
<td>24182.50</td>
<td>55808.50</td>
<td>-1.17</td>
<td>0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>251</td>
<td>222.34</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P3. The connection among local authorities, local residents and tourism businesses is weak in planning for tourism development.</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>258.40</td>
<td>19399.50</td>
<td>51025.50</td>
<td>-4.70</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>251</td>
<td>203.29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P4. The local authority pays attention to the views of local stakeholders when making tourism plans for Sapa.</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>211.53</td>
<td>22248.00</td>
<td>43363.00</td>
<td>-2.62</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>251</td>
<td>242.36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P5. There is no domination in the collaboration among tourism stakeholders in tourism planning.</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>231.54</td>
<td>25104.50</td>
<td>56730.50</td>
<td>-0.47</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>251</td>
<td>226.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P6. The tourism stakeholders are not in agreed views about tourism planning for Sapa.</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>225.05</td>
<td>25020.00</td>
<td>46135.00</td>
<td>-0.39</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>249</td>
<td>229.52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at 5% level  
**Significant at 1% level

There is no statically significant difference between the above groups regarding the statements of P2, P5, P6. The result indicates that there was no significant different between groups in response to the statement that *Local authorities, local residents and tourism businesses worked together to make tourism plans for Sapa* (P2). In addition, Kinh and Ethnic minorities were not significant differences in the statements of *There is no domination in the collaboration among tourism stakeholders in tourism planning* (P5), and *The tourism stakeholders are not in agreed views about tourism planning for Sapa* (P6). The results suggest that there is a domination of Kinh people among stakeholders in Sapa in tourism planning, and Sapa stakeholders are in similar to that they are not in agreement views about tourism planning for Sapa.
Aspects of motivating and hindering stakeholder’s participation in tourism planning

The findings in the interview stage revealed some aspects influencing tourism stakeholder’s participation in tourism planning comprising government policy; economic benefits; social and cultural benefits; and socio-cultural costs. Thus, the statements in the survey focused on those four aspects. Table 7.3 presents the results of the Mann-Whitney U test to discover the differences between the two groups concerning the aspects motivating stakeholders to participate in tourism planning. The findings report that there were statistically significant differences between two groups in response to the statements of M1, M2, and M5.

Kinh stakeholders scored higher (mean rank = 244.89) on the statement that The current government’s policy about tourism is good for local community (M1) than Ethnic minorities (mean rank = 191.90). The Mann-Whitney U-value was found to be statistically significantly different between Kinh and Ethnic minorities (U = 17367, Z = -4.66, p = 0.000 <0.01). The results may suggest that if government policy about tourism is good for the local economy, Kinh tourism stakeholders are more likely to participate in tourism planning, but this might not be the case with Ethnic minority stakeholders. Moreover, Kinh stakeholders considered government policy is an important factor motivating their participation in tourism planning more than Ethnic minority stakeholders.

The Mann-Whitney U-test reflected that Kinh stakeholders achieved a higher mean rank (228.15) than Ethnic minorities (205.87) regarding the statement that Economic benefits for themselves and their family (M2). The test found statistically significant differences between groups (U = 20649.00, Z = -1.97, p = 0.048< 0.05). The data suggests that Kinh stakeholders consider economic benefits more important than Ethnic stakeholders in the motivation for participation in tourism planning. However, Ethnic minority stakeholders (mean rank = 225.96) perceive the participation in tourism planning helps them to learn from other stakeholders and share mutual benefits (M5) and this is more important than for their Kinh counterpart (mean rank = 203.01).

Table 7.3. Differences between groups of the motivation participating tourism planning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivations</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean Rank</th>
<th>Mann-Whitney U</th>
<th>Wilcoxon W</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M1. The current government’s policy about tourism is good for local community.</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>244.89</td>
<td>17367.50</td>
<td>45097.50</td>
<td>-4.66</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>235</td>
<td>191.90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M2. Economic benefits for myself and my family.</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>228.15</td>
<td>20649.00</td>
<td>48379.00</td>
<td>-1.97</td>
<td>0.048*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>235</td>
<td>205.87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M3. Social and cultural benefits for local communities</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>226.05</td>
<td>21059.50</td>
<td>48789.50</td>
<td>-1.63</td>
<td>0.103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>235</td>
<td>207.61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results in table 7.3 do not support the idea that there were statistically significant differences between Kinh and Ethnic minorities in terms of M3, M4, M6 and M7. Both groups were not different regarding the statement that Social and cultural benefit for local communities (M3). Thus, this result supports the findings of Stage One which indicated that social and cultural benefits are important aspects influencing motivation participation in tourism planning for both Kinh and Ethnic minorities in Sapa. Both groups were not statistically significant difference in their responses to the statement that motivation of participation helps get to know other people (M4). Kinh and Ethnic minorities are compatible in terms of their belief that the motivation to participate in tourism planning helps to realize the goals of tourism development (M6) and creates more opportunities for them (M7).

Table 7.4 presents the results of the Man Whitney U-test which shows the differences between Kinh and Ethnic minority stakeholders regarding the aspects that hinder their participation in tourism planning. The results supported the idea that there were no statistically significant differences between both groups regarding the statement that The current government’s policy about tourism is not good for local community (H1). Thus, it could be explained that if the government policy was not workable for local communities that could hinder both groups of stakeholders participating in tourism planning. However, there were statistically significant difference between groups in term of the statement that Tourism does not provide economic benefit for themselves and their family members (H2). Kinh stakeholders (mean rank = 241.85) thought that tourism did not bring economic benefits for themselves and their family members and this hindered their participation in tourism planning more than Ethnic minority stakeholders (mean rank = 192.63).
Table 7.4. Differences between groups of the hinderances participating tourism planning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hinderances</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Mean Rank</th>
<th>Mann-Whitney U</th>
<th>Wilcoxon W</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1. The current government’s policy about tourism is not good for local community.</td>
<td>Kinh</td>
<td>218.88</td>
<td>22269.00</td>
<td>49764.00</td>
<td>-0.54</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Minorities</td>
<td>212.67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2. Tourism does not provide economic benefits for myself and my family.</td>
<td>Kinh</td>
<td>241.85</td>
<td>17579.50</td>
<td>45074.50</td>
<td>-4.31</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Minorities</td>
<td>192.63</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3. Tourism does not provide social and cultural benefits for local communities.</td>
<td>Kinh</td>
<td>248.64</td>
<td>16437.00</td>
<td>43932.00</td>
<td>-5.34</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Minorities</td>
<td>187.74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4. Tourism results social-cultural and environmental cost for local communities.</td>
<td>Kinh</td>
<td>227.36</td>
<td>20607.00</td>
<td>48102.00</td>
<td>-1.95</td>
<td>0.05*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Minorities</td>
<td>205.56</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5. I do not have enough information about tourism planning.</td>
<td>Kinh</td>
<td>235.45</td>
<td>18826.50</td>
<td>46321.50</td>
<td>-3.30</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Minorities</td>
<td>197.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6. I do not have a chance to participate in tourism planning.</td>
<td>Kinh</td>
<td>224.11</td>
<td>21243.50</td>
<td>48738.50</td>
<td>-1.42</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Minorities</td>
<td>208.28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H7. I do not understand about tourism planning.</td>
<td>Kinh</td>
<td>184.70</td>
<td>16906.50</td>
<td>36016.50</td>
<td>-4.94</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Minorities</td>
<td>240.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at 5% level
**Significant at 1% level
Kinh (n=196), Ethnic minorities (n=234)

Kinh stakeholders (mean rank = 248.64) scored higher in mean rank in response to the statement that *Tourism does not provide social and cultural benefits for local communities* (H3) than ethnic minorities (mean rank = 187.74). This result suggests that if tourism did not provide these benefits for Kinh stakeholders, this could hinder their participation in tourism planning more than Ethnic minorities. In addition, Kinh stakeholders considered that the tourism which resulted in social-cultural and environmental costs could hinder their participation more than Ethnic minorities.

Kinh stakeholders scored a higher (mean rank = 235.45) to the statement *I do not have enough information about tourism planning* (H5) more than Ethnic minorities (mean rank = 197.96). This result supported the idea that if Kinh stakeholders do not have enough formation about tourism planning which could prevent their participation in tourism planning more than Ethnic minorities. On the other hand, Ethnic minorities (mean rank = 240.25) considered their limited understanding of tourism planning (H7) as an important aspect to hinder their participation in tourism planning more than Kinh people (mean rank = 184.70).
184.70). Both groups shared similar responses to the idea that they did not have the chance to participate in tourism planning as factor hindered their participation.
APPENDIX 3

QUESTIONNAIRE

My name is Nguyen Van Huy. I am a Ph.D. Candidate in College of Arts, Business, Law and Social Sciences at Murdoch University in Perth, Western Australia. I am conducting a study about stakeholder’s perspectives about tourism planning and development in Sapa, Vietnam. The purpose of this study is to explore the current form of participation and collaboration between tourism stakeholders exist in Sapa and how different tourism stakeholders perceive tourism impacts in Sapa. This study also examines what factors foster or hinder the participation of stakeholders in tourism planning in Sapa, Vietnam.

This questionnaire is anonymous, and all responses are voluntary. The information you answer will be used for research only. Therefore, please answer the questions openly and completely.

Thank you very much! NGUYEN VAN HUY

MODULE 1. Personal Information

1. Gender: □ Male □ Female

2. What is your years of birth? .................

3. Ethnic groups (Please check one)
   □ Kinh □ Dao
   □ Hmong □ Tay
   □ Nùng □ Other (Please specify) 
                   □ Giày

4. Your highest education level (Please check one)
   □ No schooling
   □ Primary school
   □ Secondary school
   □ High School
   □ College
   □ University
   □ Other (Please specify) 

5. Your marital status (Please check one)
   □ Single/never married □ Widowed
   □ Married □ Other
   □ Divorced

6. Number of your family members (Please check one)
   □ 3 people or less □ 7-9 people
   □ 4-6 people □ 10 people or more

7. Please choose activities which contribute to your main income? (You can choose more than 1)
   □ Growing rice
   □ Selling handicraft
   □ Tree planting
   □ Government position
   □ Sales of timber
   □ Tourism related jobs
   □ Others …

8. What approximately percentage of your income comes from tourism per month?

                      .........................
9. In your opinions, who get most economic benefits from tourism in your location?

☐ Local residents  ☐ Local authorities
☐ Local tourism business  ☐ Government
☐ Tourism business outside Sapa  ☐ Development agencies

10. How many years have you lived in this area? (Please check one)

☐ Less than 1 year  ☐ 6-10 years  ☐ 16-20 years
☐ 1-5 years  ☐ 11-15 years  ☐ Over 20 years

11. What is your main role as the followings?

☐ Government Official  ☐ Tourism business owner
☐ Academics  ☐ Others ….. (Local residents).

MODULE 2. Please note your level of agreement with the following statements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1. Tourism contributes to local economic</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2. Tourism provides more job opportunities for me and my family.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3. Tourism helps improve infrastructure in Sapa.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4. Tourism increases the cost of living compared to other places in the region.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5. Tourism helps local residents to sell more agricultural products.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6. Tourism results in a reduction of agricultural production.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.7. Distribution of income from tourism is not equal.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8. The cable car in Sapa creates more job opportunities for you and your family members.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.9. Tourism results in changes to culture.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.10. Tourism contributes to the preservation of ethnic culture.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.11. Tourism results in land acquisition and</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.12. Tourism degrades moral values of local</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.13. Tourism increases my awareness of local</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.14. Tourism enhances harmony between ethnic</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.15. Tourism increases commercialization of local culture.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.16. If children earn money from tourism, they do not go to school.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.17. Tourism results in ethnic children not going to school.  

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

2.18. Tourism helps to improve quality of life.  

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

2.19. Tourism causes air pollution and damages to natural landscapes.  

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

2.20. Building the cable car damaged the natural landscape.  

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

2.21. Tourism helps to protect and conserve natural resources.  

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

2.22. Tourism results in urbanisation in Sapa.  

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**MODULE 3. Personal Benefits and Support for tourism development.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Support for Tourism</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.1. In general, tourism brings more benefits than costs to local communities.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2. I would like to see more tourists in Sapa</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3. I support additional tourism activities and development in my community.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Personal Benefits**

<p>| | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.4. Tourism helps me to pay for my daily expenses.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5. Tourism improves my tourism knowledge and skills (communications…etc).</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6. Tourism helps me learn more about local cultures.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**MODULE 4. Please give your perceptions about current participation and collaboration among tourism stakeholders in tourism planning.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.1. Current participation among stakeholders in tourism planning takes top-down approach.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2. Local authorities, local residents and tourism business worked together to make tourism plans for Sapa.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3. The connection among local authorities, local residents and tourism businesses is weak in planning for tourism development.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.4. The local authority pays attention to the views of local stakeholders when making tourism plans for Sapa. 

4.5. There is no domination in the collaboration among tourism stakeholders in tourism planning. 

4.6. The tourism stakeholders do not hold agreed views about tourism planning for Sapa. 

MODULE 5. Engagement in the decision and planning process of tourism development in Sapa.

5.1. Have you been informed about any tourism plans in your area?
   □ Yes
   □ No

5.2. Have you been invited to take part in meetings/surveys to express your opinions about tourism plans in your area?
   □ Yes
   □ No

5.3. Have you been involved in collaborative teams working on tourism planning in Sapa?
   □ Yes
   □ No

5.4. Have you had any input into the decision-making process of tourism development in Sapa?
   □ Yes
   □ No

5.5. If you have responded NO to all of 5.1, 5.2, 5.3 and 5.4 please GO TO MODULE 6

MODULE 6. How much do the following aspects motivate your participation in tourism planning in Sapa?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6.1. The current government’s policy about tourism is good for the local community.</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6.2. Economic benefits for myself and my family.</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6.3. Social and cultural benefits for local communities</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6.4. Participation helps me get to know other people.</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6.5. Participation help me to learn from other stakeholder and share mutual benefits.</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6.6. Participation helps to realize goals for tourism development.</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6.7. Participation helps to create new opportunities for me.</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
MODULE 7. How much do the following aspects hinder your participation in tourism planning in Sapa?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7.1. The current government’s policy about tourism is not good for the local community.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2. Tourism does not provide economic benefits for myself and my family.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.3. Tourism does not provide social and cultural benefits for local communities.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.4. Tourism results social-cultural and environmental cost for local communities.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5. I do not have enough information about tourism planning.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.6. I do not have a chance to participate in tourism planning.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.7. I do not understand about tourism planning.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
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</table>

MODULE 8. Other comments

Do you see any benefits or problems to yourself and to the community if tourism was to increase?

………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………
……

What kind of tourist’s attractions or tourism products would you recommend to develop in the future tourism planning?

………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………
……

Do you have any other comments/ concerns about ethnic tourism in your community?

………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………
……

END
BẢNG CÂU HỎI

QUAN DIỄM CỦA BẠN VỀ SỰ THAM GIA VÀ PHÓI HỘP GIỮA CÁC BÊN
(Nguởi dân, chính quyền, doanh nghiệp du lịch) VÀO KẾ HOẠCH VÀ PHÁT TRIỂN DU LỊCH Ở SAPA, LÀO CAI, VIỆT NAM


Trân trọng cảm ơn!
NGUYỄN VÂN HUY

PHẦN 1. Thông tin cá nhân
1.1. Giới tính:  □ Nam  □ Nữ
1.2. Bạn sinh năm bao nhiêu? …………………...
1.3. Dân tộc (Chọn một phương án)
   □ Kinh  □ Dao
   □ Hmong  □ Tày
   □ Nùng  □ Khác ____________________________
   □ Giày
1.4. Trình độ giáo dục (Chọn một phương án)
   □ Không được đến trường
   □ Tiểu học
   □ Học cấp 2
   □ Học cấp 3
   □ Cao đẳng
   □ Đại học
   □ Khác ____________________________
1.5. Tình trạng hôn nhân (Chọn một phương án)
   □ Độc thân  □ Gia bố/chồng
   □ Đã có gia đình  □ Khác
   □ Ly dị
1.6. Số người trong gia đình bạn (Chọn một phương án)
   □ 1- 3 người  □ 7-9 người
   □ 4-6 người  □ 10 người trở lên
1.7. Lựa chọn các hoạt động mang lại nguồn thu chủ yếu cho bạn và gia đình (Chọn 1 đến 3 lựa chọn)
   □ Trồng lúa  □ Công việc liên quan đến du lịch
   □ Bán hàng lưu niệm  □ Khách …
   □ Trồng cây rừng
   □ Cán bộ nhà nước
   □ Bàn giao rừng

1.8. Khoảng bao nhiêu phần trăm thu nhập của bạn có được từ du lịch trong tháng?

……………………
1.9. Ai là người được hưởng nhiều lợi ích kinh tế từ du lịch trong địa phương của bạn?
- [ ] Người dân địa phương
- [ ] Các doanh nghiệp du lịch tại địa phương
- [ ] Các doanh nghiệp từ nơi khác đến
- [ ] Chính phủ
- [ ] Chính quyền địa phương
- [ ] Các tổ chức khác

1.10. Bạn đã sống ở địa phương bao nhiêu năm rồi? (Chọn một lựa chọn)
- [ ] Dưới 1 năm
- [ ] 1-5 năm
- [ ] 6-10 năm
- [ ] 11-15 năm
- [ ] 16-20 năm
- [ ] Trên 20 năm

1.11. Công việc và chức vụ hiện tại của bạn là gì?
- [ ] Cán bộ nhà nước
- [ ] Chủ doanh nghiệp du lịch
- [ ] Cán bộ/ Giảng viên đại học
- [ ] Khác ….

PHẦN 2. Quan điểm của bạn về các tác động từ du lịch.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Những tác động từ du lịch</th>
<th>Rất Không đồng ý</th>
<th>Không đồng ý</th>
<th>Không có ý kiến</th>
<th>Đồng ý</th>
<th>Rất đồng ý</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1. Du lịch góp phần phát triển kinh tế địa phương.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2. Du lịch tạo thêm nhiều việc làm cho tổ chức gia đình.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3. Du lịch giúp cải thiện cơ sở hạ tầng cho Sapa.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4. Du lịch làm gia cát tiểu dùng ở Sapa cao hơn số với các địa phương khác.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5. Du lịch giúp người dân địa phương tiêu thụ được nhiều hơn sản phẩm nông nghiệp.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6. Du lịch làm giảm sản xuất nông nghiệp của người dân địa phương.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.7. Lợi ích kinh tế từ du lịch phân phối không đồng đều.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8. Có cả trẻ em ở Sapa tạo thêm cơ hội việc làm cho bạn và các thành viên gia đình.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.9. Du lịch làm thay đổi bản sắc văn hóa của Sapa.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.10. Du lịch giúp bảo tồn văn hóa truyền thống của người dân tổ chức thiểu số.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.11. Du lịch dân để thu hoạch và chuyển đổi mục đích sử dụng đất đai.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.12. Du lịch làm suy giảm đào tạo của người dân địa phương.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PHẦN 3. Lợi ích cá nhân và ủng hộ cho phát triển du lịch ở Sapa.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Üng hộ phát triển du lịch</th>
<th>Rất Không đồng ý</th>
<th>Không đồng ý</th>
<th>Không có ý kiến</th>
<th>Động ý</th>
<th>Rất đồng ý</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.1. Nói chung, du lịch đem lại nhiều lợi ích tích cực hơn tiêu cực đối với cộng đồng.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2. Tôi muốn có nhiều du khách đến với Sapa</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3. Tôi ủng hộ có thêm các hoạt động và phát triển du lịch ở cộng đồng của tôi.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lợi ích cá nhân</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4. Du lịch giúp tôi chi trả các chi phí hàng ngày.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5. Du lịch giúp tôi cải thiện kiến thức về du lịch và các kỹ năng như giao tiếp.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6. Du lịch giúp tôi học thêm về văn hóa địa phương</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PHẦN 4. Quan điểm của bạn về sự tham gia và hợp tác giữa các bên có liên quan (Chính quyền địa phương, người dân và doanh nghiệp du lịch) vào kế hoạch phát triển du lịch ở Sapa.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Số hiệu</th>
<th>Mục vụ</th>
<th>Rất đồng ý</th>
<th>Không đồng ý</th>
<th>Không có ý kiến</th>
<th>Đồng ý</th>
<th>Rất đồng ý</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.1. Sự tham gia của chính quyền địa phương, người dân và doanh nghiệp du lịch vào kế hoạch phát triển du lịch là từ trên xuống dưới.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2. Chính quyền địa phương, người dân, doanh nghiệp và khách du lịch đã cùng làm việc để lập ra kế hoạch phát triển du lịch cho Sapa.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3. Sự hợp tác giữa chính quyền với người dân địa phương, và doanh nghiệp du lịch là yếu kém trong kế hoạch phát triển du lịch.</td>
<td>1</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4. Chính quyền địa phương chú trọng đến quan điểm của người dân khi lập kế hoạch phát triển du lịch cho Sapa.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5. Không có sự thông tin trong việc lập kế hoạch phát triển du lịch cho Sapa.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6. Chính quyền địa phương, người dân và doanh nghiệp du lịch đều đồng ý về kế hoạch du lịch cho Sapa.</td>
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</table>

PHẦN 5. Sự tham gia của bạn vào quá trình lập kế hoạch và ra quyết định phát triển du lịch tại Sapa.
5.1 Bạn có được thông báo về các kế hoạch phát triển du lịch tại địa phương không?
- Có
- Không

5.2 Bạn có được mời để tham gia vào các cuộc họp/cuộc điều tra để bay to ý kiến về các kế hoạch du lịch?
- Có
- Không

5.3 Bạn có được tham gia vào các nhóm để cùng làm việc về kế hoạch phát triển du lịch ở Sapa?
- Có
- Không

5.4 Bạn có được đóng góp ý kiến vào quá trình ra quyết định phát triển du lịch ở Sapa?
- Có
- Không

5.5 Nếu bạn trả lời KHÔNG trên các câu hỏi 5.1, 5.2, 5.3 và 5.4 chuyển đến phần 6 và 7
PHẦN 6. Quan điểm của bạn về các nhân tố thúc đẩy sự tham gia của bạn vào kế hoạch phát triển du lịch ở Sapa.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6.1. Chính sách của nhà nước về du lịch tốt cho người dân và địa phương.</th>
<th>Rất đồng ý</th>
<th>Không đồng ý</th>
<th>Không có ý kiến</th>
<th>Đồng ý</th>
<th>Rất đồng ý</th>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6.2. Lợi ích kinh tế cho bản thân tôi và gia đình.</th>
<th>Rất đồng ý</th>
<th>Không đồng ý</th>
<th>Không có ý kiến</th>
<th>Đồng ý</th>
<th>Rất đồng ý</th>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6.3. Lợi ích văn hóa - xã hội cho địa phương tôi.</th>
<th>Rất đồng ý</th>
<th>Không đồng ý</th>
<th>Không có ý kiến</th>
<th>Đồng ý</th>
<th>Rất đồng ý</th>
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<tr>
<th>6.4. Sự tham gia giúp tôi quen biết nhiều người.</th>
<th>Rất đồng ý</th>
<th>Không đồng ý</th>
<th>Không có ý kiến</th>
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<th>6.5. Sự tham gia giúp tôi học hỏi từ những người khác và chia sẻ các lợi ích chung.</th>
<th>Rất đồng ý</th>
<th>Không đồng ý</th>
<th>Không có ý kiến</th>
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<tr>
<th>6.6. Sự tham gia giúp tôi nhận ra mục tiêu phát triển du lịch.</th>
<th>Rất đồng ý</th>
<th>Không đồng ý</th>
<th>Không có ý kiến</th>
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<tr>
<th>6.7. Sự tham gia giúp tôi tạo ra nhiều cơ hội mới cho bản thân.</th>
<th>Rất đồng ý</th>
<th>Không đồng ý</th>
<th>Không có ý kiến</th>
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PHẦN 7. Quan điểm của bạn về các nhân tố cần trở sự tham gia của bạn vào kế hoạch phát triển du lịch ở Sapa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>7.1. Chính sách của nhà nước về du lịch không tốt cho người dân và địa phương.</th>
<th>Rất đồng ý</th>
<th>Không đồng ý</th>
<th>Không có ý kiến</th>
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<tr>
<th>7.2. Du lịch không đem lại lợi ích kinh tế cho bản thân tôi và gia đình.</th>
<th>Rất đồng ý</th>
<th>Không đồng ý</th>
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<tr>
<th>7.3. Du lịch không đem lại lợi ích văn hóa- xã hội cho địa phương tôi.</th>
<th>Rất đồng ý</th>
<th>Không đồng ý</th>
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<th>7.4. Du lịch làm tăng chi phí về văn hóa-xã hội và môi trường cho địa phương tôi.</th>
<th>Rất đồng ý</th>
<th>Không đồng ý</th>
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<th>7.5. Tôi không có đủ thông tin về kế hoạch du lịch.</th>
<th>Rất đồng ý</th>
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<th>7.6. Tôi không có cơ hội tham gia vào kế hoạch du lịch.</th>
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<th>Không đồng ý</th>
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<th>7.7 Tôi không hiểu về kế hoạch du lịch.</th>
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PHẦN 8. NHỮNG NHẤN XẾT KHÁC
Bạn có thấy lợi ích và vấn đề gì đối với bạn và cộng đồng nếu gia tăng phát triển du lịch?

Sản phẩm du lịch và điểm thu hút du lịch nào mà bạn kiến nghị phát triển trong việc lập kế hoạch du lịch trong tương lai?

Bạn có thêm những kiến nghị hay vấn đề gì liên quan đến du lịch ở địa phương bạn không?

KẾT THÚC
Dear ………………,

My name is Van Huy Nguyen. I am a Ph.D. Candidate in School of Arts at Murdoch University in Perth, Western Australia. I am conducting a study about stakeholder’s perspective about sustainable tourism development in Sapa, Vietnam. I am writing to ask for your assistance in inviting tourism stakeholders in Sapa to participate in this study.

The purpose of this study is to explore the current form of collaboration between tourism stakeholders exist in Sapa and how tourism stakeholders perceive their roles in term of this collaboration. This study also will examine what factors foster or hinder the collaboration among stakeholders in Sapa, Vietnam.

My supervisors, Dr Diane Lee (email: D.lee@murdoch.edu.au; Phone: +61 8 9360 2616) and Associate Professor David Newsome (email: D.Newsome@murdoch.edu.au; Phone: +61 8 93602614) are working with me to conduct this study. We hope that the study will help identify the barriers and facilitators of collaboration among stakeholders in Sapa, Vietnam

The results of this study will become a part of the foundation for managers, policy makers in Sapa Region, Lào Cai Province, Vietnam to involve more tourism stakeholders in their planning process. Participating stakeholders will be provided information and consent forms before commencing the interview, and they will also be free to withdraw their consent to participate at any point during the interview or decide not to answer certain questions if they do not feel comfortable. The survey will consist of several opened-questions and can be completed in approximately one hour.

All information shared will remain confidential and used solely for the purpose of this study. Likewise, participants will remain anonymous, as no personal identification is required except if volunteering for observation/interview.

If you have any questions about this project please feel free to contact either myself, mob. +84 949 275 666 or my supervisors. My supervisors and I are happy to discuss with you any concerns you may have about this study.

Once we have analyzed the information from this study we will mail / email a summary of our findings.

Thank you for your assistance with this research project.

Sincerely,

Van Huy Nguyen
Ph.D Candidate

Dr. Diane Lee
Primary Supervisor

Dr. David Newsome
Co-Supervisor

This study has been approved by the Murdoch University Human Research Ethics Committee (Approval 2017/251). If you have any reservation or complaint about the ethical conduct of this research, and wish to talk with an independent person, you may contact Murdoch University’s Research Ethics Office (Tel. 08 9360 6677 (for overseas studies, +61 8 9360 6677) or e-mail ethics@murdoch.edu.au). Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fully, and you will be informed of the outcome.
Stakeholder’s Perspective about Sustainable Tourism Development in Sapa, Vietnam; Collaboration and Satisfaction

I have read the participant information sheet, which explains the nature of the research and the possible risks. The information has been explained to me and all my questions have been satisfactorily answered. I have been given a copy of the information sheet to keep.

I am happy to be interviewed and for the interview to be audio recorded as part of this research. I understand that I do not have to answer particular questions if I do not want to and that I can withdraw at any time without needing to give a reason and without consequences to myself.

I agree that research data from the results of the study may be published provided my name or any identifying data is not used. I have also been informed that I may not receive any direct benefits from participating in this study.

I understand that all information provided by me is treated as confidential and will not be released by the researcher to a third party unless required to do so by law.

Participant’s name: __________________________

Signature of Participant: __________________________ Date: ........ /........ /........

I confirm that I have provided the Information Letter concerning this study to the above participant; I have explained the study and have answered all questions asked of me.

Signature of researcher: __________________________ Date: ........ /........ /........
Monday, 05 February 2018

Dr Diane Lee
School of Arts
Murdoch University

Dear Diane,

Project No. 2017/251
Project Title Stakeholder’s Perspective about Sustainable Tourism Development in Sapa, Vietnam, Collaboration and Satisfaction

Thank you for addressing the conditions placed on the above application to the Murdoch University Human Research Ethics Committee. On behalf of the Committee, I am pleased to advise the application now has:

OUTRIGHT APPROVAL

Approval is granted on the understanding that research will be conducted according the standards of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007), the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research (2007) and Murdoch University policies at all times. You must also abide by the Human Research Ethics Committee’s standard conditions of approval (see attached). All reporting forms are available on the Research Ethics and Integrity web-site.

I wish you every success for your research.

Please quote your ethics project number in all correspondence.

Kind Regards,

Dr. Yvonne Haigh
Chair
HREC Committee

Dr. Erich von Dietze
Manager
Research Ethics and Integrity

cc: A/Prof David Newsome; Mr Van Huy Nguyen