

# COOPERATION BETWEEN LOCAL RESIDENTS AND TOURISM BUSINESSES FROM LOCAL RESIDENTS PERSPECTIVES: A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

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**Abstract:** In tourism destinations, local residents have significant influence in the experience and emotion of tourists as well as in the operation and activities of tourism firms and other stakeholders. Their attitude and participation are important to ensure the sustainability of corporation and destination governance. Tourism research has revealed a variety of local resident perceptions and attitudes in different contexts and destinations. Their relationships with tourists and governmental bodies are also explored, but their interactions with tourism business firms are very limited, including cooperative relationships. Therefore, this paper proposes a conceptual framework to examine drivers of local residents' intention to cooperate with tourism business firms in tourism activities at tourism destinations. This framework is based on a broad approach of cooperation concept and on social exchange theory that is the most frequent theory used to explain local resident attitudes towards tourism development. This framework can be applied fully or partly in empirical studies, but each driver should be assessed by a different set of measurements that are compatible with the context of research and destinations.

**Keywords:** Cooperation, local residents, tourism businesses, social exchange theory, power, trust, communication

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Local residents at tourism destinations are directly and significantly impacted by tourism development; subsequently, understanding their perceptions and attitudes is important to gain their active supports (Nunkoo, Smith, & Ramkissoon, 2013; Simmons, 1994). However, they are one of stakeholders who are least included in tourism planning and policy-making (Bornhorst, Ritchie, & Sheehan, 2010); and encouraging community participation is mainly regarded as a responsibility of public sectors (i.e. governments). Whereas, the role of business sectors, especially external investors and firms, in raising local community participation is less attention, while business firms have used a large part of local resources, such as natural and cultural resources, labours, and land usages, for their business purposes. Furthermore, in relationships with

business sectors, local residents are usually less advantageous; and, they even think that tourism development mostly benefits for tourism business sectors, rather than for their life (Truong, Hall, & Garry, 2014).

In the tourism literature, relationships between business sectors and local residents, particularly cooperation, are underexplored. Cooperation in tourism research has been studied between business firms (business partnership), government and business sectors (public-private partnerships), government and host community, and tourists and residents (hosts-guests relationship). The research about local residents at tourism destinations predominately focuses on resident perceptions and attitudes towards tourism development, tourism policy, and impacts of tourism (Ap, 1992; Gursoy & Chi, 2009; Lee, 2013; Nunkoo *et al.*, 2013; Vargas-Sánchez, Porras-Bueno, & Plaza-Mejía, 2011). Another

group of research draws on stakeholder and community participation in tourism activities and development (Jordan, Vogt, Kruger, & Grewe, 2013; Simmons, 1994).

In response to these critiques, this paper considers the cooperation between local residents and tourism business firms from local residents' perspectives. More specifically, the purpose of this paper is to propose a conceptual framework to answer the question "what are the factors affecting intention of local residents to cooperate with tourism business firms in tourism activities at local destinations?" This framework is based on social exchange theory and a previous model of cooperation in tourism destinations. Most of articles reviewed in this paper are from high standard international journals in tourism field, such as *Annals of Tourism Research*, *Tourism Management*, *Journal of Sustainable tourism*, *Journal of Travel Research*, and *Current Issues in Tourism*. Future empirical studies might conduct on different parts of this framework, but measurements of each construct in this framework should be built differently, depending on the characteristics of tourism destinations and other external factors that can influence in stakeholder behaviours.

This paper is constructed around four parts. The introduction part is followed by an overview of theoretical background including research on local residents and cooperation between stakeholders, which draws from tourism management and inter-disciplinary literature. The third part is a proposed conceptual framework to address research questions and objectives. The paper is ended by a discussion and conclusion part with several directions for future studies.

## **2. LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1. Local Residents in Tourism Research**

Perceptions and attitudes of local residents is a well-studied area in tourism research (McGehee & Andereck, 2004). It is due to their undoubted roles in tourism development and direct impacts of tourism in their life (Nunkoo *et al.*, 2013).

Significant roles of local residents in tourism development are widely recognized. First, local residents

play as the host to welcome guests (tourists). Their hospitality and friendliness influence in the emotion and expression of tourists about destination image (Simmons, 1994). Furthermore, local residents are also suppliers of local services and products, such as accommodation, homestay, restaurants, tour guiding, traditional arts performance, and souvenirs. In addition, they are owners of land and other resources that other external suppliers, such as accommodations and tour operators, need for operating business. In the context of an increase of intellectual assets, the right of local residents with these resources is more and more accepted and protected by law (Le, 2016). Finally, because residents are the owners of local resources, including natural and cultural resources, they can be seen as the protectors and preservers of these resources (Rasoolimanesh, Jaafar, Ahmad, & Barghi, 2017).

Most of tourism activities of tourists and tourism suppliers are in local destinations; hence, tourism has a huge and direct influence in local residents in terms of economic, social-cultural, environmental, and life being aspects, with both positive and negative influences (Nunkoo *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, without the involvement and support of local residents causes a significant difficulty for developing tourism "in a sustainable and socially compatible manner" (Nunkoo *et al.*, 2013, p. 6). However, the local community is often one of the stakeholders least linked with tourism destination governance and development processes (Bornhorst *et al.*, 2010).

### **2.2.1. Local residents' perspectives towards tourism**

Perceptions and attitudes of local residents are frequently examined in terms of benefits and costs of tourism development (economic, social, cultural, and environmental impacts of tourism) (Gursoy & Chi, 2009; Vargas-Sánchez *et al.*, 2011), including their perceptions about sustainable tourism development (Boley, McGehee, & Tom Hammett, 2017; Lee, 2013). Results of these research indicate that the more benefits of tourism development that they perceive, the more they support for tourism development. However, the claim that perceived costs have a negative impact on attitudes is still controversial, as in some research this claim is

supported, in some other research it is not supported, which implies an influence of other factors in local residents' attitudes.

Perspectives of local residents about impacts of tourism are different with those of governmental officials, business firms, tourists, and non-governmental and social organizations. For example, in the study of Byrd, Bosley, and Dronberger (2009), in terms of the statement that 'tourism development increases crime', residents indicated a higher level of agreement than government officials and entrepreneurs. In compared to tourists, residents less agree with the role of tourism in improvement of local economy (Byrd *et al.*, 2009). In the study of Kuvan and Akan (2012), hotel managers believe that negative impacts of tourism on environment and society were few, but perceptions of residents in those impacts were extremely negative. This difference is explained by the difference in interests of each stakeholder. Specifically, hotel managers support their business and employers; and their main interests are economic benefits for their hotel. In contrast, local residents support their local area; and, they concern about quality of environment surrounding their community (Kuvan & Akan, 2012). Therefore, understanding perceptions of local residents is necessary to get their active supports and improve effectiveness of tourism policy- and decision-making, planning, and management.

Perceptions and attitudes of local residents are heterogeneous. Researchers have demonstrated that the difference in the distance from tourism zone (Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004), community attachment and involvement (Lee, 2013), level of community concern (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004), location (Byrd *et al.*, 2009), life satisfaction, emotional solidarity (Nghiem-Phú, 2015), and power (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012) leads to the difference in perceptions and attitudes between local residents. Moreover, their attitudes are also influenced by external factors like psychological, social, and political empowerment (Boley, McGehee, Perdue, & Long, 2014), eccentric values, utilization of tourism resource base, and the state of the local economy (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004). The complexity of local people perceptions and attitudes leads to another stream of tourism research in this stakeholder, which is segmentation or classification of local residents.

### **2.2.2. Classifications of local residents**

Local residents living in a tourism destination are not a homogeneous community or group. There is a number of communities or sub-groups, such as elderly community, professional community, and ethnic groups. Each sub-group has different roles as well as perceptions and attitudes about tourism development (Williams & Lawson, 2001). Therefore, to have a thorough understanding about local resident perspectives, there is a need of classifying local residents and choosing types of residents that a study focuses on. There are two mainstreams of local resident identification.

The first stream bases on residents' degree of involvement in tourism development. A good example of this classification is the work of Krippendorf (1987) that identifies four types of local residents (cited in Brunt & Courtney, 1999; Page & Connell, 2006), based on local resident involvements and interactions with tourism activities and tourists. The first group is those who have continuous and direct contact with tourists. These residents' income depends on tourism; and they will become unemployed without tourism; hence, they welcome more tourists visiting their locality. The second group is proprietors of businesses with a little contact with tourists. The third type is those who have direct and frequent contacts with tourists but gain only a part of their income from tourism. People from this group take advantages from tourism, but also acknowledge disadvantages of tourism. The final group is those who have no contact with tourists or see them only in passing. This group is regarded as outsiders and has a variety of perceptions as well as attitudes towards tourism.

The second stream of research aims to segment residents through exploring their perceptions and attitudes towards tourism (see Davis, Allen, & Cosenza, 1988; Ryan & Montgomery, 1994; Williams & Lawson, 2001). Residents who have similar perceptions and attitudes will be grouped together. The research of Davis, Allen, and Cosenza (1988), one of the earliest studies in this stream, classifies five clusters of local people in Florida (table 1). Some of demographic criteria were also used in this research to segment local residents, including sex, age, length of time living in the locality, education, occupation, and family members working in the tourism

industry, but the results show no significant difference between these clusters. However, a significant difference recorded is that most of the haters are native Floridians and have a low level of knowledge about tourism in Florida. In contrast, most of lovers are those who non-native and high level of knowledge about Florida tourism. This research demonstrated not only a variety of local residents' perspectives and attitudes towards tourism, but also a strong positive relationship between knowledge of tourism and the perceptions of residents, as "the more residents know about the tourism industry, the less negative they seem towards it" (Davis *et al.*, 1988, p. 7). This finding is then supported in other studies (see Nunkoo, 2015).

**Table 1**  
**Five clusters of local residents**  
(summarised from Davis *et al.*, 1988)

<i>Name</i>	<i>Description</i>
<i>Haters</i>	Extremely negative opinions towards tourists and tourism in general
<i>Lovers</i>	Equally vociferous in a positive direction
<i>Cautious Romantics</i>	Holds many of the same feelings as the Lovers with respect to a pro-tourism stance, but generally these feelings are not as strong as those of the Lovers. Also, hold anti-growth opinions similar in intensity to the Haters.
<i>In-betweeners</i>	Have fair moderate opinions towards the benefit of tourism in the state and towards continued growth of this industry.
<i>Love' Me for a Reason</i>	Appears to be pro-tourism and growth but is less vociferous about it than the Lovers.

Similar to the above work, Ryan and Montgomery (1994) use cluster analysis to examine attitudes of local residents in Bakewell, a town in England. This work identifies three clusters: enthusiast, somewhat irritated, and middle of-the-roaders. Socio-economic and demographic profiles of these clusters are also examined, but results shows no statistically significant differences, which is in consistency with the results from the work of Davis, Allen, and Cosenza (1988). Also employing cluster analysis but instead of demographic factors, Williams and Lawson (2001) use personal values to examine perceptions of residents in New Zealand about effects

of tourism on their communities. Four clusters of local residents are identified, including lovers, cynics, taxpayers, and innocents. The finding of this research is significantly interesting as it suggests that people with least approve of tourism have less life satisfaction in general, but they are the most community oriented. In contrast, people with most approve of tourism are the least community oriented.

Resident perceptions and attitudes are important bases for governments and destination management organizations (DMOs) in tourism policy- and decision-making, planning, and managing. However, the process from understanding resident perspectives to involving them in tourism development is not a simple mission; sometimes, it is considered as impossibility (Ioannides, 1995; Tosun, 2006). Moreover, encouragement of community participation is mainly regarded as a responsibility of governments and non-profit organizations (public sector). Although private sectors can encourage community participation through their partnerships with local community, the contribution of this sector is still limiting.

## 2.2. Cooperation in Tourism

In tourism and destination development, there is wide recognition of the important roles of cooperation (Beritelli, 2011). Cooperation is beneficial for sustainable tourism development thanks to its advantages in encouraging multi-stakeholders and organizations to participate in planning and implementing sustainable tourism (Bramwell & Lane, 2000; Richards & Hall, 2002). Cooperation helps to minimize conflicts between stakeholders in respect to the use of local resources (Aas, Ladkin, & Fletcher, 2005). Cooperation is also an important condition for the success and competitiveness of a tourism destination (Baggio, 2011; Gajdošík, 2015), as a destination from the view of tourists is a systemic entity; and, tourists usually choose destinations before choosing providers of products and services. Moreover, tourism destinations within a region can enhance their competitiveness through cooperation with each other (Żemła, 2014). With these benefits, cooperative relationships from individual level to network level have been studied in tourism planning (see Jamal & Getz, 1995;

Timothy, 1998), policy-making (see Vernon, Essex, Pinder, & Curry, 2005), tourism development, and destination marketing (see Wang & Krakover, 2008). Furthermore, cooperation is emphasized within emergency management as a way that tourism stakeholders response to disasters (Morakabati, Page, & Fletcher, 2016).

In the tourism literature, cooperation, collaboration, and coordination are three terms used to illustrate actions/activities and relationships of different individuals, groups, and organizations to gain common goals. Although, a clear difference between these terms is unidentified, cooperation is regarded as a general term relevant to collective actions. Meanwhile collaboration and coordination are used as two levels of cooperative relationships (Wang & Krakover, 2008). Collaboration is a formal type of cooperation (Wang & Krakover, 2008) and a formal relationship between organizations (Osarenkhoe, 2010). Both cooperation and collaboration are mentioned as together working relationships for common interests, sharing resources, and joint activities (Osarenkhoe, 2010). This present paper also uses “cooperation” with this understanding. The definition of cooperation approached in this paper is employed from Czernek (2013) defining cooperation in tourism as “a form of voluntary joint actions in which autonomous stakeholders engage in an interactive process, using shared rules, norms and structures, to act and decide on issues related to tourism development in the region” (Czernek, 2013, p. 84).

There are two main forms of cooperation: contract-based/formal cooperation and relational-based/informal cooperation (Beritelli, 2011). They can be adopted in the same study as well as in separate studies. While formal cooperation is more often studied between institutions and administrative and governing bodies, informal cooperation tends to be applied in regions and communities. Contract-based cooperation is considered as formal agreement between organizations in professional and institutional contexts (Beritelli, 2011). Whereas, relation-based cooperation relies on trust (Pesämaa & Hair Jr, 2007), personal commitment (Mavondo & Rodrigo, 2001; Mohr & Spekman, 1994; Morgan & Hunt, 1994), and interpersonal relationship

(*guanxi* in Chinese context) (Mavondo & Rodrigo, 2001). Both types of cooperation might exist at the same time within an organizational context, but in some cases, the influence of relation-based cooperation can surpass the influence of formal contracts (Beritelli, 2011).

Wang and Krakover (2008), basing on the level of formality, integration, and structural complexity, identify four types and levels of cooperation among tourism businesses in conducting destination marketing activities. They are affiliation, coordination, collaboration, and strategic networks. The lowest level of cooperation, *affiliation*, is an individual, relational, and informal type of cooperation. In this level, connections between organizations can be created and maintained through personal relationships that are initially based on trust and commitment. Organizations are still independent from each other, but they support each other through person-to-person information exchange and endorsements (Wang & Krakover, 2008). The next level is *coordination* where tourism organizations align and sponsor events and services towards common tasks with compatible organizations.

In *collaborative* relationship, stakeholders work collectively in common strategies to obtain their goals. They work together in a formal plan proposed by all participants and help their partners to better at what they do. In tourism planning, collaboration 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”(Jamal & Getz, 1995, p. 188). Collaboration is highly appreciated in community-based tourism planning aiming at local community participation in a social system that deals with common goals and benefits of destinations (Beritelli, 2011). The final and highest level of cooperation is *strategic networks*. A requirement of strategic networks is the involvement of all tourism organizations and stakeholders in collective networks with shared vision and orientation. Acting in networks, each participant can achieve their goals as well as common goals of networks.

Fyall, Garrod, and Wang (2012) consider tourism destination collaboration with three dimensions: organic

collaboration, intra-destination collaboration, and inter-destinations collaboration. Organic collaboration is a natural response to development and management challenges of destination collaboration (Wang, 2008). Intra-destination collaboration occurs among individuals and organizations within a destination in all levels and intensity (see Baggio, 2011). Inter-destinations collaboration is the cooperative relationship between neighboring destinations or a linear geographical feature such as a trading route and a major river (see Żemła, 2014). This collaboration is risen in line with a critical turn in studying tourism destinations, in which geographical boundaries between destinations are becoming blurred; and a group of tourism destinations cooperates as a destination chain sharing common goals and potential customers (Dong, 2016). However, there is less attention in inter-destinations collaboration compared to intra-destination collaboration, as the co-location, proximity, and interconnectedness of various stakeholders relevant to a tourism destination is still a fertile context for intra-destination interactions and partnerships.

### **3. DRIVERS OF LOCAL RESIDENTS' INTENTION TO COOPERATE WITH TOURISM BUSINESS: A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

#### **3.1. Cooperation between Local Residents and Tourism Business Firms**

In tourism destinations, local residents and tourism firms are two primary stakeholders (Murphy & Murphy, 2004). Their interactions are recorded in many activities and situations. The establishment of their relationships depends on kinds of tourism business, degree of residents' involvement in tourism activities, and benefits that residents and firms perceive to obtain from this partnership.

With residents not involved in tourism activities, they might be disturbed by tourism activities; also, they less interact with tourism business firms. Thus, this relationship can be in negative dimensions and conflicting. A practical example of this situation in tourism destinations is that high standard resorts and hotels usually occupy the most beautiful space in local destinations and

exploit this space for business purposes. Local residents are limited or not allowed to access to this space. They are required to pay a fee like entrance tickets. Moreover, in many destinations, activities of these resorts have caused environmental pollutions that impact on living environments of local community. With the local people getting benefits from tourism activities, their attitudes with tourism firms and activities are more positive or less negative.

Among different kinds of tourism businesses, tour operators are stakeholders who have a complex relationship with local people. On the one hand, they market and bring tourists to local destinations; subsequently, they contribute to tourism development and bring more jobs and economic benefits for these destinations. On the other hand, in line with other tourism firms from outside localities (i.e. global and international hotel groups), most of tour operators are located in other areas, but they exploit local attractions, infrastructure, and other resources to produce tourism products and serve tourists with a low cost (Cavelzani, Lee, Locatelli, Monti, & Villamira, 2003). Meanwhile, these local assets belong to local community. Therefore, with local people who work in tourism industry, the more tour operators bring tourists to destinations, the more benefits they have. In contrast, with those who do not work in tourism industry, they might indirectly conflict with tour operators in the use of local attractions and due to negative impacts of tourist activities.

Another perspective considers tour operators as “cultural mediator between tourists and residents” (Cavelzani *et al.*, 2003, p. 8). With this role, tour operators help to enhance understanding and minimize conflicts between local community and tourists. Tour operators provide and educate tourists with the knowledge and information about culture, social norms, customs, and traditional values, which helps tourists avoiding the risk of being attacked by local community. The information and the way that tour operators introduce and educate tourists before and during their time at local destinations will affect in tourists' behaviours, actions, and treatments with tourism attractions and local community. This contributes to protecting and preserving tourist attractions (both natural and cultural issues), minimizing

conflicting, and increasing tourist satisfaction, which are the goals of sustainable tourism development.

Specific to the cooperative relationship between local residents and tourism business firms, this relationship is underexplored in the tourism research, but in practice, there are quite many evidences of their partnerships. With local residents who are owners of tourism businesses, their relationships with external tourism firms might include competition, cooperation, and conflict. They are competitors if both local firms and external firms have similar products and customer segments. The cooperation in this case leads to another type of relationship called coopeitition that is a simultaneousness of cooperation and competition between competing firms (Bengtsson & Kock, 2000). Competitors cooperate in destination marketing to attract more tourists visiting destinations and in other activities to achieve common goals of destinations. Second, if they are not competitors, they might conflict with each other in the use of local resources. Thus, the cooperation in this case is to share resources and minimize conflicts.

With local residents who are suppliers of local products (i.e. agricultural products, handicraft products, and souvenirs), they cooperate with tour operators and other tourism firms in destinations to market and sell local products. This is a direct and business relationship in which they work together to serve and satisfy tourists' demands, aiming at economic benefits. In this case, tour operators play as distributors of local products; and residents play as suppliers of local tourism products. Another common example is traditional art performance by local people, but these activities are operated by the coordination between local government/DMOs and tour operators. In this case, local people get payment for their performance from local government/DMOs as the salary for their work. In terms of tourism management and planning, cooperation of residents and business firms is indicated through their involvement and collaboration in tourism policy- and decision-making and planning under the coordination of governments and DMOs. Local people might cooperate with tourism companies in a network to protect and preserve local culture and natural environment, create attractiveness, and form uniqueness of a destination (acknowledged as Unique

Selling Proposition and Unique Emotional Proposition) (UNWTO, 2007).

The cooperation between these two stakeholders can contribute to improving quality of tourism destination product. The quality in service industries is relatively difficult to measure, as it depends on the level of customer satisfaction. Heightening tourism product quality means increasing values, experiences, and satisfaction for tourists when they consume tourism products and services. Meanwhile quality of tourism products in case of a tourism destination is comprised by quality of various services and goods, tourism resources, and local resident behaviors and attitudes.

With local people, cooperation with tourism firms is a great opportunity for them to improve life standards (economic, social, cultural, and environmental dimensions) through working for tourism firms and involving in tourism destination development and planning. With tourism businesses, they take advantages of local workforce to promote local values and culture in their services, which are important elements to build uniqueness and competitiveness for their products. This relationship also helps to prevent negative actions of local people, as Williams and Lawson (2001, p. 270) argue, "commercial tourism ventures may be hampered or terminated by excessive negative resident sentiment toward this development".

In conclusion, this paper recognizes that cooperation between local residents and tourism firms are beneficial for both partners as well as tourism development; hence, there is a need for research in this relationship. This paper focuses on perception and intention of local residents about this relationship relevant to tourism activities in tourism destinations.

### **3.2. Local Residents' Intention to Cooperate with Tourism Business: A Conceptual Framework**

As mentioned above, in the tourism literature, cooperation between local residents and business firms is less concerned compared to local residents' perceptions and attitudes; subsequently, this paper develops hypotheses and a framework based on an integration of social exchange theory and cooperation concept. Social

exchange theory (SET) is the most frequent theory used to examine attitudes of local residents towards tourism development. The previous research employed SET to explain the influence of perceived rewards and costs in attitudes of local residents, while the recent research applying SET adds other constructs, including knowledge of tourism, power, and trust in complex models to examine attitudes of local residents (see Nunkoo, 2015; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012; Nunkoo & Smith, 2013). Power and trust between the actors in an exchange process are central to SET (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012). They are two fundamental constructs to explain actions and relationships between actors in social science. Power helps actors in an exchange process gain their mutual benefits and outcome of the process (Ap, 1992). Trust has a positive impact on reducing conflicts and promoting effective collaboration and partnerships in planning and development (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012).

A fundamental research of cooperation in tourism is the work of Beritelli (2011). This research studies both formal and informal cooperation between individuals and organizations in tourism destination communities comprising various areas of cooperation and intensities of cooperation. Formal contracts (formal cooperation) are examined through institutional connection, professional contact, and political contact, while informal cooperation is examined by sympathy, trust, understanding, starting initiatives, and success of initiatives. A mediator is communication behavior including communication intensity, contact ease, and information exchange. One of important findings of this study suggested that “cooperative behavior among actors and stakeholder groups in tourism destinations is an interpersonal business” (Beritelli, 2011, p. 623). Subsequently, when selecting representatives for destination planning and development, individuals should be considered first, then their organizations, which is in line with McAllister’s (1995) argument.

This current paper considers both informal and formal cooperation between local people and tourism business firms. Specifically, this paper focuses on the drivers of local residents’ intention to establish cooperative relationships with any kind of tourism

business firms. Cooperative behaviors between these stakeholders are considered from individual to network level in various tourism activities in tourism destinations. These activities might be serving tourists, selling products, tourism planning, destination marketing and branding, environmental and cultural protections and preservation activities, social and community development activities, and other tourism activities that deal with collective actions aiming at common goals of destinations.

From an integration of previous models applying SET and Beritelli’s (2011) model of cooperative behaviors, the intention of residents to cooperate with business sectors is examined by perceived benefits and costs of cooperation, power, trust, and communication (figure 1). Furthermore, this framework also examines the relationship between power and perceived benefits of cooperation, between power and perceived costs of cooperation, and between communication and trust. The detail of each driver/construct is presented in the following sections.

### ***3.2.1. Social Exchange Theory***

According to Emerson (1976), social exchange theory (SET) is a “frame of reference” that implies “a two-sided, mutually contingent, and mutually rewarding process involving ‘transactions’ or simply ‘exchange’” (Emerson, 1976, p. 336). SET emphasizes the influence of structure of rewards and costs of relationships and exchange of resources between individuals and groups in patterns of interaction (Ap, 1992; Molm, 1991). There are three conditions of social interactions for application of SET, which are “(1) Actors are dependent on one another for outcomes they value; (2) Actors behave in ways that increase outcomes they positively value and decrease outcomes they negatively value; and (3) Actors engage in recurring exchanges with specific partners over time” (Molm, 1991, p. 475). Outcomes of cooperative relationships depends on the participation and contribution of all partners involved, thus, SET can be applied to examine cooperative relationships.

In the tourism research on local residents, social exchange theory (SET) is mostly used in studying their perceptions and attitudes towards tourism impacts and tourism development (see Ap, 1992; Gursoy, Jurowski, & Uysal, 2002; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Vargas-



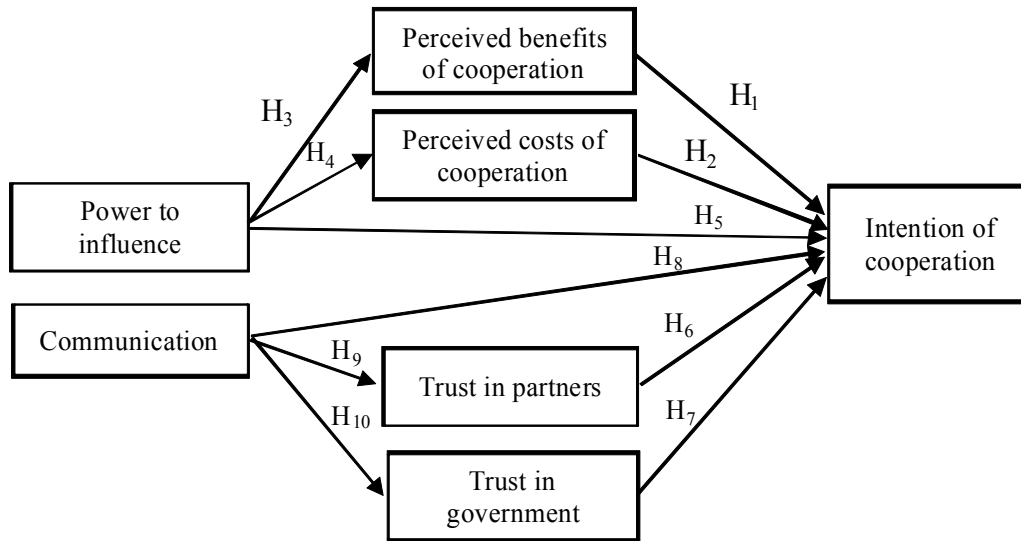


Figure 1: Research framework

Sánchez, Oom do Valle, da Costa Mendes, & Silva, 2015). Local residents consider about benefits and costs of tourism development to support, and about benefits and costs of involvement in tourism activities to participate in (Rasoolimanesh, Ringle, Jaafar, & Ramayah, 2017). When they perceive that there are more benefits than costs, they might have positive attitudes, which positively influence their intention to support and participate. In terms of cooperation, Beritelli (2011) argued that “cooperative behaviour takes place in a social context in which the actors strive to gain reputation and rewards” (Beritelli, 2011, p. 612).

Therefore, applied in cooperative relationships, SET suggests that the intention of residents to cooperate is affected by their perceptions of benefits and costs of cooperation. Their attitudes towards this relationship might be more positive if the benefits surpass the costs. In contrast, if the perceived benefits are equal or less than the perceived costs, they might not establish this relationship. Moreover, Jamal and Getz (1995) suppose that when partnership members believe that benefits of relationships will add to all members, they will contribute to the development of cooperation in tourism destinations. Therefore, following hypotheses are set up:

*H<sub>1</sub>: Perceived benefits of cooperation has a direct and positive impact on local residents’ intention to cooperate with tourism business firms.*

*H<sub>2</sub>: Perceived costs of cooperation has a direct and negative impact on local residents’ intention to cooperate with tourism business firms.*

### 3.2.2. Power to Influence

Power is recognized as a single concept that can explain and structure the fields of action (Gohler, 2009; Hindess, 1996) as well as an actual ability to transfer ideals to actions (Ryan, 2002). Power is the ability to exert influence. Power can structure the field of action potentially by its capacity and actually by its influence; and, power can create a common space for action from the first place by communication, so that, a community can be structured (Gohler, 2009). The sources of power can be from hierarchical position, assets, and knowledge (Wrong, 1979).

Power is included in a range of theories, including stakeholder theory, social exchange theory, resources dependent theory, and actor-network theory to explore and explain social phenomenon. In stakeholder theory, power, legitimacy, and urgency are three attributes of stakeholders, which are used to classify stakeholders into seven groups. Power of a stakeholder can become uselessness if this stakeholder does not have legitimacy (Mitchell, Agle, & Wood, 1997). From resource dependent theory, power is the control over scarce resources (Akpınar & Vincze, 2016). From SET, power and trust

are its central (Molm, 1991); they affect behaviours of actors involved in social exchanges (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012). Power in actor-network theory is in line with Foucauldian approach and emphasizes the ability of a principal actor in handling his/her power to enrol other actors into his/her network and influence these actors to act for common goals (Dedeke, 2017).

In tourism, the power approach that recognizes bottom-up power in line with Foucauldian perspectives is highly appreciated, as this approach considers power as a relation, not a property of authority. The bottom-up approach emphasizes the influence of local residents, even poor and less advantaged people in tourism destinations (Wearing, Wearing, & McDonald, 2010). From this viewpoint, when local residents can have ability to act and power to influence, they might increase their involvement. In addition, the perceptions of local residents about something are influenced by their social positions and knowledge that are sources of power (Wrong, 1979).

Not only influence on the actions of people, various studies employing SET have demonstrated that residents' perceived power to influence tourism development is positively relevant to their perceptions of benefits and negatively related to their perceptions of costs of tourism development (Nunkoo & Smith, 2013). Power determines the ability of the actor to take advantage of the outcomes of relationships (Ap, 1992). Furthermore, power can help to explain the process and outcomes of collaboration (Reed, 1997); conversely, collaboration can contribute to reduce the power imbalance between stakeholders (Tosun, 2001). Thus, this paper develops an argument that residents' perceived power to influence might affect their perceptions of benefits and costs of cooperation and their intention to cooperate. The following hypotheses are set up:

- H<sub>3</sub>: Local residents' power to influence has a positive impact on their perceived benefits of cooperation.*
- H<sub>4</sub>: Local residents' power to influence has a negative impact on their perceived costs of cooperation.*
- H<sub>5</sub>: Local residents' power to influence has a positive and direct impact on their intention to cooperate with tourism business firms.*

### **3.2.3. Trust**

Along with power, trust is another construct of social relationships between individuals, groups, and organizations. Trust is "a willingness to rely on an exchange partner in whom one has confidence" (Morgan & Hunt, 1994, p. 23). Interpersonal trust is important for "sustaining individual and organizational effectiveness" (McAllister, 1995, p. 24). Researchers have revealed a positive causal path from trust to cooperation (Anderson & Narus, 1990; Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Pesämaa & Hair, 2008), as "the lack of trust undermined the willingness to cooperate and made the process of cooperation more difficult" (Czernek, 2013, p. 97). When trust is established, the outcome of coordinated and joint efforts will exceed the achievement that each partner acts solely in its own ability and resources (Anderson & Narus, 1990). Therefore, this study argues that trust in partners is a reason that affects residents' intention to cooperate with business firms. Trust of residents in business firms is more about interpersonal trust as interpersonal trust is "the extent to which a person is confident in, and willing to act on the basis of, the words, actions, and decisions of another" (McAllister, 1995, p. 25). Additionally, Beritelli (2011) concluded that "cooperative behavior among actors and stakeholder groups in tourism destinations is an interpersonal business" (p. 623).

Not only trust in partners, trust of residents in government is valuable to consider as it can contribute to improving good governance for local government (Nunkoo, 2015). Government is the principal actor playing central role in tourism development, planning, and controlling (Bramwell, 2011). Residents determine their trust in government by assessing their trust in different activities and departments of government (Nunkoo, 2015). In the context of tourism development, trust of residents in government is built by their general political trust and their specific trust in tourism (Nunkoo, 2015). Efficient and inclusive destination management is key to increase the willingness of stakeholders to cooperate (d'Angella & Go, 2009). Therefore, the following hypotheses are set up:

- H<sub>6</sub>: There is a direct and positive impact of trust in tourism business firms in the intention of local residents to cooperate with tourism business firms.*

*H<sub>7</sub>: There is a direct and positive impact of trust in government in the intention of local residents to cooperate with tourism business firms.*

### **3.2.4. Communication**

Communication is a straightforward and initial step that supports cooperative behavior (Aas *et al.*, 2005; Beritelli, 2011; Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Poppo & Zenger, 2002). Communication is essential to achieve the benefits of cooperation (Mohr & Spekman, 1994). Communication “can be defined broadly as the formal as well as informal sharing of meaningful and timely information between firms” (Anderson & Narus, 1990, p. 44). Communication is also a construct of trust, as it is perceived as a major precursor of trust (Morgan & Hunt, 1994); and “open and honest communication is the cornerstone to trust” (Ramayah, Lee, & In, 2011, p. 417).

Communication behaviors are reflected by communication intensity (Mohr & Spekman, 1994; Morgan & Hunt, 1994), contact ease (actors have easier access to some people than to others) (Rodríguez & Wilson, 2002), and information exchange (Mohr & Spekman, 1994). Getting in contact is advantageous for beginning and launching collective actions and partnerships. The more intensive of communication is, the more understanding between partners, and the more they trust each other (Beritelli, 2011).

However, these criteria do not always support trust and cooperation. In the work of Beritelli (2011), while the intense and ease of communication support trust and cooperation, information exchange has both less negative and positive influence in trust and cooperation. This is explained by the reason that “the less people exchange information with others, the less they may be biased and therefore the higher the tendency to initiate an unbiased cooperation” (Beritelli, 2011, p.623). Another reason might be that there is a difference between stakeholders in the perception about maintaining communication. The research of Aas, Ladkin, and Fletcher (2005) in collaboration between tourism sector and heritage site management organizations in heritage tourism management reveals that tourism sector perceives the need to improve communication, while the heritage sector does not perceive the same. This is because of the

fact that the impact of tourism in the cultural heritage is not serious and the main funds for conservation are not from tourism (Aas *et al.*, 2005).

Therefore, relating to cooperation between local residents and tourism business firms, this present paper builds an argument that communication between them is one of drivers of resident participation in partnerships with tourism firms. The following hypotheses are set up:

*H<sub>8</sub>: Communication has a direct and positive impact in the intention of local residents to cooperate tourism business firms.*

*H<sub>9</sub>: Communication has a direct and positive impact in trust of local residents in tourism business firms.*

*H<sub>10</sub>: Communication has a direct and positive impact in trust of local residents in government.*

## **4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

This conceptual paper provides a framework to examine drivers of local residents at tourism destinations to cooperate with tourism firms in tourism activities and tourism development, which is a significant theoretical gap in tourism research. Perceptions of local residents about benefits and costs of cooperation, their power to influence, and their trust in business sectors and local governments related to tourism development are also included in this model. The application of SET in explaining cooperative behaviours is currently limited in tourism research. Moreover, this framework can be applied to examine both direct and indirect influence of communication and power in intention of local residents. Therefore, structural evaluation modelling (SEM) can be applied in this framework, which will provide potential interesting outcomes for empirical research. In addition, this model can apply in cooperative relationships from individuals to network levels and in many tourism activities in tourism destinations. Furthermore, there is an important notice that in social science research, there are two main streams of power: traditional and Foucauldian perspectives (Introna, 1997). They might conflict each other if adopted in one study; thus, when applying this framework, researchers need to position their viewpoint in a specific approach of power to ensure the compatibility between theoretical approaches used.

When this model is tested by empirical studies, it can suggest useful applications for planners and managers in tourism policy- and decision-making and planning to foster cooperative relationships between local community and external tourism business firms, as well as cooperation within the locality. On the one hand, this relationship contributes to encouragement of local community participation in tourism activities. On the other hand, through this partnership, business sectors can be involved in implementing the common goals of tourism destination development and other socio-economic goals of locality; hence, this sector can share the responsibility of local government in ensuring job and living for local community.

However, it is worth noting that in some tourist places, tourism firms might cooperate with local people in negative ways. A common situation is selling low quality products with high price, such as hotel rooms, food and beverage, local souvenirs, and other local products. They even provide illegal services and products such as prostitutes and smuggled goods. It influences negatively in overall emotion and impression of tourists about destinations. This situation is usually in small business and in a context of poor planning and management.

Future empirical studies might conduct on different parts of this framework, compatible for specific purposes and contexts of research. Measurements of each construct might be built depending on different types of tourism destinations like urban and rural destinations, heritage destinations, protected areas, and peripheral destinations. For example, with nature-based tourism destination, tourism activities mainly depend on natural resources; subsequently, collective actions are relevant to exploitation and preservation of natural values; and benefits and costs of cooperation are associated with these values. Furthermore, this framework can be conducted to examine different kinds and levels of cooperation in various tourism activities at tourism destinations.

Certainly, this framework has some limitations. Human actions are influenced by endogenous and exogenous factors, but this framework only considers the factors belonging to personal perspectives and internal motivations. Meanwhile, efficient and inclusive destination management has been demonstrated as having

a positive influence in the willingness of stakeholders to cooperate (d'Angella & Go, 2009). Other external factors like stage of tourism development, focus of strategic thinking, locality of marketing campaign, maturity of destination marketing approach, and leadership of local DMOs also have influence in stakeholder behaviors (Wang & Krakover, 2008). However, these external factors can be considered within the measurements of the independent variables. For example, characteristics of local products in handicraft villages can be mentioned in perceived benefits and costs of cooperation. Trust in government can implicitly imply effectiveness of development strategy and management of government. Therefore, this framework allows researchers to explicitly examine internal drivers and implicitly examine external factors of local residents' intention to establish cooperative relationships with tourism business firms in various types and levels of partnership and tourism activities in tourism destinations.

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