A moment to give, no moment to take: a mixed-methods study on volunteer tourism

Usep Suhud

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A moment to give, no moment to take: A mixed-methods study on volunteer tourism

Usep Suhud

PhD Thesis
The School of Marketing, Tourism and Leisure
Faculty of Business and Law – Edith Cowan University
Perth, Western Australia
March, 2013
Abstract

A moment to give, no moment to take: A mixed-methods study on volunteer tourism

The number of research projects (theses and non-theses) on volunteer tourism (VT) has increased significantly over the last twelve years. However, few studies have measured an individual’s intention and stage of readiness to be involved in VT. The main purpose of this thesis is to develop a model to predict intention and stage of readiness to be involved in volunteer tourism by applying variables, including attitudes towards the concept of volunteer tourism (VT), subjective norms, altruistic lifestyle values, the sensation-seeking personality, social class, taking/receiving motivation, giving motivation, past experience in tourism, past experience in volunteering, past experience in VT, perceived and factual constraints.

This study was conducted using a sequential mixed methods approach. A qualitative approach was utilised in the first stage. Qualitative data were gathered via focus groups (15 participants), in-depth interviews (15 participants), and email interviews (three participants) which were conducted in Perth, Western Australia. The participants selected were those who had experience as a volunteer tourist and/or as an international volunteer. The data were analysed using NVivo (Welsh, 2002a) version 10. The second stage consisted of a quantitative study and collected data via an online survey. This survey attracted 542 participants with a range of experience in VT. The participants mainly resided in Australia. Data were analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (Allen & Bennett, 2010; Blunch, 2008; Coakes, Steed, & Ong, 2010; Pallant, 2010) for the exploratory factor analysis and AMOS (Analysis of Moment Structures) for confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modelling (Blunch, 2008; Byrne, 2001; Hair Jr., Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006; Holmes-Smith, 2010).

As a result of reviewing the literature on VT (Broad & Jenkins, 2008; Hobbs, 2007; K. D. Lyons & Wearing, 2012; E. Raymond, 2008; Tourism Research and Marketing, 2008; Wearing, 2001) and the findings of both the qualitative and quantitative studies, volunteer tourism was conceptualised as the intersection of volunteer and
tourism concepts and a combination of volunteer and tourism activities in a travel destination (nationally or internationally). This requires motivated participants to volunteer for a day or more and pay their own costs, for instance, for transport, accommodation, meals, and in some instances financially contribute to the project (these could include humanitarian, education, health, construction, religion, and conservation projects) itself, through a sender or host organisation.

In the qualitative study, it was found that people engaged in VT for a variety of reasons and had varied VT experiences. A key factor with participants was the importance of word of mouth influences in inspiring and encouraging their involvement in VT. This was found to be a powerful motivator. Broadly the experiences ranged from religious, to embracing the environment, to adventure seeking, to being free and genuinely altruistic motivations. Constraints to be involved in VT came from participants with more limited VT experience and included time, money, distance and language difficulties. These findings were applied in developing the research instrument by adding, confirming, and modifying the information taken from the literature review in tourism, volunteerism, and VT.

In the quantitative study, modifications were made to the initial conceptual framework proposed, for example, by dividing the motivation variable into ‘taking/receiving motivation’ and ‘giving motivation’ to ensure that drivers of each type of motivation were explored. Using a structural equation model, the relationship between these two different types of motivation and their impact on intention was examined.

To measure individuals’ intentions and stage of readiness to be involved in VT, six models were developed, each individually testing a research question. A key driver for predicting intention to engage in VT was the ‘giving motivation’; this included the need to give back to the community and a concern for the environment. In addition, a group of other key drivers included attitudes, subjective norms, ‘taking/receiving motivation’ and a sensation-seeking personality. These findings both added to and consolidated exiting literature on the intention to engage in VT. Findings indicated a strengthening of intention as time increased (from 1 to 3 to 5 years) along with
different drivers impacting the decision at different time intervals. This information is critical to marketers and social marketers of VT so as to effectively communicate with potential volunteer tourists with time appropriate messages.

Further, this study of individuals’ intention and stage of readiness to be involved in VT is significant to tourism, volunteerism, and VT knowledge, obviously seen from the qualitative study. Individuals might be easy to be just a tourist, travel to a city or country for any purpose. However, to add volunteering activity, such as working in a community or orphanage, in the destination might attract only certain people. Most participants needed a proper and long preparation before they were really involved in VT. For non-volunteer tourists, some disagreed to the concept of VT and some others even though they agreed to the concept, they considered later in their lives if they wanted to be involved in VT. The findings indicate that VT is still an alternative, niche, and special tourism product as VT requires a high involvement from each participant.

**Keywords:** volunteer tourism, international volunteering, attitude, subjective norms, intention, stage of readiness, taking motivation, giving motivation, TRG motivations, social class, altruistic lifestyle values, sensation-seeking personality, past experience, constraints, social marketing.
Declaration

I certify that this thesis does not, to the best of my knowledge and belief:

i. Incorporate without acknowledgement any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any institution of higher education;

ii. Contain any material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text of this thesis; or

iii. Contain any defamatory material;

Joondalup - Western Australia, March 28th, 2013

Usep Suhud
Acknowledgements

Another autumn. This could be my last autumn in my PhD journey, my promise to the universe, to my home country, to my sons: Basil and Barley. And this is for my mother, the first woman who taught me how to win a battle in hard times. This is for my wife, the last woman who balances me in every single hard time I face.

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Chapter one

Introduction

1.1. Chapter overview

In this chapter, the author outlines the background of the study that consists of the overview of the theses and literature on volunteer tourism (VT), gaps in literature and the significance of the study, research questions, the objectives of the study, an overview of the methods used, and the structure of the thesis.

In the background, the author expresses his experience meeting religious Mormon men and uses that story to link to a short history of VT. The author also writes another story he experienced relating to VT. This story inspired the author to choose the variables he was interested in, such as attitude towards the concept of VT, past experience, psychographic characteristics, motivation, constraints, and intention to be involved in VT. Other variables used in the study were added after reviewing the literature.

This chapter also presents the research questions, and research objectives. In total, there were eight research objectives that framed this study. The objectives aimed to explore and confirm variables and the relationship between them. Further, the author depicts an overview of the methods used, and introduces how the data was collected and how it was analysed. As this is a mixed methods study, aspects of both of the sequences (qualitative and quantitative) are also described. The methodology for the qualitative study is presented in detail in Chapter Three and the methodology for the quantitative study is presented in Chapter Six.

This chapter concludes by presenting the structure of the thesis. In summary, this thesis has ten chapters, containing an introduction (Chapter One), a literature review (Chapter Two), the qualitative research methodology (Chapter Three), the qualitative study results analysis (Chapter Four and Chapter Five), the quantitative study methodology (Chapter Six), a descriptive analysis and instrument development
(Chapter Seven), the quantitative study results analysis (Chapter Eight), discussion (Chapter Nine), and a conclusion (Chapter Ten).

1.2. **Background**

Sometime in the autumn of 2010, the author was sitting in front of the State Library of Western Australia, about to eat his lunch. Nice air. Not so many flies around, but lots of people, watching children playing on a park fountain installation. A young man in a white shirt and dark pants approached some people who were sitting nearby. The author saw them refuse him. The author was curious about what he offered. Then the young man turned to the author, the last person in the crowd. He introduced himself as someone from the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, a Mormon. He wasn’t expecting that the author would let him finish his words completely. He seemed surprised. Then, this young man sat beside him, properly. He asked the author permission to explain the concept of pre-earth life, spirit world, celestial beings, and so on. He also talked about other things. For example, “Nice shoes,” he said. The author smiled and looked doubtfully at his old shoes. However, he moved the author. He asked whether the author wanted to learn more about the plan of salvation. The author agreed and gave him his number.

As a consequence, one fine day in 2011, two young men in uniforms came to see the author at the university where the author studied. It was semester break, so there were not many students around. On the lawn, under pines, they sat. The Mormons told the author a story, about Joseph Smith the Prophet, showed the author how to pray, explained about the plan of salvation in detail and also talked about things in their home countries of Samoa and New Zealand. After the second or third meeting, these Mormons gave the author a book, ‘The Book of Mormon’. On the first page, one of them made a note:

*To Usep*

*This book will change your life*

*Love from Elder H & Elder L*
The author was not looking for a new religion, but obtaining new knowledge about different religion was considered valuable. He has followed Islam as a religion since he was born, inherited from his parents. For him, a religion is not just a guidance for life, but also a legacy, a root of family values, and a source of inspirations. However, this experience, meeting the Mormons, impressed upon him of how a religion is ‘marketed’. These men introduced and promoted the religion, educated and persuaded people to believe in it. The Mormon movement occurs not only in Australia, but also in many countries in all continents, involving young men in their early twenties, travelling across states and countries, to undertake a religious mission. The Mormons the author met admitted that being a ‘marketer’ of the Mormon religion was just a temporary activity for them because after finishing their missions, just like other young adults generally, they still had a plan to return and continue their studies to pursue a higher education. This action reminded the author of the Student Volunteer Movement (Harder, 2011; Western, 1956) in the USA, a movement that offered a chance to students to travel and volunteer overseas under the guidance of a mission.

Volunteering overseas began centuries ago, in the form of missionary work. Whereas some people travelled from one country to another to promote a belief and religion, some others went to volunteer in humanitarian sectors, under a mission trip, organised by churches or religious institutions. This movement transformed from a travel mission to many international volunteering types. This form of travelling was considered to be the beginning of international volunteering (VolunTourism, 2011) and VT is one of the off-shoots of this movement.

In December 2008, before the two incidents described above, a group of travellers with whom the author was acquainted was planning to volunteer in the Mentawai Islands in West Sumatra Province, Indonesia. The author was intrigued at the thought of travelling, volunteering, and researching on the activities. At the time, the author had just been accepted as a full-time lecturer at a state university in Jakarta, so he was keyed to the possibility for research. Travelling had always been his passion, particularly when destinations were new and the related activities adventurous. He loved the challenge of mountaineering, rafting, diving, trekking in
jungles, and caving. But it had been a while since he had been adventuring because his wife was worried about him taking dangerous journeys. Instead of debating this, he had learned to put aside his passion for adventurous travel. But as a lecturer, the author had an obligation to undertake research and so he wrote a research proposal. It was approved and funded by the faculty and the author was given the opportunity to become involved in VT in Mentawai.

Travelling to Mentawai was a rare opportunity to visit a new place and experience many unique things there. To reach these islands, it takes twelve hours by ferry from Sumatra. Because high tides and bad weather continually threaten, not many visitors get to see the islands. As a result of the isolation of these islands, Mentawaians continue to live in their own way. In 1692, the French Government published a world atlas and they named the islands Isle de la Fortunate (the Islands of Fortune). With their magnificent scenery and giant tides, it is little wonder that the Mentawai Islands attracted the author and other travellers.

In the first meeting with the group, one of the participants told the author about a 2007 National Geographic documentary *Guns, germs, and steels*, based on a book by Jared M. Diamond. The participant told the author how he had been influenced by this film, and how he associated the Mentawaians with the New Guineans documented in the film, whose culture had stopped developing. This information intrigued him more and motivated him to combine travelling and volunteering in a travel destination.

Unfortunately, the author’s plan to go to Mentawai Islands was disrupted by a health issue. Two weeks before departure, the author found himself lying in a hospital room, with a relapse of the Malaria that had infected him during his journey to Ujung Kulon National Park, West Java in 2007. But he did not want it to ruin his Mentawai itinerary; tickets had been paid for and the simulated plans had been developed. Besides, he had dreamed for so long to have this chance.

Previous experience told the author that it took five days of hospitalisation and a week for recovery to return to normal life. He made a calculation and naively presented it to his wife. If his calculations were correct, after five days in the hospital
and the week of recovery. He could still go to Mentawai and proceed with the plan. But before he could even fully explain himself, his wife demonstrated that she was not at all happy with his plan.

So, there was no Mentawai journey for the author, definitely. The author chose to be a sweet husband instead of waving a war flag at his wife. But the author hoped there would be another chance to pursue the Mentawai dream. Reflecting on his experience, he could discern that his intention and motivation were clear; the author wanted to pursue travel research. Fortunately, his wife’s initial opposition subsided and eventually she was at his side supporting him. But the health issue was a constraint that took time to deal with, no matter how badly he wanted to make this journey.

The Mentawai project in 2008 has inspired the author to write this PhD thesis and meeting the Mormons has convinced him more about the chosen topic. Moreover, these two stories above inspired the author to apply variables in this study as identified below:

1) There was no doubting the desire to join the Mentawai project since the first time the author was informed about it, because adventuring and volunteering were parts of his passion. The author thought that marrying volunteering and travelling was another form of adventuring. Later, the author realised that the combination of those activities was named by practitioners and researchers as VT, voluntourism, volunteer vacation, and adventure philanthropy (Alexander & Bakir, 2011; Bailey & Fernando, 2010; S. Brown & Morrison, 2003; Coghlan, 2011; Daldeniz & Hampton, 2011; Wearing, 2001). In addition, he thought that by being involved, he would have a chance to lift his travelling experience up to a certain higher level. Past experience in travelling and volunteering might have influenced the author to agree with the offer to join. For this reason, the author explored past experience in tourism and past experience in volunteering in this study. These two variables have received a paucity of attention by researchers in VT particularly in a quantitative study, with the exception of (2011).
2) The author joined several traveller groups before he left for Australia to pursue his PhD degree. He knew and hung out with other travellers. When the news about volunteer travelling to Mentawai was spread, everyone might be exposed to the idea. They talked and asked each other about the program. However, the project attracted only a small number of travellers. One of the travellers who refused joining said: “Travelling is for fun, why bother working unpaid during the adventure?” His attitude might be representative of some other travellers. In VT, particularly in quantitative studies, so far only Lee (2011) has included an attitude variable in his study and therefore it was investigated. The author also assumed that VT might attract only individuals with certain characteristics, such as those relating to lifestyle and personality. A sensation-seeking personality on VT has been studied by a small number of researchers (for example, Wymer Jr., Self, & Findley, 2010) whereas lifestyle had received less attention.

3) The author agreed to join the Mentawai project and his wife was supportive in the endeavour. Subjective norms seemed to be working in this case and therefore this variable was included in the current study. Lee (2011) used the Theory of Planned Behaviour also examined subjective norms in his study.

4) As faced by the author, other individuals may also experience an intention to travel or volunteer that is delayed or cancelled due to one or more reasons. Therefore, constraints to being involved in VT were explored in this study. So far, there is a paucity of evidence to suggest that this variable has been studied, quantitatively in a VT study.

When the author resolved to become involved in the Mentawai project, he became motivated to work with the community he would visit. This included: building a mini library, providing health checks (a volunteer doctor came along with the team), training teachers’ soft skills, and providing entertainment like games for kids and an outdoor movie showing. However, as mentioned above, the author was also motivated to conduct a research project and discretely, to celebrate being away from home and adventuring. Based on this experience, the
The author divided motivation for being engaged in VT into taking/receiving and giving (TRG). This seemed to present a gap in the literature.

The author had an intention to experience the Mentawai project but it was cancelled and he missed the opportunity. However, the author still has an intention to join in the future in another volunteer program, later after completing his PhD and free from all barriers. Due to this experience, the author included a stage of intention (within 1 year, 3 year, and 5 year) in this study. Intention to be involved in VT has been examined by Lee (2011) in his study, although not across time periods as examined in this study.

While the tourism industry and volunteer organisations treat VT as niche tourism (Robinson & Novelli, 2005) and as a form of sustainable tourism (Coghlan & Gooch, 2011; Ojo, Ismail, Umaru, & Ajagbe, 2012), many participants view it as alternative tourism (K. D. Lyons & Wearing, 2008; Wearing, 2001), an alternative experience (Zahra & McIntosh, 2007), serious leisure (Stebbins, 1996b, 2007), a holiday expedition (Coghlan, 2006), or a post-modern pilgrimage (Mustonen, 2005). VT enables participants to acquire new skills and experiences and can be seen as creative tourism (Richard & Wilson, 2006). These realities indicate that VT is complex. This thesis focuses on VT as the activity as where the volunteer work is self-funded. It is acknowledged that there is a large body of work carried out by volunteer organisations that partially or fully fund volunteers for theirs contributions. However, these types of programs are outside the scope of this thesis.

In this study, the author focusses on VT, but the author also discusses volunteerism and tourism theories as a realisation of the complexity of VT. There are two reasons why these two fields were involved: firstly, when this thesis was commenced in early 2010, there were limited studies on VT and those that had been published had predominantly followed quantitative and mixed methods approaches (for example, A. Benson & Seibert, 2009; Coren & Gray, 2011; J. K. Rattan, Eagles, & Mair, 2011). Secondly, the term ‘VT’ consists of the words ‘volunteer’ and ‘tourism’ and might be a combination and/or intersection between these two terms, practically or theoretically.
Practically, participants of VT and host communities visited might consider VT as a moment to give (sharing, helping, donating, and training) and take (learning, socialising, relaxing, and receiving) (Aalten, 2010; A. Benson & Seibert, 2009; Wearing & Neil, 2001), whereas the tourism industry and volunteer organisations consider it as a market, a growing market. Tourism Research and Marketing (TRAM) (2008) stated that the trend of a VT market was influenced by the growth of tourism overall and an enhancement of the enthusiasm of people to volunteer in foreign countries. The trend of VT relies in part on the growth of tour operators and agencies that offer VT programs. The trend of VT may be affected by other trends as well, such as:

1) The growth of Corporate Social Responsibility in issues, such as climate change, human rights, driving transparency across the supply chain, deploying digital and social media tools, voluntary and mandatory initiatives, and strategic philanthropy (Biel & Burson-Marsteller, 2010).

2) The trend among international tourists, to extend and diversify their types of vacations, from just leisure to becoming involved in alternative tourism, for example, from cruise tourism to volunteer vacation (Bly, 2010).

In the next section, the author presents a list of theses on VT to identify which topics the prior researchers focussed on. By listing these materials, the author was able to identify gaps in the literature.

1.3. Overview of theses and literature on volunteer tourism
The author identifies studies on VT and distinguishes them based on ‘research project theses’ and ‘research project non-theses’ categories. Initiated by Wearing (2001), the number of research scholars in the VT area, generally increases year by year. Through his PhD thesis, Wearing has laid the foundations of VT and ensured VT has a special place in tourism research. Scholars from different degree levels (Bachelors, Masters, and PhD) have chosen VT as the focus for their studies. Between 2001 and 2012, there were at least 36 theses (English language) on VT.
indicated and traced online thorough the University database system. Table 1.1 below lists the scholars, titles, approaches, and location where the data were collected. There were 31 studies in qualitative, three studies in quantitative, and two studies in mixed methods approaches.

In terms of themes, the scholars were interested in VT experience (Carter, 2008; Coghlan, 2005; Wearing, 2001); motivation (Aalten, 2010; Vrasti, 2012); intention (S. J. Lee, 2011); the impact of VT (on various aspects) (Christison, 2006; Grimm, 2010); perspectives on VT (in various sectors) (Van der Meer, 2007), expectations of VT (Szalayova, 2005); perceptions of VT (H. V. Nguyen & Nguyen, 2012; Stritch, 2011), the role of VT (in various sectors) (Clost, 2011; M. Ingram, 2008; Korkeakoski, 2012; J. Rattan, 2009; Sinervo, 2011), the VT market (Tomazos, 2009), and VT partnership (Lamoureux, 2009).

Non-theses research projects on VT have featured even more diverse topics but predominantly in a qualitative approach and are identified as follows:

- Activism, vacation activities, participation, community participation, and human participation (McGehee, 2011; Palacios, 2010; Tomazos & Butler, 2010, 2012).
- Colonialism, neo-colonialism, new colonialism, and post-colonialism: (Dalwai & Donegan, 2012; M. Ingram, 2008; Mustonen, 2005; Palacios, 2010; Pluim & Jorgenson, 2012; E. Raymond, 2008).
Community, host community, and community development: (Dalwai & Donegan, 2012; Grabowski, 2011; E. M. Raymond & Hall, 2008; Sahabu, Wearing, & Grabowski, 2011).
Table 1.1 Existing theses on volunteer tourism (2001-2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scholar/degree</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Research approach</th>
<th>Location of data collection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. McGuire, 2012</td>
<td>From volunteer tourism toward a (cosmo)politics of solidarity</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>Peru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Oona, 2012</td>
<td>Encounters in a Zambian children home. Ethnographic study on volunteer tourism</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>Zambia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Borjars, 2012</td>
<td>Identity development through volunteer tourism</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Helle, A.O.</td>
<td>Voluntourism: Between hedonism and altruism. Western volunteers in a Vietnamese context</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>Vietnam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Alexander, 2012</td>
<td>The international volunteer experience on South Africa: An investigation onto the impact on the tourist</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Lau, 2012</td>
<td>Conceptualising the nature of learning un volunteer tourism</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>New Zealand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Korkeakoski, 2012</td>
<td>Does voluntourism fulfil the criteria of sustainable tourism?</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>Finland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Dillette, 2012</td>
<td>Volunteer tourism. Exploring the perceptions of Bahamian Islanders and student volunteer tourists</td>
<td>Mixed methods</td>
<td>Bahamas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Nguyen &amp; Nguyen, 2012</td>
<td>The influence of local residents’ perceptions on their support towards volunteer tourism projects</td>
<td>Quan</td>
<td>Vietnam</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Continued. Table 1.2 Existing theses on volunteer tourism (2001-2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Author, Year</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Clost, 2011</td>
<td>Volunteerism: The visual economy of international volunteer program</td>
<td>Master thesis</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Qual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Erdely, 2011</td>
<td>When the saints go marching in: An ethnography of volunteer tourism in post-hurricane Katrina New Orleans</td>
<td>PhD thesis</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Qual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Beard, 2011</td>
<td>The ‘host’ perspective: Voluntourism and development in urban communities in South Africa</td>
<td>Master thesis</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>Qual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Mwaruta, 2011</td>
<td>Volunteer tourism: Yet another form of ‘othering’?</td>
<td>Master thesis</td>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>Qual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Beard, 2011</td>
<td>The ‘host’ perspective: Voluntourism and development in urban communities in South Africa</td>
<td>Master thesis</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>Qual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Lee, 2011</td>
<td>Volunteer tourists’ intended participation: Using the revised theory of planned behaviour</td>
<td>PhD thesis</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Qual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Sinervo, 2011</td>
<td>Appeals of childhood: Child vendors, volunteer tourists, and visions of aid in Cusco, Peru</td>
<td>PhD thesis</td>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>Qual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Stritch, 2011</td>
<td>Be sugar in milk: Local perspectives on volunteer tourism in India and Uganda</td>
<td>Master thesis</td>
<td>Uganda and India</td>
<td>Qual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Grimm, 2010</td>
<td>Conservation volunteer tourism at a reserve in Ecuador: Effect of perceptions, discourse, and motivation on human-environment relations</td>
<td>PhD thesis</td>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td>Qual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Aalten, 2010</td>
<td>Motivations of volunteer tourists: From a gendered perspective</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>Netherland</td>
<td>Mixed methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Rattan, 2009</td>
<td>The role volunteer tourism plays in conservation: A case study of the elephant Nature Park, Chiang Mai, Thailand</td>
<td>Master thesis</td>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Qual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Tomazos, 2009</td>
<td>Volunteer tourism, an ambiguous phenomenon: An analysis of the demand and supply for the volunteer tourism market</td>
<td>PhD thesis</td>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>Qual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Ingram, 2008</td>
<td>Volunteer tourism: Does it have a place in development?</td>
<td>Bachelor thesis</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>Qual</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Continued. Table 1.3 Existing theses on volunteer tourism (2001-2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Author(s), Year</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Methodology</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Carter, 2008</td>
<td>Volunteer tourism: An exploration of the perceptions and experiences of volunteer tourists and the role of authenticity in those experiences</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>New Zealand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Van der Meer, 2007</td>
<td>Perspective on ecotourism and volunteer tourism in post tsunami Khao Lak, Thailand</td>
<td>Quan</td>
<td>Thailand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Raymond, E.M., 2007</td>
<td>Making a difference? Good practice in volunteer tourism</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>New Zealand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>Taillon, 2007</td>
<td>The identification of motivation in voluntourists: Particularly extrinsic motivation in vacation-minded volunteer tourism participants</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>Canada</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Christison, 2006</td>
<td>Helping? Volunteering with children in Chile</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>Chile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>Szalayova, 2005</td>
<td>Do international voluntary work camps in Slovakia meet the expectation of their participants?</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>Slovakia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>Coghlan, 2005</td>
<td>Towards an understanding of the volunteer tourism experience</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>Australia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>Wearing, 2001</td>
<td>Volunteer tourism: Experiences that make a difference</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>Australia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• Conservation, environmental conservation, sea turtle voluntourism, and conservation awareness (Coghlan, 2007; Coren & Gray, 2011; Galley & Clifton, 2010; Gray & Campbell, 2007; J. K. Rattan et al., 2011).
• Critical theory, impact, and benefits (Coghlan & Fennell, 2009; Forsythe, 2011; Guttentag, 2009; McGehee, 2011; Palacios, 2010; Pan, 2012; Taplin, 2012).
• Development, community development, development theory, tourism development, and rural revitalisation (Daldeniz & Hampton, 2010; Dalwai & Donegan, 2012; Guttentag, 2009; Jakubiak, 2012; Marsh, 2007; Ojo et al., 2012; Palacios, 2010; Simpson, 2004).
• Education, transformative learning, and critical pedagogy (Coghlan & Gooch, 2011; Dalwai & Donegan, 2012; Palacios, 2010).
• Experience and quality experience (Coghlan & Fennell, 2009; Weiler, 2011).
• Hyper-globalism and global citizenship (Jakubiak, 2012; K. Lyons et al., 2012; E. M. Raymond & Hall, 2008).
• International tourism, ecotourism, backpacking tourism, sport tourism, and dive tourism (Daldeniz & Hampton, 2010; Dalwai & Donegan, 2012; Fairley & Kellett, 2005; Galley & Clifton, 2010; Godfrey, 2012; Gray & Campbell, 2007; Walsh & Hampton, 2010).
• Intersection between volunteering and tourism and crossroad of commercialisation and service (K. D. Lyons & Wearing, 2012; Tomazos & Cooper, 2012).
• Intimacy and attachment (Conran, 2011; Richter & Norman, 2010).
• Location, destination, and place image (Keese, 2011).
• Management, relationship marketing, broker, leadership, expedition leader, NGO, sending organisation, VT organisation, organisation image, and expedition leaders: (Blackman & Benson, 2010; Coghlan, 2007, 2008; Gray & Campbell,

- Neo-liberalism (Conran, 2011; Jakubiak, 2012; K. Lyons et al., 2012).
- Orphans, orphan tourism, and orphanages (Guiney, 2012; Richter & Norman, 2010).
- Poverty and poverty alleviation (Crossley, 2012; Dalwai & Donegan, 2012; Ojo et al., 2012).
- Psychological contract and psychosocial concepts (Blackman & Benson, 2010; Crossley, 2012).
- Responsible tourism (Sin, 2010).
- Self-efficacy (McGehee, 2011).
- Solidarity movement, social movement, and networking (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2009; McGehee & Santos, 2005).
- Spiritualism and religiosity (Mustonen, 2005; Sahabu et al., 2011; Zahra, 2006).
- Sustainability and sustainable tourism: (Coghlan & Gooch, 2011; Ojo et al., 2012).
- Theory of rational choice (Andereck et al., 2011).
- Transformation and social change (McGehee, 2011; Yoda, 2010).

There were also studies that utilised a quantitative approach but these were fewer in numbers and featured limited topics, such as: youth travel, value, sensation seeking, motivation, latent growth model, gender preferences, experience, expedition, expectancy theory, environmental education, conservation (environmental and elephant), community culture, commodification, backpacking tourism, and awareness (Bailey & Russell, 2010; A. Benson & Seibert, 2009; Coren & Gray, 2011; Lo & Lee, 2010; Ooi & Laing, 2010; J. K. Rattan et al., 2011).
1.4. Research paradigm

Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, and Turner (2007, p. 112) claimed that a mixed methods is “the third major research approach or research paradigm, along with qualitative research and quantitative research.”

The author observed the theses on VT as listed on Table 1.1 and found that the researchers of those theses paid no attention on paradigm. Is a research paradigm important? Mackenzie and Knipe (2006, p. 2) stated that a paradigm in a research “influences the way knowledge is studied and interpreted”. For this reason, the author used pragmatism paradigm to be employed in a mixed methods study as used and suggester by other scholars (Creswell, 2008; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003). Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) said that this paradigm has some flexibilities compared to other paradigms, such as: it combines two methods – qualitative and quantitative; it allows researchers to commence a study in any point, for example from literature review, developing framework, observation or data collection.

1.5. Gaps in the literature

After reviewing the existing literature, the study undertaken by Lee (2011) shared characteristics with this study. Specifically, it predicted the intention to be involved in VT, particularly the use of some of the same variables: attitude, subjective norms, motivation, past experience, and intention.

Table 1.2 compares the approach adopted in this study with Lee’s and other studies. Attitude, subjective norms, motivation, and past experience in VT were examined by Lee (2011) to predict the intention to become involved in VT. In addition to these variables, this study includes lifestyle, past experience in tourism, past experience in volunteering, constraints, and stage of readiness. The motivation to be involved in VT that was investigated and used by prior researchers was adopted in this study. In addition, the author in this study divided motivation into ‘taking/receiving’ and ‘giving’, an innovative approach (see 2.5.1 and 2.5.2). Furthermore, personality, represented by sensation seeking, had previously been measured by Wymer Jr., Self,
and Findley (2010) to assess whether sensation seekers are a target market for VT market, but not (as in this study) to predict intention or behaviour.

Table 1.4 Gaps identified in quantitative studies to be addressed by this study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Other studies on VT</th>
<th>Lee’s</th>
<th>This study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Included</td>
<td>Included</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective norms</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Included</td>
<td>Included</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruistic lifestyle values</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Included</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensation-seeking personality</td>
<td>Included (Wymer Jr. et al., 2010)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Included</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>Included (A. Benson &amp; Seibert, 2009)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Included</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social class</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Included</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constraints</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Included</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past experiences in tourism</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Included</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past experience in volunteering</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Included</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past experience in VT</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Included</td>
<td>Included</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Included</td>
<td>Included</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage of readiness</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Included</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.2 lists variables that were used by other researchers, Lee (2011), and by the author, in quantitative studies in VT. This study investigated attitude, subjective norms, the sensation-seeking personality, motivation, and past experience in VT which have also been studied by prior researchers (for example, A. Benson & Seibert, 2009; S. J. Lee, 2011; Ooi & Laing, 2010; Wymer Jr. et al., 2010). The author also included the variables of altruistic lifestyle values, social class, constraints, past experience in tourism, past experience in volunteering, and stage of readiness which aim to extend and develop a more comprehensive understanding of the VT experience.

1.6. Objectives of the study

The purpose of this study is to develop a model or models to predict intention and stage of readiness to be involved in VT, including potential variables, for instance, attitude, subjective norms, psychographic characteristics (sensation-seeking personality, altruistic lifestyle values, and social class), motivation, past experience in tourism, past experience in volunteering, past experience in VT, and constraints. The
stage of readiness was examined in this study, with assumptions that VT is a very serious leisure that needs consumer’s high involvement. Furthermore, this study followed some specific relational objectives.

For the qualitative phase of this study, the objectives were to explore respondents’ past experiences in tourism, volunteering, and VT and seek a connection among these three experiences. The qualitative phase also explored respondents’ attitudes on the concept of VT; subjective norms and their roles in respondents’ involvement in VT; intention, motivation, and constraints to be involved in VT; and perception towards characteristics of volunteer tourists. The qualitative phase focused on how respondents found out about VT, their attitudes toward the concept and their experiences with VT. Acknowledging that each person’s experience is unique, the qualitative phase tried to both classify experiences for the second phase of the study and provide rich data for individual analyses.

The objectives of the quantitative study were:

1) To explore the individuals’ attitudes toward the concept of VT and associated relationship with their motivation, intention, and stage of readiness.

2) To assess the individuals’ subjective norms and associated relationship with their intentions to join VT.

3) To investigate the individuals’ psychographic characteristics of altruistic lifestyle values and social class and associated relationships with their stage of readiness to be engaged in VT.

4) To test the individuals’ psychographic characteristic of a sensation-seeking personality and its relationship with their motivation, intention, and stage of readiness to be involved in VT.

5) To examine the individuals’ motivation for taking/receiving and giving and associated relationship with their intentions and stage of readiness to be involved in VT.
6) To assess the individuals’ past experiences in tourism, volunteerism, and VT and associated relationship with their stage of readiness to be involved in VT.

7) To examine the individuals’ constraints and associated relationship with their stage of readiness to be involved in VT.

8) To examine the individuals’ intentions and associated relationship with and their stage of readiness to be involved in VT.

1.7. Research questions

This study aims to answer the following research questions:

1) To what extent do the individuals’ attitudes toward the concept of VT influence their motivation, intention, and stage of readiness?

2) To what extent do the individuals’ subjective norms influence their intentions to be involved in VT?

3) To what extent do the individuals’ psychographic characteristics of altruistic lifestyle values and social class influence their stage of readiness?

4) To what extent do the individuals’ psychographic characteristics of a sensation-seeking personality and motivation influence their intentions and stage of readiness to be involved in VT?

5) To what extent do the individuals’ motivation for taking and giving influence their intentions and stage of readiness to be involved in VT?

6) To what extent do past experiences (in tourism, volunteerism, and VT) of individuals influence their stage of readiness to be involved in VT?

7) To what extent do the individuals’ constraints influence their stage of readiness to be involved in VT?

8) To what extent do the individuals’ intentions influence their stage of readiness?

1.8. Overview of the methods used

To answer the research questions and accomplish the objectives of the study, the author applied a mixed methods approach (Driscoll, Appiah-Yeboah, Salib, & Rupert,
two sequential stages: stage one was the qualitative approach using focus groups, in-depth interviews, and online interviews techniques for data collection, involving 32 participants. The respondents recruited were those who had experience either in VT or international volunteering. This stage was conducted between July and December 2011. The data was analysed using NVivo software (Welsh, 2002a) (version 10). Further, the qualitative phase methodology is presented in Chapter Three.

Stage two was the quantitative approach using the Qualtrics online survey (S. M. Smith, 2009). The instrument was developed by adopting and adapting the existing scales and indicators and also drawing from the qualitative results. There were 542 respondents participants for this survey. The survey was conducted between March and May 2012. The data was analysed using the SPSS (Allen & Bennett, 2010; Coakes et al., 2010; Pallant, 2010) (version 20) for exploratory factor analysis and AMOS (Blunch, 2008; Holmes-Smith, 2010) (version 20) for confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modelling. The quantitative phase methodology is presented in Chapter Six.

1.9. Structure of the thesis

This thesis contains ten chapters. Chapter One presents the background of the study, an overview of theses on VT, the gaps in the literature, the objectives of the study, the research questions, overview of the methods used, and the structure of the thesis.

Chapter Two reviews the literature, discusses studies on variables to be measured in the study, that is attitude, subjective norms, intention, stage of readiness, psychographic characteristics, motivation, and constraints in the three areas: tourism, volunteerism, and VT. This chapter also presents the theoretical framework developed as the foundation to develop a model proposed for this study.

Chapter Three describes the research methodology for the qualitative study stages, discusses the sample and sample recruitment methods as well as data collection,
and data analysis methods. The results of the qualitative study are delineated in Chapter Four. It describes past experiences in three activities – tourism, volunteering, and VT. Chapter Five describes another part of the qualitative study results, delineates attitudes towards the concept of VT, subjective norms, intention and stage of readiness, psychographic characteristics, and constraints to being involved in a VT project.

Chapter Six presents the quantitative methodology, specifically the data collection methods, data analysis, sample criteria, sample recruitment methods, feedback on the survey, pilot study, and a conclusion. The hypotheses and model proposed for the quantitative study are also described in this chapter. Chapter Seven and Chapter Eight contain the results of the quantitative study, descriptive, exploratory factor analysis, and confirmatory factor analysis. Chapter Nine provides a discussion of the results both of the qualitative and quantitative studies. Moreover, this chapter also presents recommendations both for future research and VT providers. The last chapter, Chapter Ten, provides the conclusion as well as the contributions of the study and limitations.
Chapter two
Intersecting the literature of tourism, volunteerism, and volunteer tourism

2.1. Chapter overview

Grammatically volunteer tourism (VT) consists of ‘volunteer’ and ‘tourism’. The concept and the activities relating to VT would be on the one hand an intersection of the concept of volunteerism and tourism and on the other hand a combination of the activities of volunteerism and tourism. This chapter discusses these two ideas, involving three study areas: tourism, volunteerism, and VT.

When this study was commenced in early 2010, there were limited studies relating to VT. Most studies were predominantly qualitative, on-site interviews, and investigated a limited range of variables, such as motivation. Indeed, there were quantitative studies (Coghlan, 2008; Ooi & Laing, 2010), but, with limited quantity and variables examined. The number of studies on VT increased up to the end of 2012, but they are still predominantly of a qualitative nature with limited variables examined.

A thesis on VT by Lee (2011) examined in a quantitative manner how intention was significantly influenced by attitude and subjective norms, but not by motivation, self-efficacy, and past behaviour in VT. This thesis builds on the work by Lee and also includes constraints, psychographic characteristics (altruistic lifestyle values, sensation-seeking personality, and social class), and stage of readiness variables. These variables were identified by the author when conducting the literature review and exploratory research.

This chapter details the literature review. It commences with gleaning the literature on the definition of VT and the reasons as to why (motivation) or why not (constraints) people were involved in VT. The same approach was applied to the tourism and volunteering literature to review and map these topics in a similar manner. Furthermore, the exploration was widened to other variables related to
motivation and constraints. For this reason, the literature review focusses on the intersecting the literature of tourism, volunteerism, and VT.

The objectives in the literature review were to investigate and compare variables to do with tourism, volunteerism, and VT. These variables are as follows: attitude, subjective norms, intention, psychographic profile, past experiences, motivation, constraints, and stage of readiness. This study organises these variables under the major section heading of: conceptualising VT, intention, motivation, constraints, psychographic profile, and stage of readiness. These relate to tourism, volunteerism, and VT in order to obtain an understanding of the similarities and the differences between the concepts. VT is a relatively new field of study, whereas volunteerism and tourism are well established. By intersecting the three fields, gaps in the literature were identified. In addition, this helped the author to build theoretical proposed model and state the methodology and methods for data collections.

2.2. Conceptualising volunteer tourism

Volunteering overseas began centuries ago, in the form of missionary work, whereby people travelled from one country to another to promote a belief and religion (Harder, 2011; Western, 1956). Others went to volunteer in humanitarian sectors, under a mission trip, organised by churches or religious institutions, for example the Student Volunteer Movement (Harder, 2011; Western, 1956) in the USA. This movement transformed from a travel mission to many international volunteering types. This form of travelling was considered to be the beginning of international volunteering (VolunTourism, 2011). VT is one of the offshoots of this movement.

This chapter opens with two topics to discuss: VT as a combination of tourism and volunteer activities and VT as an intersection of tourism and volunteerism concept.
2.2.1. Volunteer tourism as a combination of tourism and volunteer activities

This sub-section presents definitions of tourism, volunteerism, and VT. By combining these definitions, a comprehensive definition of VT has been established, and used to form the platform for this study.

**Tourism definition**

As defined by Davidson (1989, p. 2), “tourism is about people being away from their own homes, on short-term, temporary visits, for particular ‘tourism’ purposes.” Davidson emphasises the mobility of people who travel from one place to another and the purposes behind these journeys. The kinds of purposes are indicated in the definition offered by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2002, para. 1). Tourism is:

> The activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited.

Goeldner and Ritchie (2003) developed a definition of tourism from different angle. They mentioned a wider concept involving all actors in the tourism industry. According to Goeldner and Ritchie (2003, pp. 5-6), tourism is “the process, activities, and outcomes arising from the relationship and the interactions among tourists, tourism suppliers, host governments, host communities, and surrounding environments that are involved in attracting and the hosting of visitors.” Another definition of tourism was written by Mathieson and Wall (1982, p. 1): tourism is “the temporary movement of people to destinations outside their normal places of work and residence, the activities undertaken during their stay in those destinations, and the facilities created to cater to their needs”.

Furthermore, Gouldner and Ritchie (2003) used the word ‘visitor’ whereas the United Nations (2003) used ‘tourist’. OECD (2001, para. 1) established a definition of
a tourist and international tourist, emphasising the duration and purpose of travelling:

Tourists are persons who do not reside in the country of arrival and are admitted to that country under tourist visas (if required) for purposes of leisure, recreation, holiday, visits to friends or relatives, health or medical treatment, or religious pilgrimage. They must spend at least a night in a collective or private accommodation in the receiving country and their duration of stay must not surpass 12 months.

OECD (2006, para. 1) also established a definition of an international tourist:

Any person who travels to a country other than that in which s/he has his/her usual residence but outside his/her usual environment for a period not exceeding 12 months and whose main purpose of visit is other than the exercise of an activity remunerated from with the country visited, and who stay at least one night in a collective or private accommodation in the country visited.

Volunteerism definition

Volunteering works are generally organised by an organisation. Volunteering Australia (2009, para. 1) defined volunteering as:

An activity which takes place through not for-profit organisations or projects and is undertaken: to be of benefit to the community and the volunteer, of the volunteer’s own free will and without coercion, for no financial payment, and in designated volunteer positions only.

However, this definition is not appropriate for all situations because volunteering can be both formal and informal, for instance helping neighbours (Bowen, 1986; Leeman, n.d.; Notoatmodjo, 1962); sometimes voluntary works may be organised by organisations and sometimes by individuals. In addition, voluntary work might be paid too (Domen, 1994, 1995; Glynn et al., 2003; C. Michael, James, & Panek, 1978). Supporting all these authors, Cnaan, Handy, and Wadsworth (1996, p. 371) noted aspects of volunteerism:

- Free choice: freewill (the ability to voluntarily choose), relatively uncoerced, obligation to volunteer;
Remuneration: none at all, none expected, expenses reimbursed, and stipend/low pay;

Structure: formal, informal; and

Intended beneficiaries: others/strangers, friends or relatives, oneself.

Harper (2001) noted that the word “volunteer” has been used since 1600, at first to label the "one who offers himself for military service." However, the current meanings of volunteer and volunteering are much broader. Gukhale (1984, p. 15) defined a volunteer as “a person who performs a task, which he or she is neither socially required or forced to do, and this task may be done for another person, a social group or welfare agency.” Furthermore, Gukhale (1984, p. 16) outlined some major attributes of a volunteer, such as: a personal commitment to be willing to render services on some regular, usually a part-time basis; receiving any salary or wage is not a motivation for service given, though a reimbursement of expenses or a take honorarium may be obtained, which does not equal the economic value of service provider; the person is under no social and legal obligation to serve the social group or welfare agency and hence, can withdraw the service voluntarily with or without giving any notice for doing so; and the nature of voluntary work or service provided may differ from person to person, depending on the person’s abilities, aptitudes, training etc. as well as on the agency’s needs.

Volunteer tourism definition

VT is a combination of volunteering and touring activities undertaken by participants at a travel destination (Lau, 2012; Tourism Research and Marketing, 2008). According to McGehee and Santos (2005) VT is “utilising discretionary time and income to travel out of the sphere of regular activity to assist others in need”. Furthermore, Hobbs (2007, p. 11) stated that VT is “all about getting involved and getting to understand a place and its people in a more profound way than you might as a tourist. Inevitably this will involve getting your hands dirty with a little voluntary or paid work”. Based on these definitions, it can be assumed that VT projects are
done only in an organised way. Wearing (2001, p. 1) also emphasises this in his
definition of the participants of VT. According to him, volunteer tourists are “those
who volunteer in an organised way to undertake holidays that may involve the aiding
or alleviating of the material poverty of some groups in society, the restoration of
certain environments, or research into aspects of society or environment”.

Furthermore, volunteer tourists can be put into four categories based on their
origins and destinations:

1) The first group consists of people from developed countries helping out in
developing countries. Examples include: Gibbon Rehabilitation Project in
Thailand (Broad & Jenkins, 2008); the gap year program in Latin America
(Soderman & Snead, 2008), and sea turtle conservation in Costa Rica (Campbell &
Smith, 2006). Another example was reported by Chen and Chen (2010). These
authors interviewed international volunteer tourists who were involved in the
Chinese Village Tradition expedition.

2) The second group is similar but the destination is another developed country.
Examples include projects in McDowell Country, West Virginia, USA (McGehee &
Andereck, 2008) and in New Zealand (McIntosh & Zahra, 2007; E. M. Raymond,
2007).

3) The third group consists of people within a developed country who are involved
in VT. Examples include those who were involved helping victims of the hurricane
Katrina victim disaster in the USA (Budd, 2012) or Japanese who were engaged in
VT within their country (Yoda, 2010).

4) The fourth group involves volunteers helping within their own developing
country, for example, people from Jakarta assisting people in Mentawai Island,
West Sumatera Province and Sumba Island, within Indonesia (Tendean, 2009,
2010).
2.2.2. Volunteer tourism is an intersection of volunteerism and tourism concept

Within the fields of tourism, volunteerism, and VT fields, researchers have various perspectives on VT. These perspectives overlap one another and are described below.

Tourism position on volunteer tourism

As illustrated by Robinson and Novelli (2005), there are different types of ‘niche tourism’ activities, such as cultural, environmental, rural, and urban tourism. According to these authors, VT is a part of this niche tourism (see Figure 2.1 below).

![Figure 2.1 Volunteer tourism as a sub-niche tourism (Robinson & Novelli, 2005, p. 9)](image)

Robinson and Novelli (2005) divided tourism into two main types: mass tourism and niche tourism. They argued that mass tourism tends to cause environmental degradation and sociocultural problems, especially because of the growth in accommodation capacity, traffic, infrastructure development, and inappropriate behaviour of tourists. Niche tourism is seen by Robinson and Novelli (2005) as a better choice for tourists as well as for the environment and communities visited. Niche tourists obtain different experiences and achieve levels of satisfaction due to the special attractions picked in accordance with their personal interests of tourists.
Volunteerism position on volunteer tourism

Many types of voluntary works have been investigated by researchers. The terminologies generally relate to (a) the locations where the volunteering is held, for example: international volunteering (Devereux, 2008; Rehberg, 2005), tourism volunteering (volunteering in a tourism attraction or destination) (K. Holmes, 2011; K. Holmes & Smith, 2009); (b) the organisers, for example: corporate volunteering (Cavallaro, 2006; Peterson, 2003); (c) the participants, for example: youth volunteering (Kay & Bradbury, 2009; Shannon, Robertson, Morrison, & Werner, 2009), women volunteering (Greenberg et al., 1999); (d) the programs/projects, for example: environmental volunteering (Bruyere & Rappe, 2007; Hunter, 2011; Measham, Barnett, & Ecosystems, 2007), and (e) the object of volunteering, for example: AIDS volunteering (Akintola, 2011; Omoto & Snyder, 1995). All of these types of voluntary works can be included as ordinary volunteerism. But, there are other forms of volunteering that can be categorised as alternative volunteering, for example, volunteering with an agenda.

Volunteer with an agenda or a mission, is a combination of voluntary work and a certain agenda (K. Holmes & Smith, 2009), like a humanitarian or religious mission (S. Brown, 2005; S. Brown & Morrison, 2003; Harder, 2011). Some volunteer projects might combine volunteering with a holiday, like VT (Broad & Jenkins, 2008; Wearing, 2001).
Figure 2.2 above illustrates the intersection of tourism and volunteerism. On the tourism side, VT is included (Robinson & Novelli, 2005; Wearing, 2001) in alternative or niche tourism, whereas on the volunteerism side, VT is regarded as a part of the alternative volunteerism form.

**Volunteer tourism position on volunteer tourism**

VT is an intersection of tourism and volunteerism concepts (K. D. Lyons & Wearing, 2012). Wearing (2001) locates VT as a form of alternative tourism (see Figure 2.3 below), along with cultural, educational, scientific, adventure, and agri-tourism. According to him, VT closely relates to nature tourism or ecotourism and this idea is supported by other researchers (Brightsmith, Stronza, & Holle, 2008; Coghlan, 2006; Galley & Clifton, 2010; Gray & Campbell, 2007; Van der Meer, 2007). On the other hand, Lau (2012) argued that VT is an intersection between volunteering activities and tourism activities.
According to Hobbs (2007), VT typically focuses on one or two of the following areas: (a) conservation (being involved in wildlife monitoring and environmental education development) and (b) development (working with communities), such as teaching and healthcare, including community projects, work-camps, archaeology and heritage, charity challenges, Willing Workers on Organic Farms (WWOOFing), and short-term English teaching.

Figure 2.3, describes VT as a sub-niche tourism (Robinson & Novelli, 2005), looks similar with Figure 2.1, describes VT as a sub-alternative tourism (Wearing, 2001). Although Robinson and Novelli (2005) did not mentioned VT as an example of the sub-niche tourism, but the figure might be part of this. While Wearing (2001) obviously discussed VT as a kind of an alternative tourism. He claimed that VT intersects with other alternative tourism products, such as cultural, educational, and adventurous tourism.

Further, Holmes and Smith (2009) mentioned three other terms for activities related to tourism volunteers, and also described the type of volunteer tourists, that is (a) VolunTourism: participants spend only a small proportion of their holiday in volunteer activities; (b) Volunteer vacations: while leisure activities are undertaken, most of the holiday is dedicated to volunteering. This activity usually lasts for one week to three months to engage in research projects abroad; (c) Gap year
volunteering: a rest period before entering university or between university and full-time employment. Participants travel abroad to engage in volunteer work arranged by volunteer organisations. These activities are also favoured by the employees who want a break from their job and even older people before and during their retirement. This term is popular in the United States, Australia and New Zealand. The author does not completely agree with these three definitions because in practice, there is different interpretation among the VT organisers, researchers on VT, and event participants toward those terms and definitions or others. The terms and definitions are used by VT organisations as a brand, name of organisation, marketing positioning, website address, and/or tagline of their businesses or activities. For example, voluntravel.com, voluntourism.org, and volunteervacation.co.uk. Practically, these organisations and participants negotiate about the programs (tourism and volunteering projects) and durations.

2.2.3. Redefining volunteer tourism

Based on the tourism, volunteerism, and VT literature, the following comparison models describe the inter-relationship between tourists, volunteers, volunteer tourists, community, agent or organisation, and the tourism industry.

![Figure 2.4 Intersection of the definitions of tourism, volunteerism, and VT (see Table 2.1)](image)
The inter-relationships between the stakeholders of these three areas are generally mutual and each of them makes a contribution. In Figure 2.4 above, these mutual relationships are as follows:

1) Industry – participants: the industry sees participants as the target market while the participants buy services, such as, accommodation, restaurant, transportation, and entertainment offered by the industry (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003; Leiper, 1979).

2) Participants – community: the participants receive services and hospitality from the community (Kirillova et al., 2013; J Warburton & Mclaughlin, 2005). In return, the community receives economic advantages.

3) Industry – community: the industry manipulates the community to become an attraction in the tourism destinations whilst the community sometimes receive training to greet and manage the visitors properly and achieve economic benefits (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003; King, Pizam, & Milman, 1993; Tosun, 2002; Zhang, 2008).

4) Non-profit organisation (sender) – participants: the institution develops the program and provides training (Lamb, 2006; Waters, Burnett, Lamm, & Lucas, 2009). The participants pay the personal costs of all services.

5) Non-profit organisation (sender) – community: the community obtains services from the organisation sending the participants to help (Kirillova et al., 2013; Tang, Choi, & Morrow-Howell, 2010). Participants interact with the community, learn the culture, and also receive services from the organisation.

6) Non-profit organisation (host) – participants: during their visit, the participants obtain services and tutors from the host organisation (Coghlan & Fennell, 2009; Coghlan & Gooch, 2011). The host organisation gains wages and funds from the participants for the projects.

7) Industry – non-profit organisation (sender & host): both the industry and the organisation offer complementary services (de Brito, Ferreira, & Costa, 2011).

8) Non-profit organisation (sender) – non-profit organisation (host): there is an idealistic mechanism occurring between the two organisations, which operate both ways (E. Raymond, 2008; E. M. Raymond, 2007).
Table 2.1 below shows extracts from a broad range of literature on tourism, volunteerism, and VT, and highlights the intersection of similar characteristics between them. These elements contribute to a new suggested definition of VT.

Within the context of this study and based on Table 2.1 above, the author defines VT as: a combination of alternative tourism activities and voluntary works undertaken at a travel destination which involves idealistic and committed people who are willing to contribute skills, knowledge, materials, energy, and time, to help communities or projects in need and receive little or no payment (Broad & Jenkins, 2008; Hobbs, 2007; E. Raymond, 2008; Tourism Research and Marketing, 2008; Wearing, 2001).
Table 2.1 Comparison of the characteristics of tourism, volunteerism, and VT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Tourism</th>
<th>Volunteerism</th>
<th>VT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Service providers</td>
<td>Suppliers (tour operators, restaurants, hotel management, transports, destination management) (Goeldner &amp; Ritchie, 2003)</td>
<td>Volunteer organisations (Volunteering Australia, 2009). Corporate or profit organisations (Peterson, 2003; Spraul, 2010).</td>
<td>Sender and host organisations (E. Raymond, 2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivations of participants</td>
<td>Personal (Crompton, 1979) Personals and altruistic (Doherty, 2005) Egoistic and altruistic [ ]</td>
<td>Egoistic and altruistic (Broad &amp; Jenkins, 2008; E. M. Raymond, 2007)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relating to money</td>
<td>Pay the costs</td>
<td>Work unpaid or with little paid (Chinman &amp; Wandersman, 1999; Domen, 1994, 1995; Glynn et al., 2003; Prestby, Wandersman, Florin, Rich, &amp; Chavis, 1990)</td>
<td>Work unpaid or with little paid (Hobbs, 2007); Pay the costs (Campbell &amp; Smith, 2006)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.2.4. Volunteer tourism as a serious leisure

Tomazos (2009) stated that VT fulfils conditions of casual leisure, serious leisure, and project-based leisure, whereas Wearing (2004) considered VT just to be serious leisure. Stebbins (2006, p. 2; 2007) outlined three forms of leisure: serious, casual, and project-based leisure:

- **Serious leisure**: systematic pursuit of an amateur, hobbyist, or volunteers’ core activity sufficiently substantial, interesting, and fulfilling in nature for the participant to find a career there acquiring and expressing a combination of his special skills, knowledge, and experience.

- **Casual leisure**: immediately, intrinsically rewarding, relatively short-lived pleasurable core activity, requiring little or no special training to enjoy it.

- **Project-based leisure**: short-term, reasonably complicated, one-shot or occasional, though infrequent, creative undertaking carried out in free time, or time free of disagreeable obligations.

Regarding the definition, serious leisure has many shapes as claimed by researchers, such as cultural tourism (Stebbins, 1996a), dancing (C. A. Brown, 2007; C. A. Brown, McGuire, & Voelkl, 2008), adventuring (Dilley & Scraton, 2010; Kane & Zink, 2004), sport and sport tourism (Bartram, 2001; Green & Jones, 2005; Siegenthaler & O’Dell, 2003), surfing (Cheng & Tsaur, 2012) and hobbies (Gillespie, Leffler, & Lerner, 2002; Hartel, 2003; Stebbins, 1994). Furthermore, Stebbins (1996b), Orr (2006), Harrington, Cuskelly, and Auld (2000), Wearing and Neil (2001), Aral (1997), and Holmes (2006) included volunteering as a serious leisure.

The author considers that VT tents to be a combination of a very serious leisure and a project-based leisure as this acquires consumer’s high involvement and relates to stage if intention and stage of readiness. However, this assumption would be firmed after analysing both the qualitative and quantitative findings.

2.3. Motivation of tourists, volunteers, and volunteer tourists

This section presents motivations to participate in tourism, volunteerism, and VT. Researchers have applied various approaches to investigate motivation in tourism, for example: push-push factors (Dann, 1981), Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs (Maslow,
1943, 1970), the Travel Career Ladder (Pearce, 1988), and Iso-Ahola’s Motivational Theory (Iso-Ahola, 1982). In this chapter, the author presents discussion on the Travel Career Ladder and the Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs as they were adapted in this study.

**Travel Career Ladder**

Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) employed Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs in a post-hoc motivational study as a descriptive tool to combine biological and social/psychological motives within one framework. The five categories were selected for ranking tourists. The categorisation demonstrated that positive and negative tourist experiences were not the inverse of one another, but they highlighted the different structures of tourists’ needs. It has been argued that there exists a motivational career in travel (Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983).

Pearce (1988) has revised the initial travel career framework by incorporating additional aspects of Maslow’s work including a recognition of extrinsic (other-directed) and intrinsic (self-directed) components, as shown on Figure 2.5 below. This refinement is known as the Travel Career Ladder (TLC). According to this author, there are five different hierarchical travel career steps affecting tourist behaviour. Similar to a career in work, people may start at different levels and tourists are likely to change levels during their lifecycle. The direction of change within the TCL is variable; some individuals may ‘ascend’ the ladder predominantly on the left-hand side of the system, while others may go through all the steps on both the left-and right-hand side of the model. One motive at a time tends to be dominant, but people may have several motives influencing their tourism activities. People at the lower level of the TLC, emphasise basic service (food, space, toilets) and enjoy a sense of escape. They want to increase their stimulation and arousal, but not in dangerous or threatening situations. They are concerned with safety and security. On the other hand, people at the higher levels are concerned with developing their skills, knowledge, abilities, and special interests. It is recognised that lower level motives have to be satisfied or experienced before the higher levels on the ladder come into
play and tourists tend to ascend the ladder as they become older and more experienced (Pearce, 1988).

![Travel career ladder](image)

**Figure 2.5 Travel career ladder (Pearce, 1988, p. 31)**

A number of scholars proposed the concept of the TCL to investigate motivations of tourists. For example, Kim, Pearce, Morrison, and O’Leary (1996) used the survey data collected by Market Facts of Canada for Tourism Canada, especially for the Korean market. They found that the first, second, and fourth levels of motivations of Korean tourists who visited Canada were relaxation, stimulation, and self-esteem. These were in accordance with the TCL.

Furthermore, Loker-Murphy (1997) suggested four motive-based clusters of backpacker tourists in Australia. These were the escapers/relaxers, the
Volunteer tourism: A moment to give, no moment to take

social/excitement seekers, the self-developers, and the achievers. Although Loker-Murphy (1997) discovered that not all backpacker clusters were at the same level, he generally followed the logic of Pearce’s concept, that in order to achieve higher levels of satisfaction, the lower levels must be obtained first. As demonstrated recently, researchers are continuing to develop and research the TCL (for example, G. Chen, Bao, & Huang, 2013; Sara Dolnicar, Lazarevski, & Yanamandram, 2012; Yolal, Woo, Cetinel, & Uysal, 2012). This study may contribute to this discussion via the nature of the variables being explored and assessed.

Further, Pearce and Lee (2005b) modified the travel career ladder became the travel career pattern (TCP).

**Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs**

Maslow (1943) established a hierarchical needs theory containing physiological, safety, love, esteem, and self-actualisation as the five basic human needs. Two studies in food tourism and leisure which applied Maslow’s Hierarchical Needs to look at the motivations of the tourists and customers are considered here. First, Tikkanen (2007, p. 730) found that “physiological needs are related to food itself and it is the main motivation for food tourism”. According to this researcher, safety needs in the form of food safety and hygiene knowledge are the main motives when participating in food safety conferences. Social needs, such as social interaction with other people, relate to vineyard and food event tourism, where food is one service product. Esteem needs become fulfilled in culinary food tourism (food-ways; provincial *a la carte* projects) by visitors’ experiences, which increase the visitors’ knowledge and competences related to food, and which heighten their self-respect. Second, Chang and Hsieh (2006) explored the motivations and behaviour of Taiwanese respondents in relation to eating out in night markets. 72% of the respondents were motivated by the variety of food, 45% by the opportunity to kill time and rest, and 36% by the cheap pricing.
Applying the Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs (Maslow, 1943, 1970) was applied in this study to provide a conceptual underpinning to explain motivations of tourists to travel, volunteers to volunteer, and volunteer tourists to be involved in VT. The motivations were classified into those that were of a taking/receiving nature and those that were of a giving basis. These are discussed separately in the following paragraphs.

2.3.1. Taking/receiving motivations

Jang and Wu (2005) considered that travel motivation was one of the most important tourism research topics for better comprehending travellers’ behaviours. Understanding the motivations of travellers also helps predict future travel patterns and assist with planning and executing marketing strategies, such as product development, packaging, and advertising.

Table 2.2 below presents studies in the general tourism field and categorises motivations based on Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs: physiological, safety, love and belongingness, self-esteem, understanding, and self-actualisation motivations. Generally, tourists indicate their desire to take and receive advantages from their tourism activities. For example, for physiological motivation, tourists were motivated to relax, escape from daily routine, and relieve stress and tension. These motivators are predominantly self-gratifying and fulfil human beings innate intrinsic needs. In this study these are categorised as taking/receiving motivators.
Table 2.2 Motivations in tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-scale</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Physiological motivation</strong></td>
<td>To escape other places and the pressure of life.</td>
<td>Pearce &amp; Lee, 2005; Andreu, Kozak, Avci, &amp; Cifter, 2005; Biswas, 2008; Cha, McCleary, &amp; Uysal, 1995; Clift &amp; Forrest, 1999; Guinn, 1980; Hsu &amp; Kang, 2009; Jang, Bai, Hu, &amp; Wu, 2009; Jang &amp; Wu, 2005; E. Y. J. Kim, 1997; Kozak, 2002; Loker-Murphy, 1997; Murphy &amp; Brymer, 2010; Woo, Yolal, Cetinet, &amp; Uysal, 2011;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To seek exciting/active/adventurous things to do.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A vacation means being able to do nothing.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comfort and good food.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Convenient and cheap holiday package.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Good night life.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Good sporting facilities/exercise.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Guaranteed sunshine.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not worrying about time.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opportunities for sex.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opportunities for rest and relaxation.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provides excitement.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provides physical exercise.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recover health and recharge for the future.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The main thing for me on vacation is just to slow down.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To be active.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To be away from daily routine.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To bring back good memories.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To connect to past good times.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To engage in sports.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To enjoy good weather.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To escape from the pressures of daily life.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To get away from crowds.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To get away from everyday physical stress/pressure.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To get away from everyday psychological stress/pressure.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To be emotionally and physically refreshed.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To get away from home.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To get away from other people.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To get away from the usual demands of life.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To get close to nature.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To give my mind a rest.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To have fun.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>To rest and relax is vacation enough for me.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To seek adventure.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Safety motivation</strong></td>
<td>Environmental quality of the air, water and soil.</td>
<td>Jang &amp; Wu, 2005; Murphy &amp; Brymer, 2010; Pearce &amp; Lee, 2005;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Safety and security.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Standards of hygiene and cleanliness.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To be safe.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To feel personally safe and secure.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Continued. Table 2.3 Motivations in tourism

| Social interaction motivation | A vacation means visiting places where my family came from. 
Networking. 
To get to meet new people. 
To give me an opportunity to meet and be with friends and family. 
To have holiday with family/friends. 
To have romantic relationships. 
To holiday and spend time with people that I care deeply about. 
To meet new people and socialise. 
To meet new tourists and mix with them. 
To meet the local people and characters. 
To mix with fellow travellers. 
To socialise with gay men. 
To spend time with people cared deeply about. 
To spend time with relatives or friends. 
To strengthen current close relationships. | Andreu, et al., 2005; Biswas, 2008; Cha, et al., 1995; Clift & Forrest, 1999; Guinn, 1980; Hsu & Kang, 2009; Jang, et al., 2009; E. Y. J. Kim, 1997; Kozak, 2002; Loker-Murphy, 1997; Murphy & Brymer, 2010; Rittichainuwat, Beck, & Lalopa, 2001; Woo, et al., 2011; Young, 1999; |

| Self-esteem motivation | I just like to travel, to go somewhere and do something. 
I think that the kind of accommodations that you get on vacation is really important. 
I want luxury, nice food, and a comfortable place to stay. 
It’s important for me to go someplace fashionable on vacation. 
The availability of good restaurants and good food is important. 
To feel good about myself. | Biswas, 2008; Jang, et al., 2009; |
Table 2.4 Motivations in tourism

| Understanding motivation | Dramatic or beautiful landscapes.  
| | I had heard about the place and wanted to see it for myself.  
| | I’m interested in rainforest.  
| | I’m interested in seeing wildlife.  
| | It is something to do while in North Queensland.  
| | There are some places I have always wanted to visit.  
| | To attend cultural events that I don’t have access to at home.  
| | To develop my knowledge of visited place.  
| | To do different and exciting things.  
| | To do the same things that the people there do.  
| | To enjoy and improve my knowledge of the country’s history and culture.  
| | To enjoy and improve my knowledge of the country’s physical and environmental settings.  
| | To experience different cultures and different ways of life.  
| | To experience fashionable well known places.  
| | To experience something different.  
| | To gain a new perspective on life.  
| | To get off the beaten track.  
| | To improve knowledge of environmental settings.  
| | To increase my knowledge of new places.  
| | To learn more about the natural environment.  
| | To provide a learning experience for me.  
| | To see how other people live.  
| | To see local culture.  
| | To see the things that I don’t normally see.  
| | To see well-known tourist sights.  
| | To see wildlife and nature.  
| | To seek interesting things.  
| | To understand myself more.  
| | To visit foreign cultures.  
| | To visit galleries and antiques.  
| | To visit historical and cultural sites.  
| | Andreu, et al., 2005; Biswas, 2008; Cha, et al., 1995; Crompton & McKay, 1997; Guinn, 1980; Jang, et al., 2009; Jang & Wu, 2005; E. Y. J. Kim, 1997; Kozak, 2002; Loker-Murphy, 1997; Murphy & Brymer, 2010; Woo, et al., 2011; Young, 1999;  
| Self-actualisation and autonomy motivation | To be independent.  
| | To be obligated to no one.  
| | To develop my abilities and accomplishment.  
| | To do things my own way.  
| | To fulfil a long-term dream and ambition.  
| | To give me a feeling of self-fulfilment, accomplishment.  
| | Biswas, 2008; Guinn, 1980; Jang, et al., 2009; Jang & Wu, 2005; E. Y. J. Kim, 1997; Loker-Murphy, 1997; Murphy & Brymer, 2010; Pearce and Lee, 2005;  

In the next subsection, motivations of volunteers to participate in volunteering are discussed. Based on the literature, these are more focussed on a balance with intrinsic and extrinsic values.
2.3.2. Taking/receiving and giving (TRG) motivations

Whereas the studies of motivation in tourism predominantly emphasise self-gratification, the studies in volunteerism and VT focus on both-sides, self-interest and altruism. To add dimensions for altruistic motivations, the author identified four types of motivations:

1) Public service motivation: giving, helping, sharing, and contributing to people or a community (for example, Leonard & Onyx, 2009; Omoto & Snyder, 1993; Pillemer, Landreneau, & Suitor, 1996).
2) Environmental motivation: giving, helping, and contributing to conserving the environment (for example, Bruyere & Rappe, 2007; Measham et al., 2007; Ooi & Laing, 2010).
3) Religious motivation: giving and sharing religious value (for example, Pillemer et al., 1996; Tewksbury & Dabney, 2004).
4) Project/organisational motivation: giving, helping, sharing, and contributing to a project or an organisation (for example, Pauline & Pauline, 2009).

Knowles (1972) reported that safety, love, and esteem needs from Maslow’s theory are applicable to motivations in volunteerism, whereas self-actualisation needs can be considered as an additional motivation. Using the same approach, the author categorised motivations in volunteerism and VT studies into several aspects, and stipulated that the key elements to this classification are ‘taking/receiving’ and ‘giving’ (TRG). When the volunteers or volunteer tourists think of ‘receiving’ or ‘taking’ from society or other parties, the motivations are personal and associated with self-gratification. On the other hand, when the volunteers or volunteer tourists consider ‘giving’ to the environment, society or organisation, their motivations are altruistic. Table 2.3 below shows the list of motivations in volunteerism studies (quantitative approach) and Table 2.4 below shows the list of motivations in VT studies (quantitative and qualitative approaches).
## Table 2.5 Motivations in volunteerism studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-scale</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Physiological motivation** | To escape other pressures and stress in my life.  
To slow down the pace of life. | Omoto & Snyder, 1993; Pauline & Pauline, 2009; |
| **Safety motivation**   | Because it helps to talk to others who have been in similar situations.  
By volunteering I felt less lonely.  
Doing volunteering work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.  
No matter how bad I’ve been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget.  
Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems.  
Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles. | Clary et al., 1998; Esmond & Dunlop, 2004; Fox, Machtmes, Tassin, & Hebert, n.d.; Pauline & Pauline, 2009; Pillemer, Landreneau, & Suitor, 1996; Wang et al., 2011; Woo, et al., 2011; |
| **Social interaction motivation** | I volunteer because I feel that volunteering is a way to build one’s social networks.  
I volunteer because I look forward to the social events that volunteering affords me.  
I volunteer because volunteering provides a way for me to make new friends.  
I wanted to develop friendships with other volunteers.  
The social opportunities provided by the agency are important to me.  
To be with people who enjoy the same things I do.  
To meet new people.  
To see family faces.  
To work with friends. | Bruyere & Rappe, 2007; Esmond & Dunlop, 2004; Pauline & Pauline, 2009; Pillemer, et al., 1996; Woo, et al., 2011; |
| **Self-esteem motivation** | I would just be fun.  
It feels good because you’re doing something for God.  
It would make me feel good.  
Make it fun and explain that it’s a good feeling to help others in need.  
To feel better about myself.  
To feel needed.  
To make my life more stable.  
To raise my self-esteem.  
To understand AIDS and what it does to people.  
Volunteering makes me feel important. | Bruyere & Rappe, 2007; Clary, et al., 1998; Esmond & Dunlop, 2004; Fox, et al., n.d.; Omoto & Snyder, 1993; ORIMIA Research, 2007; Reeder, Davison, Gipson, & Hesson-McInnis, 2001; Wang, et al., 2011; |
Continued. Table 2.6 Motivations in volunteerism studies

| Understanding and personal development motivation | I can explore my own strengths.  
I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.  
I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.  
I volunteer because I can explore my own strength.  
I volunteer because volunteering lets me learn through direct hands-on experience.  
I volunteer because volunteering allow me to gain a new perspective on things.  
I wanted the opportunity to learn new skills.  
To challenge myself and test my skills.  
To develop a network of professional contacts.  
To gain experience dealing with emotionally difficult topics.  
To gain experience.  
To gain qualification/accreditation.  
To gain skill and experience.  
To get to know other people who are similar to myself.  
To get to know people interested in the same things as I am.  
To learn about environment.  
To learn about risk factors related to AIDS.  
To learn more about how to prevent AIDS.  
To learn more about other people and cultures.  
To observe nature.  
To understand AIDS and what it does to people.  
| Religious motivation | A religious calling.  
To fulfil religious obligations/beliefs.  
Desire to share religious values/beliefs with inmates. | Pillemer, et al., 1996; Tewksbury & Dabney, 2004; |
| Environmental motivations | Concern for the environment.  
Do something for a cause that is important to me.  
General desire to care for the environment.  
To help a cause  
To help preserve natural areas for future generations.  
To help restore natural areas.  
To protect natural areas from disappearing. | Bruyere & Rappe, 2007; Measham, et al., 2007; |
Continued. Table 2.7 Motivations in volunteerism studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Public service motivation</th>
<th>Because I consider myself an advocate for certain communities and issues. Because of my concern and worry certain communities. Because of my sense of obligation to certain communities. Desire to help others. I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving. I have an obligation to help others. I wanted to give something back to the community. I wanted to help protect the community. Making a positive difference to help other people in the community. People should be willing to donate time to help others. To be part of community. To get to know people in the gay community. To give back support I received. To help members of a certain community. To help others. To provide a service. To share my knowledge and skills with others. Volunteering does something good for the community. Volunteering is a community service. Volunteers make a valuable contribution to the community. We should promote volunteerism for the good of society. We were asked to come to the prison.</th>
<th>Fox, et al., n.d.; McLennan &amp; Birch, 2008; Omoto &amp; Snyder, 1993; ORIMA Research, 2007; Pauline &amp; Pauline, 2009; Pillemer, et al., 1996; Tewksbury &amp; Dabney, 2004; Wang, et al., 2011;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Project/organisational motivation</td>
<td>I am genuinely concerned about the event. I want to help make the event a success. My school/employer/church expects their students/employees/followers to provide community service in the form of volunteering.</td>
<td>Pauline &amp; Pauline, 2009;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, some studies investigated volunteer tourists’ motivations, for example, Wearing (2001), interviewed Australian volunteer tourists who joined the Youth Challenge International project; McIntosh and Zahra (2008) investigated the volunteer tourists in New Zealand; Broad and Jenkins (2008) reported the VT activities at the Gibbon Rehabilitation Project in Thailand and Söderman and Snead (2008) compared the motivations of young people engaged in three different VT projects in South America, Central America, and South America.

Some of the results from Wearing (2001), Söderman and Snead (2008), and other researchers are matched to Maslow’s categorisations in Table 2.4 below; whereas for the giving motivation, four new sub-categories were added: community service,
spiritual, environmental, and project or organisational motivations (the same treatment as the author applied to the volunteering motivations).

Table 2.8 Motivations in volunteer tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-scales</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Physiological motivation**      | Enjoyment of the outdoors, nature, and environments. I want to travel. To enjoy the natural environment. To escape, relaxation. To experience fresh clean air, water, and environment. To get some exercise, engage in physical activities. To live in another country. To travel to the beaches and safari activities. | Taillon, 2007
| **Social interaction motivation** | A shared experience with family members and an educational opportunity for children. Recommended by others. To build new friendships. To develop social skills. To interact with the local people. To meet African people. To meet people. To seek camaraderie. To seek educational and bonding opportunities for children. To socialise with other volunteer tourists. | Grimm & Needham, 2011; Ooi & Laing, 2010 Benson & Seibert, 2009; Brown, 2005; Lo & Lee, 2011; |
| **Self-esteem motivation**        | It’s more convenient this way. Volunteering makes me feel better about myself/helps my self-esteem.                                                                                                                                                                  | Pauline & Pauline, Sin, 2009;                   |
| **Understanding motivation**      | Cultural immersion. Desire for exploration, challenge, and adventure. I wanted to discover new interests. Learning something new. To broaden one’s mind (cultural experiences). To experience a service project. To experience the real New Zealand people through a cultural encounter. To experience something different, something new. To get to know some of the locals. To interact with the natural wildlife. To learn about another country and cultures. To learn about the natural environment. To learn more about other cultures. To learn more about their selves. To learn valuable life skills. To see how they live and to make connections. Using your skills. | Taillon, 2007; Grimm & Needham, 2011; Ooi & Laing, 2010; Benson & Seibert, 2009; Brown, 2005; McIntosh & Zahra, 2008; Leonard & Onyx, 2009; |
| **Self-actualisation and autonomy motivation** | I want to see if I can do this. To accomplish something. To increase social recognition from others.                                                                                                                                                                     | Ooi & Laing, 2010; Sin, 2009;                   |
| **Religious motivation**          | To spread religious views. To hope that people would accept the grace of God.                                                                                                                                                                                      | Taillon, 2007; Lo & Lee, 2011;                  |
Motivations to be involved in VT are discussed in the following subsection by adopting, adapting, and combining all motivations in the tourism, volunteerism, VT literature.

### 2.3.3. Motivations to be involved in volunteer tourism

Figure 2.5 below shows possible bipolar motivations to be involved in VT, separating the taking/receiving and giving (TRG) domains. Taking constitutes personal agendas, whereby people expect self-satisfaction, rewards, good times and feelings, and new knowledge and skills. Motives, such as “to rest and relax”, “to explore my own strengths”, and “to meet other travellers” indicate how people are imbued by selfishness aspects. Motivation for tourism is dominated by the taking/receiving type. This is understandable because most people who engage in tourism activities do so to enhance their lives or to satisfy themselves in some way (Hsu & Kang, 2009; Pearce & Lee, 2005a; Sinclair, Dowon, & Thistleton-Martin, 2006; Tikkanen, 2007).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Environmental motivation</th>
<th>Responsibility to environment. To assist the natural environment. To help environment.</th>
<th>Grimm &amp; Needham, 2011; Ooi &amp; Laing, 2010;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public service motivation</td>
<td>I want to contribute. Responsibility to people. To assist communities in developing countries. To contribute to the places visited. To contribute, do something worthwhile. To give back and make a difference. To give back to the less privileged. To give. To help developing a country. To help people. To help the local town and its surrounds. To make a difference. To volunteer, work. To work with communities in developing countries. To work, not just being tourists.</td>
<td>Taillon, 2007; Grimm &amp; Needham, 2011; Ooi &amp; Laing, 2010; Brown, 2005; Lo &amp; Lee, 2011; McIntosh &amp; Zahra, 2008; Sin, 2009; Leonard &amp; Onyx, 2009;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Wearing (2001) mentioned that one of the motivations of individuals to be involved in VT was altruism. The concept of TRG might be similar to a categorisation of egoistic motivation and altruistic motivation mentioned by Coghlan and Fennel (2009): egoistic motivation represent taking or receiving, and altruistic motivations represent giving. Researchers in volunteerism considered altruism as a heart of volunteering (Rehberg, 2005; Savulescu, 1996; J. D. Smith, 1999; Unger, 1991). However, the study undertaken by Coghlan and Fennel (2009) did not use the Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs. Besides, it was not examined using a quantitative approach.

The following section discusses constraints facing by individuals to travel and volunteer. These similar constraints may exist when those individuals are invited to be engaged in a VT project.
2.3.4. Motivation as dependent and independent variables

Two studies examined motivation as a dependent variable. Ragheb and Tate (1993) investigated a behavioural model of leisure participation, based on the attitude, motivation, and satisfaction in relation to leisure of university students surveyed in North America. One of the results was that motivation was found to be influenced by attitude – both cognitive and affective. Jang, Hu, and Wu (2009) studied motivation of senior citizens in Taipei, Taiwan, to travel, also found that motivation was influenced by attitude.

Researchers, who examined motivation as an independent variable, found that there was a link between motivation and intention. Some others proved a relationship between motivations and behaviour. Huang and Hsu (2009) surveyed travellers in the Beijing Capital International Airport and white collar workers in Beijing. One of the objectives of their study was to assess a relationship between motivation (novelty, knowledge, relaxation, and shopping) and intention to revisit Hong Kong. As a result, these scholars found that only one dimension (shopping) of motivation impacted on the intention to revisit Hong Kong.

Jang et al. (2009) investigated the motivation of senior citizens in Taipei, Taiwan, to travel. Their results showed that motivation influenced intention to travel. In addition, one of the objectives of a study conducted by Konu and Laukkanen (2009) was to determine the roles of motivational factors in predicting tourists’ intentions to engage in wellbeing holidays. These scholars surveyed potential tourists at a travel fair in Finland. As a result, they found that motivation had a positive influence on intention. Hyde and Lawson (2003) interviewed tourists in Auckland, New Zealand. One of their findings was that there was a link between the motivations for independent travel with the decision processes of the tourists.

Previously, the author mentioned that according to Ragheb and Tate (1993), attitude might influence motivation. These researchers also found that motivation influenced participation in leisure activities.
2.4. Constraints to be involved in volunteer tourism

Constraints in tourism, volunteering, and VT are presented in this section. Many people who intend to travel or volunteer have to delay or cancel because of one or more reasons. Constraints also prevent people from even reaching this stage of intention. Researchers in the three areas being considered divide constraints in different ways, for instance factual and perceived, intrinsic and extrinsic, internal and exogenous (McKercher, Packer, Yau, & Lam, 2003), and intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints (Hudson & Gilbert, 2000; Nyaupane, Morais, & Graefe, 2004).

2.4.1. Constraints in tourism and leisure

The studies discussed in this subsection investigated different types of constraints affecting people engaging in tourism and leisure activities. Some of them show a significant relationship between constraints and behaviour, for instance constraints can limit people from using parks. Scott and Munson (1994) identified 13 constraints preventing poor people from using public parks in Greater Cleveland; for example: lack of time, being busy with other activities, fear of crime, and lack of information. Other research on park use constraints was conducted by Kerstetter et al. (2002). These authors identified the constraints to visit state parks were lack of time and knowledge, distance, and physical limitations of the respondent or someone they travel with.

Perceived constraints, which can be considered as intrinsic constraints, of senior Koreans to travel overseas was investigated by Lee and Tideswell (2005). The findings showed that the respondents felt guilty about travelling overseas because this conflicted with their Confucian principles and they were too old to travel.

For people with physical and mental handicaps, according to Woodside and Etzel (1980), the constraints that limited their vacation travel behaviour were: having a heart condition, being reliant upon crutches a wheelchair, old age, and being a stroke victim.
2.4.2. Constraints in volunteerism

The following studies examine constraints in volunteerism. Some of the studies show a significant relationship between constraints and behaviour. In a study conducted by Warburton, Paynter, and Petriwskyj (2007), Australian senior volunteers and members of the Australian National Senior Association, identified the following constraints to their volunteering: the volunteer organisations don’t use volunteers’ skill or experience effectively, existing volunteers don’t make new volunteers feel welcome, and volunteering is too inflexible time-wise.

Constraints to volunteering were reported by newcomers in wheat-belt towns in Western Australia (Paull, 2009). The constraints were, for example, petrol cost, distance between towns, and limited information. Constraints are also faced by young volunteers. Young Muslims in the range of age 18 to 25 years in Lakemba (Sydney), Shepparton, and Melbourne participated in focus group interviews conducted by Orima Research (2007) to discuss the question of constraints to volunteering. They identified the following constraints: limited time to spare due to family commitments, study or work commitments, and lack of family support and encouragement.

Leeman (n.d.) considered that blood and body parts donation are part of volunteering. Lemmens et.al (2005) investigated young people who do not donate their blood. These authors found that the constraints for these people were, for example: time barrier, lack of reward, and fear of blood and needles are frightening.

Further, the author categorises constraints for volunteers to volunteer may be intrinsic or extrinsic, and may include perceived and factual aspects. Examples of perceived intrinsic constraints, include ‘people may perceive that volunteering is useless or is only for active persons’ (ORIMA Research, 2007; Thoits & Hewitt, 2001).

Examples of factual intrinsic constraints include age discrimination, fear of isolation associated with unfamiliar surroundings, issues, social anxiety, personality (e.g. young persons who lack confidence may not volunteer) (Ferrier, Roos, & Long, 2004;
ORIMA Research, 2007; Paull, 2009; J. Warburton et al., 2007), and disabilities. People with certain disabilities may be deterred from volunteering because organisations may have little idea of how to support disabled volunteers who want to take charge of their futures and contribute to their community (Bruce, 2006). Trembath et al. (2009) noted that people with Augmentative and Alternative Communication (AAC) systems may find being an effective volunteer quite challenging. For volunteers, time constraints due to family, study or work commitments, and the high financial costs associated with volunteering (Ferrier et al., 2004; ORIMA Research, 2007; Paull, 2009; J. Warburton et al., 2007), may deter potential volunteers. In addition, some people may have had unsatisfactory previous volunteering experiences; for example, the work may have been boring or they may have experienced physical or psychological harm (AAP, 2010; Bruce, 2006; J. Warburton et al., 2007).

Examples of perceived extrinsic constraints include pressure from peers who may see volunteering as ‘not cool’; lack of family support and encouragement; restrictions imposed by organisations; lack of information, for example, on how they could assist, and lack of recognition/reward for their efforts (Department of Sport and Recreation, 2004; Ferrier et al., 2004; ORIMA Research, 2007; Paull, 2009).

Examples of factual extrinsic constraints, such as the organisation that facilitates volunteering may create extrinsic barriers by not using the skills or experience of volunteers effectively; being poorly managed or too inflexible time-wise; not encouraging existing volunteers to make new volunteers feel welcome; preferring young volunteers; or exposing volunteers to the risk of litigation. Increasingly, volunteers are concerned about legal actions being brought against them while participating in activities that may involve insurance, legislation, and risk management activities (Department of Sport and Recreation, 2004; Paull, 2009; J. Warburton et al., 2007).

Table 2.5 below shows types of constraints faced by tourists, volunteers, and volunteer tourists. The constraints, for example time, finance, health, skills, physical, information, safety and security, distance, family, work, facilities, rule and
regulation, companion, social and isolation, and transportation as well as lack of interest (Cleave & Doherty, 2005; E. L. Jackson & Henderson, 1995; Paull, 2009; Raymore, Godbey, Crawford, & von Eye, 1993; Scott & Munson, 1994; Taillon, 2007). All of these constraints might be faced by people engaging in VT now or in the future. However, some researchers discussed constraints without categorising into perceived or factual. To deal with this dilemma, the author decided to include them into one category as ‘constraints’.

2.4.3. Constraints in volunteer tourism

A study focussed on constraints in VT was found. Taillon (2007) looked at reasons why volunteer tourists do not reengage in VT, concluding the constraints and detrimental. According to this researcher, constraints can be grouped as external or internal constraints. For the internal constraints, for example, the participants in the study were not sure that they could help community effectively through VT. Also, Taillon stated that finance and time constraints were barriers to becoming reinvolved in VT. For the external constraints, Taillon (2007) mentioned that there were cultural barriers faced by participants in the destinations they served. In addition, problems with safety and security in the country visited and the lack of professionalism of the organisations influenced their decision to take part again in VT.

Table 2.5 shows types of constraints faced by tourists, volunteers, and volunteer tourists. A tourist may have a finance constraint to travel as well as a volunteer or a volunteer tourist may have a finance constraint to volunteer. In this case, constraints in tourism may also occur in volunteering and VT. Some researchers stated a constraint as a constraint without categorising into perceived or factual. To deal with this dilemma, the author decided to include them in one category as ‘constraints’ and let exploratory factor analysis distinguish which items to be perceived and factual constraints.
Table 2.10 Constraints in tourism/leisure, volunteerism, and VT studies (based on the author’s analysis)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constraints/Authors</th>
<th>Interest</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Finance</th>
<th>Health</th>
<th>Skills</th>
<th>Physic</th>
<th>Information</th>
<th>Safety &amp; security</th>
<th>Distance</th>
<th>Family</th>
<th>Work</th>
<th>Facilities</th>
<th>Rule &amp; regulation</th>
<th>Companion</th>
<th>Social &amp; isolation</th>
<th>Transportation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tourism</strong></td>
<td>Intrinsic</td>
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2.5. Psychographic characteristics

This section presents psychographic characteristics as one of the variables to be measured in this study. Beane and Ennis (1987, p. 22) defined psychographic characteristics as representative of the “inner person rather than the outward expression of the person”, whereas Gunter and Furnham (1992, p. 70) defined psychographic characteristics as “patterns in which people live and spend their time and money”. According to Kotler, Roberto, and Lee’s (2002), psychographic
characteristics consist of social class, lifestyle, and personality. For this study, lifestyle was adapted to become ‘altruistic lifestyle values’. The author elaborates on these three characteristics below.

2.5.1. **Altruistic lifestyle values**

This section describes altruistic lifestyle values. Salomon and Ben-Akiva (1983, p. 623) defined lifestyle as:

> A pattern of behaviour under constrained resources which conforms to the orientations an individual has toward three major ‘life decisions’ he or she must make: (a) formation of a household (of any type), (b) participation in the labour force, and (c) orientation toward leisure.

Lifestyle may influence behaviour. Using secondary data, Salomon and Ben-Akiva (1983) tested the link between lifestyle and travel choices of households in the USA. They stated that lifestyle might influence behaviour. Another study assessing a secondary data – US consumer expenditure – was conducted by Kitamura (2009). This study was longitudinal. The researcher found that there was a relationship between lifestyle and travel demand.

In this study, the author chose ‘value’ as a measure of altruistic lifestyle values. A value is considered a dimension of lifestyle characteristics (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2004, p. 178). According to Pizam and Calantone (1987, p. 178), a value is “a class of beliefs shared by the members of a society, or sub-society, concerning what is desirable or ‘good’ or what ought to be, and what is undesirable or ‘bad’”.

Pizam and Calantone (1987) investigated the travel behaviour of undergraduate students in Florida. These authors concluded that values affected the students’ travel behaviour, for example, those who valued broadmindedness, honesty, and preferred destinations far away from home, took an ‘active’ vacation; whereas those who valued salvation and honesty, placed little importance on friendship, and preferred urban and undeveloped destinations, took a risky vacation.
Clary et al. (1998) developed the Volunteer Function Inventory as a result of their study on motivation to volunteer. The Volunteer Function Inventory has been used by many researchers (for example, Gage & Thapa, 2011; M. Kim, Zhang, & Connaughton, 2010a; Langridge, 2003) and value is one dimension of the inventory. In the quantitative phase of this study, the author adapted the indicators of this value dimension to measure altruistic lifestyle values.

2.5.2. Sensation-seeking personality

According to Moutinho (1993, p. 9), personality is “the configuration for a person’s characteristics and ways of behaving, which determines his or her adjustment to the environment in a unique way”. Moutinho (1993) mentioned that personality may be one avenue to investigating holiday behaviour trends.

Researchers have studied the correlation between personality and propensity of sensation seeking. For example, Ball and Zuckerman (1990) considered sensation seeking as a personality dimension. The study of sensation seeking (SS) was initiated by Zuckerman et al. (1964), who also presented the sensation-seeking scale (SSS), to determine the level of sensation-seeking personality of sensation seekers. A sensation seeker is defined by Zuckerman et al. (1972, p. 308) as “a person who needs varied, novel, and complex sensations and experiences to maintain an optimal level of arousal”.

Originally, this scale was introduced with sixty-four items of statements, which contained four dimensions: experience seeking, boredom susceptibility, thrill and adventure seeking, and disinhibition. However, the SSS has now recently been modified into: the sensation-seeking scale form V (SSS-V) (Zuckerman, Eysenck, & Eysenck, 1978), the brief sensation-seeking scale (BSSS) (Hoyle, Stephenson, Palmgreen, Lorch, & Donohew, 2002), and the Arnett inventory of sensation seeking (AISS) (Arnett, 1994).
In this study the BSSS (Hoyle et al., 2002) was used – being the shortest version of sensation-seeking measurement – but the next subsection presents studies that used all types of sensation-seeking measurements.

Galloway (2002) conducted a study of provincial park visitors in Canada using the SSS. This researcher divided his respondents into two groups: (a) the lower sensation seekers, who were concerned about a broad variety of attitudes and behaviours, and (b) the higher sensation seekers, who were concerned about the following: advantages of visiting the parks, sources of information about the parks, involvement in various activities during their visits, number of services and facilities, and satisfaction.

Xu (2010) assessed the sensation-seeking personality, motivation, past experience, and intentions of storm chasing tourists in the USA. This scholar used the SSS-V and found that some dimensions of sensation seeking, such as experience and experience seeking, significantly correlated with some dimensions of motivation, such as wanting to be associated with similar people.

Applying the SSS-V, Gilchrist, Povey and Dickinson (1995) investigated British travellers’ choice of adventure holidays. These authors addressed two groups: (a) respondents who had travelled to Africa and (b) a control group. Gilchrist et al. reported that in relation to the sub-scales ‘the thrill and adventure seeking’ and ‘experience seeking’, the score of the adventurers’ group were higher than those of the control group.

Pizam, Reichel, and Uriely (2001) also used the SSS-V to test sensation-seeking personality of student tourists in Israel, in particular on their choice of tourism activities and favourable travel arrangements. These authors found that students who chose extreme sports during their leisure time had a higher sensation-seeking score than those who chose cultural, heritage, human made, and nature attractions. Also, the researchers stated that students’ demographic profile influenced their sensation-seeking personality: those who organised their own travel itinerary had a higher sensation-seeking score. Furthermore, the male and secular students scored higher in sensation seeking than the female and religious students.
Galloway and Lopez (1999) investigated sensation-seeking personality and attitude in visiting national parks. These authors recruited students at a university in Australia to participate in their study. Using the AISS created by Arnett (1994), Galloway and Lopez (1999) found that attitude had a positive relation with those who regularly visited national parks and gender had a positive relation with the sensation-seeking personality. Another study, by Galloway, Mithcell, Getz, Crouch, and Ong (2008) used the AISS to examine sensation seeking in wine tourists in Australia.

Three studies on sensation seeking in volunteerism are considered here. A study undertaken by Farré, Lamas, and Cami (1995) examined personality variables and volunteering for clinical pharmacology research in phase 1 clinical trials, using the SSS-V. These researchers compared the results with a group of volunteers in another group who had not been involved in the phase 1 clinical trials. The result showed that those who volunteered had higher scores in all sub-scales of the SSS-V. Therefore, sensation-seeking personality may influence people’s involvement in volunteering.

Wymer Jr., Self, and Findley (2008) applied the BSSS to extreme sport communities in their research. They concluded that the more someone is a sensation seeker, the more willing she/he is to engage in extreme sport, and the less willing to be involved in volunteering. Respondents apparently preferred the extreme sport activities, perhaps assessing that volunteering was not adventurous enough for them. In another study, Wymer Jr., Self, and Findley (2010) found an interesting result when these community assessed their interests on VT. The information from this study is discussed in detail in the next subsection.

One study on sensation seeking in VT was found. Wymer Jr., Self, and Findley (2010) have used the BSSS to measure the adventurous trait and to thereby identify a target market for VT. The researchers measured this trait in extreme sport enthusiasts (skydiving, surfing, snowboarding, windsurfing, kite boarding/surfing, white-water kayaking or rafting, skateboarding, rock climbing, BMX, Moto X, scuba diving, cave diving, extreme skiing, bungee jumping, and hang gliding) from 39 countries through an online survey. They claim that sensation seeking is attributable to individuals who
are: intrigued by new experiences, enjoy taking risks and interested in various
culture and ideas. These authors found that extreme sports participants were
interested in VT projects, and that respondents who were volunteers were inclined
to volunteer in the future.

2.5.3. Social class

Hudson (2008, p. 47) stated that social class is “one of the most important external
factors influencing consumer behaviour”, particularly in tourism and leisure whereas
Kraus (1990) considered that leisure is a symbol of social class.

Even in modern societies, class or social class can be identified. Studies on social
class can be found in various fields. Trautmann, Kuilen and Zekhauser (2012)
investigated the influence of social class towards ethical behaviour using an
objective measure. These authors included income, financial wealth, job type,
employment type, and high education as elements to measure social class. Further,
Reay (2012) studied the correlation between on social class and opportunities to
access a higher education. He mentioned that parents’ educational level and
occupation might be the elements to group a social class. Whereas these two studies
considered education level as one element to be included, Gordon (1949) applied
only economic power (income and occupation) and status ascription (corporate
class-consciousness, generalised class awareness, competitive class feeling, and felt
or latent status).

According to Ray (1971), social class can be measured by the way individuals assess
themselves based on their circumstances, including occupation, income, and
education. Warner, Meeker, and Eells (1960) categorised social class as upper-
upper, lower-upper, upper-middle, lower-middle, upper-lower, and lower-lower. In
this study, the Ray and Warner, Meeker, and Eells’s approach was used and
respondents were asked to assess their social class subjectively.

Furthermore, Herbert (2001) studied the intersection of literacy places – the setting
on literacy and novels – and heritage tourism. This researcher used prior studies on
related topics conducted by other researchers. He stated that one of the findings was that social class has a link with habit of visiting heritage sites.

As there is paucity in tourism, volunteerism, and VT, two studies examined a link between social class and behaviour in general is considered here. Tomlinson (2003) conducted a longitudinal study by interviewing residents in Great Britain to test the relationship between social class and behavioural pattern. In his study, this scholar included food consumption, smoking, alcohol consumption, hobbies, and exercising. He found that there is a link between social class and behavioural patterns. Another study on food consumption was undertaken by Conner (2008). He investigated individuals across the world using an internet survey, looking at the relationship between social class and food consumption pattern. This study was not directed at the tourism or leisure setting; however, for some people, culinary activities might be considered a tourism activity too (Tikkanen, 2007). Corner (2008) confirmed that social class influences food consumption pattern. All the studies (C. Conner, 2008; Herbert, 2001; Tikkanen, 2007; Tomlinson, 2003) discussed here confirm a relationship between the social class variable and behaviour.

The next section presents an adaptation of the stage of readiness to be examined in VT setting.

2.6. Intention in tourism, volunteerism, and volunteer tourism studies

This section focuses on two main constructs: intention as a dependent variable and intention as an independent variable. To measure intention, some researchers have used the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991b, 2002) or its modification (for example, Tsai, 2010a; J. Warburton & Terry, 2000; K.-S. Wu & Teng, 2011), some others have used the theory of reasoned action (TRA) (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) or its modification (for example, Kaplanidou & Gibson, 2012; Ryu & Jang, 2006), and others have used neither the TPB nor the TRA (Huang & Hsu, 2009; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005; Tsai, 2010b). Modifications or extension of TPB and TRA included other variables that were not used in original versions of both these theories, such as constraints, motivation, and past behaviour (S. J. Lee, 2011;
Ryu & Jang, 2006; K.-S. Wu & Teng, 2011). All studies presented below are taken from the tourism, volunteerism, and VT fields.

2.6.1. **Intention as a dependent variable**

Studies presented in this subsection are chosen because they show a significant relationship between one or more variables and intention to engage in tourism, volunteerism, and VT.

**Intentions in tourism**

The literature showed that intention is influenced by several variables, such as attitude, subjective norms, constraints, and past behaviour. This literature review presents how those studies show a significant relationship between one or more of the independent variables and intention.

Drawing on the TPB, Sparks and Pan (2009) investigated attitudes of Chinese outbound tourists towards travel to Australia as one of their variables measured. Statements such as unenjoyable/enjoyable, bad/good, and foolish/fun were applied using a semantic bipolar option. According to Sparks and Pan (2009), the attitudes of Chinese outbound tourists significantly influenced their intentions to travel to Australia.

Furthermore, Hrubes et al. (2001) used the TPB to measure the intention of hunters and non-hunters in the USA to join a hunting tour. These authors found that attitude, subjective norms, and past behaviour significantly influenced the intention to join a hunting tour.

Some researchers have used the modified TPB. For example, Lam and Hsu (2006) investigated Taiwanese tourists and tested their intention to visit Hong Kong. These writers stated that attitude, perceived behavioural control, and past behaviour influenced the tourists’ intentions. Furthermore, the intentions of Chinese tourists to visit world cultural heritage sites were measured by Shen, Schüttemeyer, and Braun.
(2009) using the modified TPB. These researchers claimed that past experience, cultural involvement, and perceived control influenced intention, but attitude and subjective norms did not.

The modified TRA has also been used to predict tourists’ intentions. For example, Ryu and Jang (2006) assessed the intentions of students in the USA to experience local cuisine at a travel destination. Ryu and Jang found that attitude and past behaviour had a significant relationship with intention.

Other researchers use neither the TPB nor the TRA. Huang and Hsu (2009) investigated tourists from mainland China to revisit Hong Kong, finding that past experience and attitude had a significant influence on revisit intention, including motivation to go shopping. Huang and Hsu also found that lack of interest as a perceived constraint influenced the respondents not to revisit Hong Kong.

Tsai (2010b) surveyed physically disabled individuals in Taiwan to examine a relationship between constraints and intention and between attitude and intention. This researcher found that these hypotheses were accepted: constraints and attitude each had a relation with intention.

Reisinger and Mavondo (2005) investigated Australians and foreigners in Australia. One of their objectives was to understand a relationship between perceived constraints, included travel risk and anxiety (terrorism and sociocultural risk), and intention to travel internationally. They found that there was a direct relation between perceived constraints and intention to travel abroad.

**Intentions in volunteerism**

Several studies on volunteerism have focused on the relationship between attitude and other variables and the intention of volunteers towards their voluntary work type, for example, towards making a blood donation. Glynn et al. (2003) question attitude towards incentives for blood donors. They used scale items, such as encouraged/discouraged, and found that incentives, such as medical-screening tests,
cash, gifts (like t-shirts), and tokens (like stickers and pins) do make a difference to participation in volunteerism. These researchers found that some medical-screening tests and cash incentives most encouraged respondents to donate their blood.

Lemmens et al. (2005) examined the attitude of non-donor undergraduate students towards blood donors. Four bipolar statements were asked: good/bad, pleasant/unpleasant, enjoyable/annoying, and frightening/not frightening. The authors used the extended TPB to investigate intention and attitude was one of the variables included. They found that attitude had a positive relationship with intention to donate blood.

A group of volunteers who provided companionship and social support to people coping with HIV and AIDS in the USA were investigated by Stolinski et al. (2004). They reported that volunteers who showed empathetic concern and perspective taking perceived their volunteer experiences to be more challenging and important, and these perceptions predicted intentions to continue volunteering. On the other hand, according to the authors, the volunteers who experienced greater personal distress in this project perceived their volunteer experiences to be more disappointing.

Using the TPB, Greenslade and White (2005) predicted above-average participation of Australian seniors in volunteerism. These authors included attitude, subjective norms, and also self-efficacy, and found that all of these variables significantly influenced intention.

**Intentions in volunteer tourism**

Lee (2011) used attitude and subjective norms and stated that these variables had a positive relationship with intention. He asked respondents to respond to statements about why they would undertake VT experiences, for example: to learn a skill, to share a skill that I have, or to serve the environment. Although the attitude statements used by Lee tented to motivation statements, however he found that attitude had a positive influence on intention.
In his study, Lee (2011) assessed past experience to predict intention of potential volunteer tourists to be involved in VT. He asked respondents how often they were involved in VT, giving them a range of options from ‘never’ to ‘other’. Lee treated past experience in VT as a mediator variable between motivation and intention and self-efficacy and intention.

All the studies in tourism, volunteerism, and VT discussed in this subsection showing an evident that intention was influenced by other variables, such as attitude, subjective norms, past behaviour, and perceived constraints (Glynn et al., 2003; Greenslade & White, 2005; Huang & Hsu, 2009; S. J. Lee, 2011; Lemmens et al., 2005; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005; Ryu & Jang, 2006; Sparks & Pan, 2009; Stolinski et al., 2004; Tsai, 2010b).

2.6.2. Intention as an independent variable

As an independent variable, intention may influence behaviour. Studies in tourism, volunteerism, and VT indicate the relationship between these two variables.

Lam and Hsu (2004) studied intention in choosing a travel destination by applying the TPB. These authors investigated the intention of potential travellers from mainland China travelling to Hong Kong. They found that there was a significant relationship between intention and behaviour.

Further, Hrubes et al. (2001) studied the intention of hunters and non-hunters in the USA to participate in hunting activities. These researchers stated that intention had a significant relationship with behaviour.

Another study undertaken by Warburton and Terry (2000), tested the revised TPB to look at the volunteer decision of older people in an Australian capital city, claiming that people were more likely to be involved in volunteering if they intended to do so.
The studies discussed in this subsection led to a conclusion that intention may influence behaviour (Hrubes et al., 2001; Lam & Hsu, 2004; J. Warburton & Terry, 2000). In this study, behaviour is adapted to become stage of readiness.

2.7. Stage of readiness

Prochaska and DiClemente (1983) applied the stage of change or stage of readiness in their studies to understand the changes or stages when people change their health behaviours and why, particularly in smoking. Later, the stage of change has been used by many researchers in research topics such as in fruit and vegetable consumption (Wolf et al., 2008), exercise domain (Courneya & Bobick, 2000), and healthy eating (Nothwehr, Snetselaar, Yang, & Wu, 2006; Vallis et al., 2003).

Previously, Prochaska and DiClemente (1983) established the stage of readiness: pre-contemplation, contemplation, action, maintenance, and relapse. In another study, Prochaska and DiClemente (1992) developed different stages of change: pre-contemplation, contemplation, preparation, action, and maintenance. And Prochaska and Norcross (2001) added another stage – termination – to indicate that people have definite about changing their behaviours. These studies lead to an understanding that the stages can be modified. For example, Dijkstra, Roijackers, and Vries (1998) developed four new stages: immotives, pre-contemplators, contemplators, and preparers.

In volunteerism, three studies in volunteerism that used the stage of readiness theory were located. The first study, undertaken by Cheang and Brown (2001), looked at the readiness of middle-aged and older people to participate in volunteering. Another two studies, conducted by Lemmen et al. (2005) and Ferguson and Chandler (2005) investigated the readiness of young people to donate blood.

The studies discussed in this subsection show that there was no simple way to become involved in a volunteer project. Each participant might face a process of decision-making. In joining a VT project, a participant might face a similar situation.
Furthermore, previously it has been mentioned that as a dependent variable, behaviour or stage of readiness was influenced by other variables, such as intention, altruistic lifestyle values, sensation-seeking personality, social class, motivation, past experience, and constraints, for instance Tsai (2010b) studied the travel behaviour of individuals with a disability – physically or intellectual. One of the objectives of this scholar’s research was to assess the link between attitude and behaviour. As a result, she found that attitude was linked to travel behaviours.

The following section discusses the proposed theoretical model and presents a summary of the literature review chapter.

2.8. The proposed theoretical model

The proposed theoretical model was developed to guide the study. This model (see Figure 2.6 below) would be validated, rejected, revised or refined. The model was to be further developed or informed by the qualitative results. The model was developed by involving ten variables, adopted and adapted from tourism, volunteerism, and VT studies, and divided into three categories: (a) dependent variable: stage of readiness; (b) independent variables: attitude, subjective norms, lifestyle value, sensation-seeking personality, social class, and constraints; and (c) dependent and independent variables: intention and motivation.

On the proposed model, five variables have multi-dimensions, for instance attitude had two dimensions: attitude towards VT experiences and attitude towards the VT system; psychographic characteristics consisted of three factors but these were not dimensional: the sensation-seeking personality, altruistic lifestyle values, and social class; motivation had nine dimensions: physiological, safety/security, social interaction, self-esteem, self-actualisation, public service, organisational, environmental, religious, and project/organisational; past experience had three dimensions: past experience in tourism, volunteering, and VT; and constraints had two dimensions: perceived and factual.
The relationships between one variable or construct and another for this study are shown in Figure 2.6 and are described below:

1) Motivation was influenced by attitude and sensation-seeking personality (Tsai, 2010b; Xu, 2010; Xu, Stanis, Barbieri, & Chen, 2010).

2) Intention was influenced by attitude, subjective norms, sensation-seeking personality, motivation, past experience, and constraints variables (T. J. Brown, 1999; Huang & Hsu, 2009; Jang et al., 2009; Konu & Laukkanen, 2009; Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005; Ryu & Jang, 2006; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998; K.-S. Wu & Teng, 2011; Wymer Jr. et al., 2008).

3) Stage of readiness was influenced by attitude, intention, altruistic lifestyle values, sensation-seeking personality, social class, motivation, past experience, and constraints (C. Conner, 2008; Farré et al., 1995; Herbert, 2001; Hrubes et al., 2001; Kitamura, 2009; Kraus, 1990; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Lehto, O'Leary, & Morrison, 2004; Ooi & Laing, 2010; Pizam & Calantone, 1987; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2004; Salomon & Ben-Aktiva, 1983; Scott & Munson, 1994; Tomlinson, 2003; Tsai, 2010a, 2010b; J. Warburton & Terry, 2000).

![Figure 2.6 The theoretical framework of the current study](image-url)
2.9. **Definitions of terms**

This thesis uses a number of terms of variables. Definitions of the terms are presented as follow:

(a) **Attitude:** “A psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour” (Eagly & Chaiken, 1998).

(b) **Subjective norm:** “The perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform or not perform the behaviour” (Ajzen, 1991a, p. 188).

(c) **Social class:** “Class as a concept is ceasing to do any useful work for sociology” (Pahl, 1989, p. 710).

(d) **Lifestyle:** “A pattern of behaviour under constrained resources which conforms to the orientations an individual has toward three major ‘life decisions’ he or she must make: (a) formation of a household (of any type), (b) participation in the labour force, and (c) orientation toward leisure” (Salomon & Ben-Aktiva, 1983, p. 623).

(e) **Sensation seeking:** “A trait defined by the seeking of varied, novel, complex, and intense sensations and experiences, and the willingness to take physical, social, legal, and financial risks for the sake of such experience” (Zuckerman, 1994, p. 27).

(f) **Personality:** “The configuration for a person’s characteristics and ways of behaving, which determines his or her adjustment to the environment in a unique way” (Moutinho, 1993, p. 9).

(g) **Motivation:** “An inner state which energizes channels and sustains human behaviour to achieve goals” (Pizam, Neumann, & Reichel, 1979, p. 195)

(h) **Intention:** “A measure of the strength of one’s intention to perform a specific behaviour” (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p. 288).

(i) **Stage of readiness, or stage of change:** “Conceptualized as a process that unfolds over time and involves progression through a series of five stages:

2.10. Summary of chapter two

This chapter has presented a review of the literature in tourism, volunteerism, and VT to obtain a deep understanding about VT and variables that might influence intention and stage of readiness to participate in VT. A suggested revised definition of VT was developed to be tested in the qualitative study to explore individuals’ attitude toward the concept of VT. The definition will further be modified based on the qualitative findings for use in the quantitative phase of the study.

Intention was delineated as a dependent variable and independent variable. As a dependent variable, the literature suggests that intention was influenced by variables, such as attitude, subjective norms, motivation, sensation-seeking personality, past experiences, and constraints whereas as an independent variable, intention influenced stage of readiness.

Motivation in this study was categorised into taking/receiving and giving (TRG) domains. The literature was used to understand more fully the TRG dimensions. The literature included physiological, safety, social interaction, self-esteem, understanding, and self-actualisation and autonomy motivations for tourism setting, and religious, environmental, public service, and project/organisational motivations for volunteer and VT settings.

This chapter also depicted constraints to be engaged in VT. As there was limited study was found in VT on constraints, the author relied on the studies in tourism and volunteerism. This decision was made after reviewing the existing literature in VT showing that constraints in VT were almost equal with the constraints found in tourism and volunteerism literature. Another issue discussed in this chapter was psychographic characteristics, focusing on altruistic lifestyle values, sensation-seeking personality, and social class.
In summary, this literature review chapter resulted in a theoretical framework that was used as a foundation to create a model to predict intention and stage of readiness to be involved in VT as indicated in Figure 2.6.

The following chapter (Chapter Three) describes the research methodology used in the qualitative phase of this study.
Chapter three
Research methodology: qualitative stage

3.1. Chapter overview

The previous chapter presented the literature review and discussed the fields of tourism, volunteerism, and volunteer tourism (VT). The literature review guided the development of the theoretical framework and led to the selection of appropriate methods of data collections. The purpose of this chapter is to describe the research methodology used in this study. A mixed methods approach, comprising qualitative and quantitative approaches, was chosen to address the research objectives. The methods for the qualitative study are presented in this chapter, while Chapter Six presents the methods for the quantitative study.

This chapter, addresses the overall research approach and presents definitions and a justification for the author’s choice of approach; it provides an overview of the research process, and discusses the qualitative data collection methods (focus groups, in-depth interviews, and email interviews); the respondent criteria and respondent recruitment methods, the question guide, data analysis methods, and finally presents a conclusion.

3.2. The mixed methods approach

To achieve the objectives of the study, as presented in 1.6, the author combined qualitative and quantitative methods for data collections and analysis. In the literature, this approach is categorised as a mixed methods research (Driscoll et al., 2007; N.L. Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009; Morse, 2003; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The rational for applying this method, after reviewing the literature on VT, was to ensure a more comprehensive understanding of all the variables potentially impacting VT, such as attitude, psychographic characteristics (personality, lifestyle, and social class), intention, constraints, past experiences, and stage of readiness.
After reviewing 19 definitions of ‘mixed methods research’ from the literature, the definition by Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, and Turner (2007, p. 123) was selected to define the method for this study:

The type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference technique for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding) and corroboration.

Teddlel and Tashakkori (2003, pp. 14-15) identified the benefits of a mixed methods research, by stating it “can answer research questions that the other methodologies cannot; provides better (stronger) inferences; provides the opportunity for presenting a greater diversity of divergent views.” Furthermore, Creswell et al. (2003, p. 212) stated that the two methods – qualitative and quantitative – can complement each other:

A mixed methods study involves the collection or analysis of both quantitative and/or qualitative data in a single study in which the data are collected concurrently or sequentially, are given a priority, and involve the integration of the data at one or more stages in the process of research.

When conducting a mixed methods study, there are three types of analytical approaches that may be taken: parallel, sequential, and supplemental (Teddlel & Tashakkori, 2003). As shown in Figure 3.1 below, this study was designed as a sequential mixed methods because one stage was conducted after the other stage was completed (Creswell et al., 2003; Morse, 2003). Furthermore, results of stage one of this study were used to develop the measurement instrument for stage two.

For this study, a mixed-methods approach was considered particularly important. Specifically, it was felt that a wholly quantitative methodology was not appropriate for this study, as it has been argued in previous studies that a purely quantitative approach “rarely captures the subtleties of the tourism experience” [McIntosh, 1998, p. 121]. Indeed, through quantitative analysis, “the subtleties of the nature of tourism as a subjective and personal experience and events are lost” [McIntosh, 1998,
This study wished to incorporate qualitative approaches to complement the empirical rigour provided from the quantitative data, as it was considered important to explore the personal, rich, and subjective narratives of individual’s volunteer, tourism, and VT experiences.

3.3. Overview of the research process

Figure 3.1 below shows that the research process used in this study consisted of two stages: stage one – qualitative and stage two – quantitative. In Chapter Two, a review of the literature on tourism, volunteerism, and VT, has been presented. This developed the initial theoretical framework.

Multiple data collection techniques were applied in stage one: focus groups, in-depth interviews, and email interviews. The output of the stage one study was analysed, and the results, along with the existing literature, were used to develop the stage two instrument. These parts are described in this chapter.

A pilot study was undertaken to contextualise and refine the quantitative instrument. This resulted in a revised final questionnaire. The quantitative data collection was conducted via a web-based survey. The results of the survey were analysed using SPSS (version 20) and Amos (version 20) statistical software.
An information letter was provided to all respondents before the interviews and survey were conducted. For those who provided their email addresses, information was sent to their email accounts prior to the interviews. The objective of this study, the questions, and the respondents’ rights were discussed with the respondent’s prior to the commencement of the qualitative data gathering processes. A consent letter was also provided to ensure participants understood all of the conditions. Furthermore, all ethics applications were approved by the ECU ethics committee.

3.4. Qualitative data collection methods

Predominantly, studies on VT have used a qualitative approach with various data collection methods. Table 3.1 below shows the data collection methods applied by prior researchers on VT and acknowledges their contributions: for focus groups (S. Brown, 2005; Lo & Lee, 2010) and for personal interviews (S. Brown, 2005; Lepp, 2008; McIntosh & Zahra, 2007; Sin, 2009). This thesis applied multiple methods, a mix of focus groups, in-depth interviews, and email interviews. These multiple-methods allowed the author to combine and complement certain advantages and
cover ameliorate certain disadvantages of each technique (Bryman, 2006; Darbyshire, MacDougall, & Schiller, 2005).

Example of the advantages of focus groups include interaction among participants (Mas & Morawczynski, 2009); the advantages of in-depth interviews include allowing researchers to interview respondents deeply and explore additional and experiential information (McCormack, 2004; Powell & Single, 1996); the advantages of email interviews are providing a chance for a researcher “to include isolated, geographically dispersed and/or stigmatised groups who are often overlooked or ignored” (McCoyd & Kerson, 2006, p. 389). On the other hand, the disadvantages of focus groups, such as time limitation, distance barrier because the session needs participants to travel, and time consuming in analysing the collected data (Mas & Morawczynski, 2009); the disadvantages of in-depth interviews, such as researchers and respondents discuss something out of the planned questions (Powell & Single, 1996); and the email interviews will make researchers miss an “emotional reaction, dress, and setting information” (McCoyd & Kerson, 2006, p. 403) of the participants.

Table 3.1 Data collection methods in qualitative studies in VT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Data collection methods</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kees, 2011</td>
<td>The geography of volunteer tourism: Place matters</td>
<td>Telephone interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conran, 2011</td>
<td>They really love me! Intimacy in volunteer tourism</td>
<td>Participant observation, semi-structured interview.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yoda, 2010</td>
<td>Volunteer tourism in Japan: its potential in transforming “non-volunteers” to volunteers</td>
<td>Questionnaire, face-to-face interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lo &amp; Lee, 2010</td>
<td>Motivations and perceived value of volunteer tourists from Hong Kong</td>
<td>Focus groups, personal interviews.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sin, 2009</td>
<td>Volunteer tourism – “Involve me and I will learn”?</td>
<td>Participant observation, semi structured one-to-one interviews.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broad &amp; Jenkins, 2008</td>
<td>Gibbons in their midst? Conservation volunteers’ motivations at the Gibbon Rehabilitation Project</td>
<td>Participant observation, open-ended semi-structured in-depth interviews, research journal, on line questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lepp, 2008</td>
<td>Discovering self and discovering others through the Taita Discovery Centre Volunteer Tourism Programme, Kenya</td>
<td>Interviews, evaluation forms, open-ended online questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McIntosh &amp; Zahra, 2007</td>
<td>A cultural encounter through volunteer tourism: towards the ideals of sustainable tourism?</td>
<td>In-depth interviews, diaries, participant observation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brown, 2005</td>
<td>Travelling with a purpose: understanding the motives and benefits of volunteer vacationers</td>
<td>Focus groups, in-depth personal interviews</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Focus groups

According to Kitzinger (1995, p. 299) a focus group is beneficial to explore “people’s knowledge and experience and can be used to examine not only what people think but how they think and why they think that way.” The focus groups in this study were used to ensure that the synergy generated within the groups discussing VT could be utilised to explore fully the perceptions and experiences of participants.

The focus groups were held at both campuses of Edith Cowan University in 2011: Joondalup and Mount Lawley (in Western Australia). The first session was held on 19 July at Joondalup campus with six participants and the second session was conducted on 26 July with a further six participants. According to Powel and Single (1996), Kitzinger (1995), and Krueger and Casey (2009), six participants in a group is considered adequate to gather information. The third session was organised on 30 July at Mount Lawley campus, with three participants attending. The participation number of the third session, indeed, was not supported by prior researchers (Kitzinger, 1995; Krueger & Casey, 2009; Powell & Single, 1996). However, as indicated by Pugsley (1996), and Redmond and Curtis (2009) the number of participant is not as important as the information obtained. Further, Morgan (1997) claimed that three participants in a session could be adequate for a focus group. In total, there were 15 respondents involved in the focus groups. The focus groups were tape-recorded and transcribed into NVivo (Welsh, 2002a) for analysis. The duration of each session varied, from 60 to 90 minutes. A $20 shopping voucher was given to each participant as compensation for their travel costs and time.

After reviewing the focus group transcripts, the author assessed that there was potential unexplored information evident during the focus groups. For this reason, two other qualitative data collection techniques were added: in-depth interviews and email interviews.
In-depth interviews

The second method for collecting data was in-depth interviews. This method was introduced especially to examine more deeply examine topics that remained unexplored in the focus groups. Salmons (2009, p. 63) defined an in-depth interview as “a qualitative research technique involving a researcher who guides or questions a participant to elicit information, perspectives, insights, feelings on behaviours, experiences or phenomena that cannot be observed.” Guion, Diell, and McDonald (2011) stated the characteristics of an in-depth interview are open ended questions, semi-structured format, seeking understanding and interpretation, and recording responses.

After the focus groups results were reviewed, during September 2011, 15 in-depth interviews were held in convenient places as approved by respondents, such as in libraries, classrooms, offices, parks, restaurants, and respondents’ houses. One of the respondents had been involved in a focus group previously.

Before the interviews, respondents were informed about the objective of the study, the topics to be discussed, and their right to discontinue the interviews. Respondents were advised to sign a consent form. The interviews ran from 45 to 90 minutes for each interviewee. The focus groups were mainly driven to explore respondents’ attitude toward the concept of VT, subjective norms, intention, motivation, and constraints to be involved in VT as well as perception towards a volunteer tourist characteristics.

Fifteen respondents were predominantly recruited by the chain referral sampling method (information about this method is presented in the respondent recruitment techniques section) and a small number was recruited via an online resource (Perth.Gumtree.com), printed posters, and the ECU postgraduate mailing list.
Email interviews

Researchers have considered email-facilitated interviews as an alternative for a data collection as this method “increases inclusiveness of research data and provides an opportunity for people who would otherwise be excluded to have their say” (Ison, 2009, p. 170). Besides, email interviews can cope with some barriers in collecting data, such as geography, cost, convenient, privacy, authenticity, ethics, time, and risk of misunderstanding (Benford & Standen, 2011; Cook, 2011; Egan, Chenoweth, & McAuliffe, 2006; Ison, 2009; James & Busher, 2007, 2009). Three samples were resulted from this method of data collection.

3.5. Qualitative respondent criteria

For recruiting the respondents in the stage one study, the following conditions were stated: (a) respondents needed to have had some experience in VT, in a domestic or international venue; and/or (b) they needed to have had experience as an international volunteer. An international volunteer is a skilled individual who give a voluntary service internationally involving a sender and/or host organisation (profit or non-profit organisation, or even a government body), with duration within a week up to years, and unpaid or little paid (Dias & McKee, 2010; Hobbs, 2007; Lough, McBride, & Sherraden, 2009; McBride & Lough, 2010; Tarazi & Breloff, 2010).

In this study, international volunteers included those who had acted as a paid volunteer overseas and those who had lived overseas as an employee, student or something other and undertaken volunteering. Those who had been involved in an international volunteering event, in either a domestic or international venue, were also included (Baum & Lockstone, 2007).

Interestingly, almost all respondents who claimed they had experience as an international volunteer had never heard of the term ‘VT’. Respondents had volunteered in Thailand, India, and Vanuatu, and had also participated tourism activities in the locations where they worked as a volunteer.
3.6. **Respondent recruitment techniques**

There were two different non-probability sampling methods applied to recruit respondents for the stage one study: the convenience sampling method (Castillo, 2009; Collins, Onwuegbuzie, & Jiao, 2006) and the chain referral sampling method (K. Browne, 2005; Faugier & Sargeant, 2007). All these methods were applied to recruit respondents for focus groups, in-depth interviews, and email interviews. These are discussed in the following paragraphs.

**Convenience and chain referral sampling**

Respondents from various backgrounds were approached to participate via a convenience sampling method (Castillo, 2009). As a result, the study attracted respondents with a wide range of backgrounds, age group, marital status, and occupation. Indeed, the study benefitted by this condition and obtained rich information from each respondent. Due to the timeframe conditions and a lack of participants turning up when it was anticipated that they would, a referral system was also used to recruit participants.

The chain referral sampling (otherwise called snowball sampling) led to hidden potential respondents with certain characteristics as required for this study (K. Browne, 2005). The author asked friends and faculty staff to ‘find’ potential respondents who matched the criteria: experienced as a volunteer tourists and/or international volunteer.

Faugier and Sargeant (2007, p. 792) discussed that snowball sampling is an effective option if the study “offers clear practical advantages in obtaining information on difficult-to-observe phenomena”. As such, it was determined an appropriate sampling method for this research, due to the difficulty experienced in locating enough participants with volunteering experience either volunteer tourists or international volunteers.
3.7. Qualitative question guide

The theoretical framework presented in the conclusion of the literature review chapter led to the development of questions for both the qualitative and quantitative research phases. A semi-structured interview outline was used in all three qualitative research methods: focus groups, in-depth interviews, and email interviews. Each question was carefully and deliberately designed, for instance by addressing evaluation, context, process, prediction, and symbolism (Thomas, 2003).

1) Evaluation: evalulative questions were used to explore respondents’ past experience in tourism, volunteering, and VT (Huang & Hsu, 2009; S. J. Lee, 2011).

2) Context: respondents were asked to express their attitudes on the concept of VT (S. J. Lee, 2011; Renganathan & Samundeeswari, 2011).

3) Process: respondents were prompted to explain how they had been involved in VT (Budd, 2012; Wearing, 2001).

4) Prediction: a predictive question was developed to explore the intention to become involved in VT in the future (S. J. Lee, 2011). Respondents who expressed an intention to volunteer were asked about their motivation, whereas those who expressed no intention were asked to explain their constraints (A. Benson & Seibert, 2009; Gage & Thapa, 2011; Sparks & Pan, 2009; Wearing, 2001).

5) Symbolism: respondents were asked how adventurous they were, followed by a request to describe their perceptions of a volunteer tourist’s characteristics (Anderson, 1970; Galley & Clifton, 2010; Gilchrist et al., 1995; Wymer Jr. et al., 2010). A projective technique was used to explore the symbolic nature of the perceived characteristics (Donoghue, 2010; Steinman, 2008; Will, Eadie, & MacAskill, 1996).

3.8. Perceived characteristics of volunteer tourists

The three focus groups participants were asked to perceive characteristics of a volunteer tourist. The author employed projective techniques or third person techniques (Klopfer, 1973; Will et al., 1996) to use a ‘third person’ as stimuli to
explore information from the respondents. The author chose ‘association technique’ (Will et al., 1996) to set respondents free associating a volunteer tourist characteristics.

In the process of data collection, each respondent was provided with a bundle of *Post It* sticky papers and a pen. Respondents were asked to write a characteristic on a colourful piece of sticky paper. After a while, a big picture of human body anatomy was hung on the wall. The anatomy was divided into eight parts: head (including face and brain), chest (including heart and shoulders), stomach, genital area, left leg, left hand, right leg, and right hand. The next instruction was to ask respondents to stick the sticky paper on the body anatomy picture. They were advised to locate each characteristic on the part of the body that represented the characteristic the best. The questions for the focus groups are presented in Appendix 2.

The author acted as a moderator during the focus groups. To create the discussion environment as casual as possible, he provided water, candies, and chocolate bars to be consumed for all participants during the sessions. Besides the human body picture and *Post It* sticky paper as mentioned earlier, for some other questions, participants were stimulated by a certain tool: a bundle of volunteering activities pictures was used to address a question relating to past experience in volunteering; and two paper flags for each respondent were used for a question about intention to be involved in VT—they had to wag a blue flag if they had an intention and a red flag if they had no intention.

Providing drinks and snacks as well as using tools for questioning were considered as an effective way to run focus groups. Even though the age of participants ranged from early twenties to late fifties, there were no difficulties in building rapport amongst the group. The participants were actively participating, engaged with one and another, and were impressed with the sessions. To facilitate discussion, when presenting questions, the author avoided asking the participants in a certain order; for example, from the left to the right side or from the right to the left side. Indeed, the author chose a respondent randomly. This method made all respondents interested throughout the focus group. Another approach applied to avoid losing the
interest of participants was by creating synergy between participants’ discussion; for example, when Mr X disagreed with the concept of VT, Mrs Y was selected to respond Mr X’s response before she was asked for her own opinion.

In general, based on the author’s observation, most participants enjoyed the focus groups. Even, after around 60 minutes when the focus groups ended, most of participants were still in the room having conversations. They interacted with one and another and realised they had common interests (such as hobbies, activities, and plans), they exchanged phone numbers and email addresses.

3.9. Qualitative data analysis method

As previously indicated, all the focus groups and in-depth interviews were recorded and transcribed. Ritchie and Spencer (2002) discussed how the aim of qualitative data analysis is to define, categorise, theorise, explain, explore, and map data.

On Table 3.1 (see above), the author listed examples of studies on volunteer tourism with various data collection methods. These included Lo and Lee (2010) who combined focus groups and personal interviews methods and Broad and Jenkins (2008) who combined participant observation, open-ended semi structured in-depth interviews, research journal, and online questions methods. However, those authors did not clarify and justify how the different data sets were merged and analysed. In this study, the author chose focus groups, in-depth interviews, and email interviews. The author realised that merging three different sets of data may be arguable as every method had different deep of exploration, nuance, mood, and technique of probing. As the main focus of all of the methods was to explore as much as possible information relating to VT experiences, the author more concerned on the findings after considering that all data sets were all important and compliment one and another.

Furthermore, the collected data were analysed utilising classical content analysis method. The transcriptions of focus groups and in-depth interviews, along with the email interviews data were merged and imported into NVivo (version 10), ready for
data analysis. Ozkan (2004) noted the following benefits to be gained from using NVivo: it is an easy-to-use program; it is useful for organising and coding all types of materials; it is easy to explore data for many purposes (e.g. for creating relationships); it is efficient; and it is beneficial for developing a rigorous database to be analysed. Precisely for these reasons, NVivo program was used not only to analysis the transcription from the qualitative phase of this research (Andrew, Salamonson, & Halcomb, 2008; Auld et al., 2007; Bergin, 2011; N. L. Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2011), but also for data management (Auld et al., 2007; Bazeley, 2007; Welsh, 2002b), data coding (Basit, 2003; Bazeley, 2007; Siccama & Penna, 2008; Welsh, 2002b), and enhancing data validity (Siccama & Penna, 2008).

3.10. Summary of chapter three

This chapter has discussed the qualitative methods used in this study, as part the sequential mixed methods approach. Data described in Chapter Three were collected through focus groups, in-depth interviews, and email interviews. These three methods were applied because although VT has been studied by many scholars, but there are limited studies on attitude, subjective norms, intention, constraints, and characteristics of volunteer tourists relating to VT. Using these three methods allowed the author to gather information and personal stories of respondents as much as possible, across themes, and across contexts. Another reason using these methods was because lack of respondents to participate in the focus groups, therefore in-depth interviews and email interviews were applied too.

The following two chapters describe the results of the qualitative study. Chapter Four presents past experiences in tourism, volunteering, and VT, and Chapter Five presents attitude towards the concept of VT, word of mouth referral, motivation, constraints, and psychographic characteristics of a volunteer tourist.
Chapter four
Past experiences in holidaying, volunteering, and volunteer tourism

4.1. Introduction

The results of the qualitative study are presented in two chapters: Chapter Four explains the respondents, respondents’ past experiences in holidaying (faces of holidaying), in volunteering, and in volunteer tourism (VT); Chapter Five explains respondents’ attitude towards the concept of VT, subjective norms, intention and stage of readiness, and the psychographic characteristics of a volunteer tourist, as well as the motivations and constraints to be involved in VT. All results were produced from the stage one study using focus groups, in-depth interviews, and email interviews methods, involving 33 respondents.

Respondents’ past experiences in holidaying as well as in volunteering and in VT are described, both in domestic and overseas locations or destinations. For respondents’ past experiences in tourism, their purposes for taking a holiday are emphasised; for their past experiences in volunteerism, aspects of voluntary work were identified based on the characteristics of voluntary work found in the results; and for their past experiences in VT, activities before and during the journeys were explored.

The subjective and narrative elements of thesis VT experience are presented in Chapter Four and Chapter Five to give research participants a voice, through their words. In general, results of the qualitative study are significant as a lead to the quantitative phase. These indicate that to be involved in VT, participants needed a long and slow decision process. The results also show that VT needs a high involvement from all participants. Further, these findings are relevant to the importance to predict intention and stage of readiness to be involved in VT. Particularly, results mentioned in this chapter was important driving the author to
questions related to past experiences in tourism, volunteering, and volunteer
tourism, particularly on frequency, destination, and methods of travel.

This chapter commences with information about the respondents’ characteristics:
gender, nationality, country of residence, age group, level of education, marital
status, and employment status.

4.2. About the respondents

In total, 32 respondents participated in this stage (Table 4.1): 15 respondents
participated in focus groups, 15 respondents participated in in-depth interviews, and
three respondents took part in email interviews. One of the respondents
participated in both in a focus group and in-depth interview. The author used
pseudonyms for a confidentiality purpose and considers the flow of the story.
Further, Information about how these respondents were recruited was presented in
Chapter Three.

Although a balance of gender was sort, slightly more respondents were female (20 of
32 participants). Together, the participants represented eight different nationalities,
with Australians dominating with 14 participants. Other nationalities included
Chinese (six participants), Indonesians (six participants), Thai (two participants),
Ghanaian (one participant), Malaysian (two participants), Indian (one participant),
and British (one participant). Participants in the youngest age group were from the
18-20 years old (one participant) group and the oldest age group was over 56 years
of age (eight participants). Most respondents held a degree (29 participants), one
had a trade qualification, and two had graduated from upper secondary school.

Predominantly respondents were married/de facto (20 participants); with one
participant separated and 12 never married. Eight of the participants stated they
were students (under-graduate and post-graduate). In addition, overall the
respondent groups had a mix of full time employment (13 participants), part-time
employment (six participants) or performed casual work (seven participants), with
two respondents being unemployed and the remainder being full time students.
Furthermore, 14 participants had experience as an international volunteer, whereas 19 participants had experience as a volunteer tourist. Characteristics of an international volunteer were explained in Chapter Three (see 3.5).

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Lolita</td>
<td>Australian; female; &gt;56; separated; professional; part time; completed a degree; volunteer tourist;</td>
<td>In-depth interview</td>
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<td>Anita</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Jemima</td>
<td>Australian; female; &gt;56; married; retired; completed a degree; volunteer tourist;</td>
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<td>Denise</td>
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<td>In-depth interview</td>
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<td>Liam</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>Ally*</td>
<td>Australian; female; 50 - 55; married; professional; full time; completed a degree; international volunteer and international volunteer;</td>
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<td>Ginger</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>Tio</td>
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<td>17</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>Devi</td>
<td>Indonesian; female; 30 - 35; never married; unemployed; completed a degree; volunteer tourist;</td>
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Order of identity: Name (alias), nationality, sex-group of age, marital status, occupation (multiple), occupation status, education level completed, and volunteer tourist/international volunteer.
Continued. Table 4.2 Respondents’ characteristics

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Order of identity: Name (alias), nationality, sex-group of age, marital status, occupation (multiple), occupation status, education level completed, and volunteer tourist/international volunteer.

4.3. The faces of holidaying

This section outlines the purposes respondents gave for taking a holiday. When respondents were asked about the most recent holiday they had taken in the last three years, they responded with information about destinations, activities, timing, the people they travelled with, feelings, and purposes of taking a holiday. The
objective of this section is to explore respondents’ past experiences in tourism and firmly that VT was part of these experiences.

In this section, the author identifies seven purposes respondents talked about in taking a holiday: holiday for holiday’s sake, visiting family and/or friends, spiritual nourishment, volunteering, attending a conference, visiting one’s home town, and watching a performance. These are each discussed in the following paragraphs.

4.3.1. Holiday for holiday’s sake
Some people just wanted to avoid the winter months at their home. Those who live in a country with four seasons typically wait for summer to take their holiday. But winter can also be a good time for a holiday. Senior traveller Fang travelled from China to Victoria, Australia, for a holiday – just for a holiday.

We were in Hawthorne Mountain for the skiing and we did horse riding. That is the best kind of holiday we have taken for a long time. We have not seen a lot of things [in our lives]. [We] just would go and go. We just ate in the restaurants, and stayed in the hotels. We didn’t care about the credit card.

Fang was excited about her holiday. She was not alone, travelling with her husband. During the trip, she was also accompanied by his son, who lived in Australia, and a couple of old Australian friends. So there was also the connection of catching up with relatives and friends. This dual purpose was common.

“This year we have just returned from India”, Jake said. He and Lorna, his wife, had two purposes for visiting India. The first purpose was to holiday, “to tour and to see northern India” and the second purpose was to see their friends. “We had not been able to see them last time and this time we were able to stay with them”. Previously, this couple were involved in a volunteering project in India. Lorna and Jake met and became close to a family in Bangalore.

We went to the same family and the same area we were at [on a previous trip]. We visited the school we had volunteered at the previous year and reacquainted ourselves with all the people there and all the changes that had happened in the meantime and made contact with several people there to see if we could send them anything they might need.
Jake described their holiday itinerary in detail. They were holidaying for the sake of having a holiday but also to reminisce about a previous trip/volunteer work and maintain links with the project. They had a keen interest and fascination with India. They visited New Delhi and other cities like Agra, Jodhpur, and Barhapur, to see the wildlife. Jake and Lorna also spent some time in Varanasi, Darjeeling, Calcutta, and Bangalore. “We went to Bangalore where our friends live and we spent ten days with them. From Bangalore we went to Goa and stayed for three days and then went to Mumbai for one night and flew back to Perth”.

One participant, Anny, expressed pure ‘holiday for the sake of a holiday’, she was a postgraduate student: “[At] Christmas, I went to Bundaberg and Stradbroke Island”. Anny said it was, “Only a vacation with my boyfriend; just tourism activities. So, I went and watched. We just went to the beach and hung out and went out for dinner, just relaxed”. When the author asked how she found her recent past holiday, she said: “It was excellent. The weather was perfect, the beach was beautiful, Stradbroke Island National Park was nice. It was lovely”.

4.3.2. Holiday for visiting family and friends

Amar was a professional at a university in Perth, Western Australia (WA). As this city is very isolated from big cities in other parts of Australia, visiting Canberra, Melbourne, Brisbane, and Sydney was a dream to realise for him. He explained.

I have been to Sydney once. I visited my half-brother there. So it was kind of holidaying for me as well. I took some time off from the work which was just before the semester so I can start fresh when the semester starts. I spent a good time with him.

Originally, Amar was from India. He had not seen his brother for a long time, so he took a holiday to visit him.

The main purpose was to catch up with him [his brother] because after coming to Australia it was practically the first visit to Sydney just to catch up with him. So there was a reason behind the holidaying thing. And certainly Sydney is a big city. I mean, I would love to go back and see the big city
because I basically come from Mumbai so that kind of vibration brings me back a certain feeling like when I was in Mumbai, kind of.

For Amar, holidaying in Sydney was nostalgic. The characteristics of Sydney reminded him of his home town, Mumbai. However, he mentioned a few things in Sydney he was unable to do in Mumbai, such as “I climbed the Sydney Harbour Bridge. That was fun. Then we had a good time around Darling Harbour, watched some movies around Sydney Max”. Amar loved the holiday and wished to revisit Sydney in the future: “It was a good holiday moment I think”.

Cities, especially the big ones, have been developed to attract people and urban tourism has been created to make people adore cities more and more (Landry, 2012). Even for international student Leah, who came from metropolitan Hong Kong, visiting cities in the Eastern part of Australia was an unforgettable moment.

“It was back in February last year, right before the semester started”. Leah recalled her experience. “My family actually would come [from Hong Kong to Australia] every year around Feb”. There were two reasons why people from Hong Kong travel in February. First, February is a cold month because Hong Kong lies in the sub-tropical zone. Second, there is Chinese New Year when people love to greet and celebrate. “They come every year so every time we visit the Gold Coast. That’s their favourite summer beach holiday while Hong Kong is cold. They came here to enjoy the sun”. For Leah and her family, the Gold Coast is not the only destination: “Last year we visited Sydney and Melbourne and Canberra”. Leah and her family selected Australia as a meeting point for their family reunion.

Ally was very enthusiastic telling her story. She visited her parents-in-law to celebrate their birthdays. Celebrating birthday has different cultural values. Ally commented:

My last holiday finished yesterday. It was a family event. My husband’s family comes from Dongara which is about 400 kilometres north from Perth. My husband’s parents are 90 years and 80 years and they had a big birthday party. So the whole family, there were about a hundred people who drove up and stayed up in Dongara. All over Western Australia and eastern states, people actually flew over. And so we got together for the weekend really just to celebrate because they’re very old now.
Ally has been active as a volunteer in many organisations. So, meeting her large extended family was not overwhelming, it made her happy. She showed her creative ability to the host and all guests by creating memories for them – the memories in the form of photographs of the event and the relationships within the group at the three day event. Ally stated:

One of the things that I delight in doing is taking photos. I just go around and take photos and this is a really good opportunity to take photos of the cousins and the grandparents and the people from outside of Dongara, and the young people and old people. I’m putting it together in a book for them, and I got everybody to write down a comment to help me record that and make a photographic book for them of the event, because usually this family only gets together at funerals. And so this birthday party is a little bit different. Yeah, I love family and I love getting together and doing, you know, I was baking, making cakes, and feeding people. We had to do breakfast and people were always coming and going. Yeah, it was really, really good. So it was a lovely three-day holiday.

Liam, who was a senior doctor who had participated in many international volunteer projects, took a vacation to visit a friend. He flew from Perth, Western Australia to Queensland. “I went to Queensland to visit a very dear friend who is a past president of Rotary to celebrate his 90th birthday. I just went up there and wished him a happy birthday, and came home again”. Obviously, the closeness of Liam to the person he visited made the long distance unimportant; the 90th birthday was a meaningful event to motivate the travel.

The next story came from Tio. He was a bit shy when talking about his most recent birthday. Tio was from Indonesia, a postgraduate student. He brought his family along to live in Western Australia during his study period. Tio mentioned that probably he had had no vacation for a long time because he was busy and struggling with his PhD research project. He doubted that his experience of taking a vacation within the Perth metropolitan area could be counted. The author encouraged him to share whatever he had done. A holiday is not just about destination, is it? Tio, used
the holiday space he created at home to reconnect with his family. So he called it a holiday (the absence of work for him).

I’m a full time PhD student. So I have no holiday basically, no holiday. But during the primary school break, my children forced me to have a holiday. So I regard the last school break as my holiday – two weeks break. I focused on my children instead. We went to a family picnic to make family fun. We also went to the Zoo and Scitech.

One respondent, Poy discussed that the purpose of her holiday was for spiritual nourishment. This is elaborated in the following section.

4.3.3. Holiday for spiritual nourishment

Poy was an international student from Thailand, busy with her research project at the time of this study. Poy was active in a Buddhist Centre in Perth, Western Australia, and involved in voluntary works regularly. When the question about the most recent vacation came up, she reported: “I went to the retreat to do my own practice, to do meditation”. Poy considered that the retreat was her ‘holiday’. Again, the holiday perception was due to the change of pace and break from normal work related duties, resulting in the holiday description or label for the activity.

As a postgraduate student, Poy’s religious activities helped her balance her life. “[It was a] fabulous experience to do this activity. Because you can feel peaceful, calm and enjoy the place, activities and good people”. By being active in this kind of place, she could socialise with friends and make new friends. “I went there alone but even my friends go together. We can't talk to each other anyway [during the meditation]. However, after that I have met about 60 good people there and some became my friends later”.

4.3.4. Holiday for volunteering

Volunteering was another purpose for taking a holiday or vacation. Jemima and her husband chose Kerala to work with a poor community overseas. “We had a week in
Kerala, which is in the south-west of India. That was a pure holiday. We took a package tour and we volunteered for four weeks and then we had the one-week holiday”. Kerala is one of the states in India in which more than 50% of the population are Hindus. This state is rich in history, from Neolithic to Western, including Portuguese and Dutch heritages. Kerala is perfect for doing a volunteer tourism project because poverty (volunteer projects) and tourist attractions exist side by side.

Vida was another respondent who undertook volunteering in conjunction with a holiday. She was from Jakarta. After quitting a serious job, she started to focus on her own enterprise and also became active as a philanthropist. She did fundraising and asked many people to be involved. In one community she volunteered to assist conventional farmers who had become earthquake disaster victims. This was in 2010, in Yogyakarta Province. Vida said this was a holiday for her. Besides, she used that trip as an extension of her philanthropy, to ensure that “the donations that we collect are properly managed”. She explained that the donations were used for seeds and fertilisers for the farmers. She also spent some time to “hang out with friends while monitoring the progress”. When she was younger, she lived in Yogyakarta pursuing her bachelor degree. So, visiting Yogyakarta might also be nostalgic and allow her to meet up with her old friends. Vida presented an interesting scenario, her motives were multilayered and complex and highlight the complexity of motivations that underpin volunteer tourism.

4.3.5. Holiday for business

Another purpose for taking a vacation was demonstrated by international student Tony who went to Germany for a student conference. He shared his story: “I had a conference just two months ago in Germany. It was a nine-day conference”. Tony was in his early twenties. He wrote a paper, sent it to the committee of a world youth conference, and was accepted and eligible for free tickets, accommodation, and a tour. “I spent the next four days travelling half way across Germany. So Frankfurt, Berlin and all the smaller towns – [are] just across what used to be Eastern Germany”.

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Attending the conference and presenting his paper were his main purpose for going to Germany. After accomplishing the mission, there was a bonus waiting: a few days of touring. It was his first experience visiting a European country.

4.3.6. Holiday for visiting one’s hometown

Another purpose for holidaying or vacationing is to visit one’s home town. People leave their home towns to seek goals that they might fulfil at different locations throughout the world. It may be for a short term, or a long term; it may be for working, or for studying. They leave for a reason, for a season, or forever. And later there may be a chance to return to one’s home town for a holiday. Such a holiday may be a collection of many activities: holidaying, undertaking a pilgrimage, and visiting family or friends.

International student Liza was from Malaysia, a single mother of seven children. Yes, seven children! She remembered her last vacation vividly. “My recent holiday, it was back in Malaysia with my children. We went to Sarawak, into the rural areas actually, but along the way there are lots of other places that we dropped by”. For Liza, visiting home country was to heal her home sick after a while living in Australia. Besides, she wanted her children keep remembering the country where they belonged and the root of their culture and heritage.

Tere was from China, another international student. Each year she went to a new place for holidaying. For Tere, the cost of travelling overseas was not a problem. When the author interviewed her, she was waiting for a visa approval from the New Zealand Embassy. She was planning to visit NZ before the winter ended, before she left Australia for good. She loved travelling abroad. Previously, Tere had taken a vacation to Tanzania. However, visiting her home country was her most frequent trip. She went first to China, then to Taiwan.

I have been to Taiwan because my mother wanted to go there. I just went there to accompany her to Macau. I went to a town with my friend, just like a day trip because it’s quite close to my home town. So I went there in the morning and then came back in the afternoon, so it’s quite quick. It’s just like short trip to have some gathering of my friends in another place.
Historically, Taiwan was a part of China. Tere saw a few things in common with these two countries. However, Tere noticed differences that made her excited and interested about the visit and the culture of the place.

You know that actually, yeah, both Chinese, although we have different nationality, but we basically speak the same language. But when you are there, because of some political reasons, some things you cannot say. It is suggested by the tourist guide: ‘Please don’t speak politics in Taiwan. It’s not good.’

Susie was also from China. Recently, she visited her home country China because it was the destination of a study tour conducted by her university.

I went back to China with a group of students from ECU [Edith Cowan University]. Actually it’s a study tour partly subsidised by the uni. I got a $1,500 subsidy, but the rest of the other expenses like airline tickets or food we needed to pay by ourselves.

Susie benefitted by gaining a discounted price and she was also intrigued by her experience in guiding the team. She was a participant but also helped the tour committee to give an understanding about China to other the participants. This explained her subsidy.

It’s a nice experience, you know, going back to your own country with a group of people from other cultural backgrounds like Indians, Australians; they’re curious about everything that you take for granted, so you need to explain to them why it’s this, why it’s that.

Another home visit experience was reported by Noel and Denise, husband and wife. They left their international volunteer jobs in Indonesia for two weeks to visit Perth, their home town. “We are now, actually [on holiday], we are home here on Perth just for a holiday”. Noel explained his reason for visiting Perth for a holiday.

[We are] working in Indonesia to set up a new, but different, branch of the school from scratch has been a very tiring (exhausting) experience. After that we felt we just needed to go somewhere where there would be no pressure,
no important decisions to make, and where we would be completely immersed in doing casual things in a place we knew well. 'Home' was the obvious choice.

Working for a long term far away from home will make anyone tired. Noel and Denise needed a break.

Surprisingly, we also needed a break from working with the English speakers we had employed to teach at the school. They had no previous experience in working in a culture like Indonesia, and they tended to be very demanding and critical of the way things are done here – still are, unfortunately. We have found this to be a common trait with expats. Perhaps we were like this too when we first came to Indonesia – not sure about that – but we have now become part of the cultural ethos and have learned the benefits of working with, rather than against, the flow of things.

So for Noel and Denise it was back to Perth, back to the orderliness. But, surprisingly, it was another culture shock. Noel confronted his feelings:

To some extent, it was good to just relax in the place we know best with the special people we love. The thing that hit me most is the absolute cleanliness of our home city. There was no rubbish and almost no unkempt buildings. Also, the orderliness of everything, particularly driving. We found people to be genuine in meeting with us again after a long time – many had made special efforts, like lunch or afternoon tea. That was great. Mind you, towards the latter days of our stay we were quite looking forward to coming 'home' to Palembang because we missed the closeness of working with our Indonesian colleagues.

Noel described what he and Denise, his wife, did during their visits: some casual things.

We had no business to conduct, so, except for dental appointments, the time was ours to do as we pleased. It was spent mainly in visiting long-standing friends and families. That was the most enjoyable part of our stay. Everything was as we had left it – no change. Basically, we just relaxed; occasionally we walked around the shopping centres, but just bought day-to-day necessities, nothing of any consequence, really. Of course, we selected some ‘oleh-oleh’ [souvenir] for our return to Palembang. We didn't set out to achieve anything. In other words, a no-stress holiday in a place we knew well.
Noel and Denise felt that they didn’t have to have a particular reason to visit their home town. This activity, according to them, was just for away from their daily routine. The visit was a ‘break’ from their volunteer work and a place to relax and distress. Even though they were visiting their hometown, they called it a holiday, by leaving their work behind.

4.3.7. Holiday for watching a performance

Another purpose for taking a holiday may be watching a performance. Devi experienced this. From Jakarta, she flew to Singapore to watch The Lion King the musical. But the performance was not her only activity: “We explored the city by visiting museums, the Armenian Church, cathedral, mosque, tasting the street food, exploring the flea market, going to common tourist sites”. “Besides”, Devi continued. “I’ve never been to Singapore before. I had the time and a friend to go with”.

Everyone had a driving purpose to take a holiday: holiday for holiday’s sake, visiting family and/or friends, spiritual nourishment, volunteering, business, visiting one’s home town, and watching a performance. In addition to these drivers, respondents combined their main purpose of holidaying with other activities, for example, some respondents travelled to visit family, yet also toured in the city they visited. Or, those who were involved in volunteering mixed that activity with tourism activities. This was considered as the spirit of VT.

Having explored the idea that volunteering can be a purpose for holidaying, in the next section the author presents the typology of volunteering.

4.4. Past experiences in volunteering

This section provides an overview of respondents’ past experiences in volunteering, and follows with a typology of volunteering based on its characteristics. To develop the typology, four important aspects are discussed: domestic/international volunteering, paid/unpaid, formal/informal, and mandatory. Each of aspects does
not stand alone. They sometime overlap one and another, for example, paid and unpaid or formal and informal also occur in domestic and international volunteering.

4.4.1. Domestic/international volunteering

Respondents’ experiences were categorised into two groups: domestic volunteering – for all experiences within respondents’ home countries, and international volunteering – for all experiences in a foreign country.

Domestic volunteering

Almost all the respondents had had an experience in local or domestic volunteering. Liam recalled his memory.

I was very much involved with junior football with my sons I helped to establish an Australian Rules football club in Sydney, and I was the president for a couple of years. I was also involved in the local school, in the school board.

Tere remembered one of her experiences when she was in China.

I have been to some fundraising events and cared for abandoned pets, especially cats and dogs. This fundraising event was raised by an animal protecting organisation. They raised some food for the abandoned cats and dogs so that we went there to take care of them.

Vida has been involved in some voluntary projects in Indonesia. Interestingly, she combined most of these projects with tourism activities, particularly those related to eco and photographic tourism. She loved adventuring as well as taking photographs with her Canon professional digital camera. Through an email, she jotted down her experiences.

In late August 2010 for three days, I joined healthcare and educational program Ngadulanggi Village, which is considered as a poor and least developed village in East Sumba, Eastern Indonesia. This program was
organised by a community called 1N3B. I was in charge of organising the healthcare service to the villagers.

In late October to early November 2010, I joined a disaster-related program in Yogyakarta and Central Java, during the Mount Merapi eruption. For the eruption victims we provided fresh meals, mainly for children and elderly people, and also some other emergency logistics at refugee camps. This program was organised by a community called KMP (Komunitas Merah Putih). I was in charge as the chairman.

In April 2011, to promote the victims’ source of economy (mainly farmers) that had been destroyed during the eruption, we provide agricultural materials such as seeds and fertilisers and also agriculture related books.

In December 2010, for ten days, KMP synergized with Global Rescue Network (GRN), AGRIKA, MARANATA, and other organisations to help the earthquake and tsunami victims at Pagai islands, Mentawai. During the program, the Group provide healthcare services and also educational logistics. To promote the victims’ source of economy that had vanished, KMP provided simple refinery equipment of patchouli oil.

Apparently, Liam had dedicated most of his life to volunteering. He had a long list of his experiences in volunteer organisations. The author presents some of these in the following paragraphs:

I was a director of the Australian Rotary Health Research Fund for eight years, that provides money for research into health issues, and so my role was partly fundraising, but also as part of the board to decide which of the researchers would get the money, and then go out and distribute the cheques to people, like Fiona Stanley here – I have her cheques for tens of thousands of dollars – and for other doctors in Western Australia.

I was a director of Interplast Australia for seventeen years. We send teams of plastic surgeons to developing countries for two weeks at a time to carry out plastic surgery, particularly the cleft lip and pallet.

I founded a senior citizens centre in the area in which I work. I’ve been its patron now for 37 years. More recently I established a community service club for young people aged twelve to seventeen through our Rotary Club. So I think that’s all I can think of in a hurry. In as far as the Rotary is concerned I’ve been involved in a lot of fundraising of course, both for locally – well last year through Manna Industries, they were patients of mine who set up an organisation that feeds the homeless, and they found that children were going to school in Maddington without breakfast, and they wanted to convert
a disused canteen into a kitchen. So I helped to raise the funds and we set up a kitchen for them there.

International volunteering

To present the international volunteering experiences, the author categorise them into four types: first, are respondents who went abroad and dedicated their time mainly for volunteering; second, are those who temporarily lived in a foreign country for studying or working and spent some time volunteering; third, are those who volunteered while overseas for/during a holiday; last, are those who volunteered at an international project or event. The following paragraphs elaborate on each category.

Living abroad and spending the entire time volunteering

The first category is for those who intentionally go overseas for volunteering over a long period of time, for one to two years. These volunteers commonly work for an organisation. Ally went along with her husband who volunteered as a border security guard in an islands country in the North Pacific. Ally was also involved in some voluntary works.

In 2000 and 2001, my family volunteered as part of Australian aid abroad, to work in a place called the Marshall Islands. We packed up our home and leased it out, and packed up all our furniture and everything and moved to this little dot of an island in the Pacific. I became the Principal of the local private school. I worked there to develop the school. Afterwards the Education Minister asked me to work with her to help set up the other schools as well. So, I was being a principal while I was helping the Education Minister set up the schools as well.

Like Ally and her husband, Neil and his wife Denise also went abroad for volunteering, under the same organisation. Whereas Ally was assigned to the North Pacific, Neil was sent to Palembang, Sumatera, Indonesia. In Neil’s worlds: “I worked
Neil was so impressed with his first experience, that he then he applied for another voluntary work position abroad. Again, he was assigned to Indonesia.

Australian Volunteers International needed somebody to go to Universitas Muhammadiyah. And they wanted somebody to go to their language centre again to assist in developing language programs, mainly for the lecturers, but also for their students who are doing international programs. I lectured to lecturers on teaching development, how to write programs, how to do lesson planning. And I also taught at various faculties.

Jeff studied medicine. Near the end of his course, the school recommended him to go somewhere to get some medical experience. Jeff decided to go to Papua New Guinea. He and his friend combined the trip with a mission.

We were there for six weeks as medical experience, kind of work experience, but also because we went under a mission organisation we also did church work. Part of that was teaching students and also meeting up with students. So that was one [volunteering trip]. The other one is more recent.

Jeff explored possibilities and talked to three different organisations. In the end he and his friend chose Cambodia, because “two or three previous students from our school had travelled there before to do a similar thing”.

Jeff introduced me to the word ‘elective’, a popular word for medical students.

That’s the word they use for it. So that’s the word that the university uses to describe it. They don’t use the word volunteer. From my point of view that was also a part of service related to my faith. So in a sense I never used the word ‘volunteer’ to describe it even though part of the definition of volunteer is that you don’t expect payment and you’re giving up of your own time and funds, that’s exactly what we were doing. So we weren’t paid anything, we had to pay for everything to go and be there.
Another time, Jeff went to Cambodia. This time, he went with his wife. “Once again, [it was] under a mission organisation. We were there for six months and we did medical work. She did optometry work and we also did a church group”.

**Living abroad and spending some time for volunteering**

This category is for those who are involved in volunteering while living in a foreign country, for example Poy who came from Thailand to study in Australia. Since she was a Buddhist, Poy chose a Buddhist Centre for volunteering.

Here I usually go to the Buddhist Centre in Nollamara and I usually help them in the library cataloguing the books. Also sometimes if they have special events I will help them with general talk. Like, normally they will have Thai communities there and if they need our labour we would lift the table or organise the place.

Other international students are willing to help other students, particularly if the needy are from the same country. Malaysian international students in WA have an association. Liza explained:

We do have a society for the Malaysian students, but it is more like a group work that we do. I mean, everybody in the society would know because once we post it that somebody is coming from Malaysia, and needs some help, the news gets a round on the website, and those who have, like, extra furniture or whatever that you want to share, they can do that as well, apart from giving aid in trying to find a good place for them to stay and taking them around the place to get themselves acclimatised to the situation here in Australia.

Tere volunteered at her university, Edith Cowan University (ECU).

Actually, I don’t have any experience [of volunteering] in my country, but I have worked as a volunteer in Australia. One is your open day that you may all attend, just as a volunteer to give some brochures to someone who is interested in studying in ECU or tell them where they can get more details.
Susie reported that she volunteered at ECU too. And she had worked unpaid at the State Library of Western Australia.

After I came here, actually at the beginning, I was given advice by the staff at the Career Office at ECU. They suggested we start finding some volunteer job because we don’t have any local experience here, right, so I started my volunteering job at the State Library of Western Australia and I have been doing it for more than one year now.

Leah revealed her international volunteer experience. She was a student from Hong Kong.

I’m an international student so I consider this would be an international experience. I’m actually working voluntarily at Clan, C-l-a-n. It’s an organisation in WA which helps the single parent household and provides them some activities to get along with parents and children so they can have a closer relationship. Because when a single parent household sometimes it would have, like, big trouble and stuff. Basically we would have an activity every two months such as horse riding and, say, last Wednesday we went to roller skating, yeah, roller skating. So just try to bring the family closer and have a bit of fun every two months.

Fang had been living in the USA for some time when she volunteered as a school advisor committee member for the students from different countries. “Some of the local educational committee who have those – they call it International Advisory Committee, or something like that, so we’d have the normal meetings and give the school some suggestions”. Fang reported another volunteer experience. “I also volunteer a little bit in the retirement home. Just visit them and give some help during weekends”.

Volunteering overseas for, or during, a holiday

In this category, respondents mixed volunteering with holidaying abroad. Jemima’s first experience in VT was in Latin America. “My international experience was in Bolivia working in an orphanage in La Paz. And more recently, two visits for a month each to a school in India, near Bangalore”. Bangalore is the capital of Karnataka, one
of the states in India. “In India it was a much different experience,” Jemima recalled. “It was a unique school for ‘untouchable children’. That’s the lowest cast children”. Indian society has four categories of stratification system based on Hinduism, the indigenous religion, which is followed by about 80.5% (Censusindia.gov.in, 2011) of the population. The castes are Brahmins (priests), Kshatriyas (for example, kings, warriors, law enforcers, administrators), Vaishyas (for example, traders, bankers), and Shudras (for instance, servants and workers). ‘The untouchable children’ are out of the Shudra category system. They might be nomads or foreigners. Jemima said the orphanage was run by the Catholic Church and continued, as follows:

It was started 14 years ago by one organisation. And the school now has 200 children from the age of four to 18. We just had toddlers, the little children from 12 months to two years. And we were just playing with the children, extending them, stimulating them, that sort of thing. And we were there as volunteer teachers. And we’ve now done it for two years in a row and we will go back as well.

It has been revealed in this study that experiences in domestic volunteering may lead to overseas volunteering, that is, from local, to global. Anita said: “My volunteering had always been local, my work on the children’s activities, not abroad at all, until this trip, these two trips”. Anita was then involved in an international volunteering trip to Vanuatu. To support her project, she and her friends did fundraising, even developed an organisation to legitimate their actions.

At the moment I suppose I am more involved in a volunteer organisation because we’ve had to create our own organisation to fundraise for these trips that we do, not for fundraising money for ourselves but for the actual equipment and so we’ve created a not-for-profit charity and I serve on the board of that charity. But it’s still kind of related to those trips.

At the beginning, Ally, her husband, and her friends visited India for a holiday. “I worked with a Buddhist Monk in the North of India; I went there for one week and I stayed for six months”. She met a monk who needed volunteers working with children at his monastery. “I worked with children in an orphanage; they were Tibetan children. They were brought over the border. That was the first time I
worked there”. Impressed by her first experience, combining holidaying and volunteering, she went back to India as follows:

We went to Goa in India. My family and I made contact with an orphanage there through the internet and I asked them if they needed a teacher and they said, ‘yes please’. So, I went in and I worked in the slum with the slum children, and we only did that for ten days. That’s all the time we had. It was a vacation.

Another respondent, Ginger, took a volunteer vacation within Australia.

That would be at Moore River, one place that I had never been to, and a beautiful place – very quiet, and I think when a family needs a time just to be a family, I think that’s a beautiful place to go. But it’s local, and I think it’s got a good atmosphere.

Ginger revealed the reason why she had been involved in this activity.

I was volunteering for a Scout group, so there were different activities happening, and supervision was needed. Being a mother, I had to keep a check on the older kids and cook for them, which was great because we had turns at cooking, and I think I saw these kids growing. It was one of the last years when my children were in Scouts.

Volunteering for an international project or event

The author met Ginger at the International Sailing Association and Federation (ISAF 2011), an international event in Fremantle, Western Australia, where he found her volunteering for this event.

I’m involved as a person that’s got some knowledge of Fremantle. Also I came along as one of my daughters was a rower and I was involved in a lot of water activities there, and with the rowing club, and I know that if you have visitors who are coming to Perth, or Fremantle it’s lovely if there’s someone there to greet them and explain. This is a lovely place, which is our culture too.

4.4.2. Paid/unpaid volunteering

Being ‘unpaid’ is one of the characteristics of voluntary work. Because the respondents worked unpaid, they considered that their involvement in a project or a
work was volunteering. For example, in Hong Kong, Leah worked as a hotel receptionist. “Sometimes after work we guided tourists around to show them local places, tourist places, and guided them around. I was unpaid, so I guess that would be voluntary”.

Some other respondents were paid for their work. But, according to them, the money they received was very low compared to the amount they should have received. For this reason, they considered that it was volunteering. Neil revealed how much he was paid by the organisation he worked with. “We got $1500 as a departure preparation thing, to do medical checks and all that sort of thing, passports, visa, all that’s organised. They paid for the flight. They paid us two and a half million [Rupiah] per month”. Despite the fact that Neil was paid, he insisted that his work was volunteering. “From our perspective it’s volunteering, yes”. Further, he explained: “I guess from an Australian perspective, we are volunteering, yes. And all our families and friends consider that we’re volunteering, because, we get paid so little. If we were [doing that work] here in Australia we’d have a very good salary”. Neil added. “In Palembang, we get 500 Australian dollars a month. So it’s very low. But it’s enough to live on in Palembang”.

4.4.3. Formal/informal volunteering type

People may be unintentionally or incidentally involved in volunteerism in their daily lives, such as, helping friends, neighbours or even strangers. In the volunteerism sector, helping is considered as informal volunteering. On the other hand, any voluntary works that are organised by organisations are considered as formal volunteering. The latter may be conducted by a volunteer organisation, or by profit organisations, such as companies, or by non-profit organisations like NGOs, government agencies, religious and educational institutions.

Volunteering at an educational institution
Ally was a mother and she had a huge interest in music, painting, and photography. She volunteered at her children’s school.

I spend most of my time volunteering at my children’s school. I do a lot of projects because both of my children are in a music program at a local high school, and I work as a committee member there and I help with the music, the organisation of concerts, and things like that for the children. They play a lot of concerts around the state and I help to organise that, so I’ve been involved with that for about four years.

Lolita reported her experience volunteering at an educational institution. She has been president of the Parents and Citizens Association (PCA). In Australia, every State has a PCA. This institution allows parents, teachers, and citizen to take part.

I do a bit of fundraising, run a meeting. The PCA actually supports the local school. It is the specific school that my children are going to. So it’s really just to pull the parents together, discuss issues and then represents the parents to the principal, the teachers, if there is a need for any go between.

Lolita remembered, when she was younger, she also volunteered for the Girl Guides. Girl Guides is for girls, Boy Scouts is for boys. This movement was established by Robert Baden-Powell, Lieutenant General in the British Army in 1907. Lolita reflected: “Yes I was a Girl Guide leader. So I ran a Girl Guide group. So it’s about growing young girls, in terms of developing their personality, competence, confidence, skills. So I did that for a number of years”.

Anita admitted that she was not too active in domestic volunteering. ‘Time constraints’ was her excuse. Anita was South African. “Even when I was in South Africa, my volunteering was still related either to my work or to my children”. In addition, Anita had spent some time volunteering at her church.

I probably haven’t done too many voluntary activities in Australia. I tend to be quite busy I suppose with general life and work and all the rest. The voluntary activities that I have participated in here in Australia are mostly related to my children and their activities, getting involved in their sporting activities to a very small degree, such as being the timer and the scorer for netball for my daughter’s netball team for example. It was outside of school, Saturdays. I have done a little bit of voluntary supervising, teaching in Sunday
Schools, church-related activities. Other than that I can’t really think of too much that I’ve done in Australia.

Jemima volunteered for a university where she used to work. “Since I left the university three and a half years ago I’ve been an honorary fellow, so I’ve been working as a volunteer for the university. And I’ve supervised four PhD students to completion since I left”. Jemima also volunteered at her children’s school: “When our children were involved in sport then obviously I was, you know, supporting their sporting clubs and fundraising and those sorts of things, scouts, those sorts of things”.

Like Jemima, Tio also volunteered at a university where he used to work. “I was actually a lecturer. My volunteering activities are of course related to something in education. I was a lecturer at one of the private universities in Jakarta”. Tio said the university had an international program and he volunteered to provide rooms for international students. “Because some of the prospective students were really new to Jakarta, to the Indonesia environment, they had to get to know Indonesia, the customs, culture, and so on”.

Fang had been involved in educational volunteering. She helped lecturers and international students during their visits in China.

I’ve done most for the volunteering work in the International Student Study Group. When they visited China I normally start those groups from the very beginning stage of supporting working with the professors. For example, students in from United States; I helped them to set the program and arrange everything from the very beginning until the end, even saying goodbye to them at the airport.

Fang felt she benefitted from being a volunteer: “And I’m willing to do it because it helps me to improve my English in some ways”.
Volunteering for a religious institution

Church is not only for praying and worship. Church can also be a place where social support is given and volunteering is needed. Fang started her volunteer experiences through a church.

The very beginning stage was from the church, like the church visits and group visits, and then the professors they just knew me, and they send me emails saying “Fang, can you do this for me?” So it was mainly two main universities in the United States, but different groups, and also some groups from Singapore.

Fang identified some voluntary work she has done with a church. She assessed this job as volunteering because she did not get paid. “I have been doing the church interpretation work where we have missionaries from outside China, and also I help our pastors for any email communications”.

A church encouraged Jenny to volunteer too. Through the church, she helped women in her country, and overseas – Korea and other African countries. “I’m from Ghana. My background gave me the chance to experience a lot of volunteering. It was because I went with an international religious group and that gave me a chance to go to different countries”.

Jenny explained that most of her volunteering was for adult women.

I did a series of activities with them in functional literacy skills. These are women who miss out on, you know, formal schooling. And they were eager to pick up skills that will help them at home and even for themselves – to get into income generating activities and the like. So I found time that were suitable for them and we got together to do things with their hands, sewing and things like making soaps and creams and little things that usually you find helpful in the house.

Another volunteering story came from Sean. One of his volunteering experiences was when he was a student. “When I was at university I was involved with St Johns Ambulance and for three years I volunteered with helping at local events, university events, community events, obviously applying first aid and medical attention to
people, whatever was wrong”. In England, as in other countries like Australia, Singapore, Hong Kong, Canada, and India, St Johns Ambulance is a Christian charity organisation that deals with teaching and practising of medical first aid and providing ambulance services.

Sean reported his motivation for being involved with this organisation.

I’d always had a passion for medicine and it’s something I considered doing at university, but then when I changed my mind and did accountancy I kind of still wanted to learn about medicine. Well, not medicine, but first aid and helping people, assisting people and so I actively looked for a society within the union. St John Ambulance was there. They said, “Come along for the first meeting”.

Sean revealed his esteem for helping others.

I loved it and never looked back. It was a great way of meeting people. It was a great, you know, if somebody did get hurt you could help them. It was a great feeling and if things did go wrong then you still have friends around you that you could kind of talk to about it. It’s just sort of like a passion.

Whereas Sean was a member of St. Johns Ambulance in UK, Liam was the commissioner of this organisation in Australia.

I was the commissioner of St. Johns Ambulance volunteers for nine years, also member and chairman of the Medic Alert Council for about 22 years, that provides a bracelet or a medallion for people to wear that have medical problems. So if they are unconscious and can’t speak for themselves, on the disk are their name, their major problem, and a number so they can ring St John. Ambulance and say ‘I have a person here whose identification number is such-and-such’ and then that will tell them, ‘yes, they’re a diabetic, and their doctor is so-and-so’.

Another institution for volunteering is Baptist Care, a Christian community organisation. Lolita was an active board member of Baptist Care: “So being on the board, really they are the people who are responsible, as a group, for whatever happens in the organisation. So they’re like the overarching guidance and standard setting and all of that for the organisation”. Lolita explained more about this group.
“They provide aged care services, services to people with disabilities, counselling services and services to people with mental health issues”.

A Buddhist centre is not only dedicated to Buddhists. Anyone who wants to volunteer at this place is welcome. Ally described her activities here: “I also volunteer at the Buddhist Centre in Nollamara [a suburb in Western Australia] at special events. I usually do either the photography or I just do whatever they need, sometimes just organising people, or whatever. Whatever needs doing, really”. Ally was versatile. She would do anything, but not for cooking. “I am not very good at that [cooking], although I eat it! I leave the food to the Thai community. I can’t compete with that, but I do volunteer down at their centre as well whenever they need it”.

Volunteering for a non-profit institution

Some respondents volunteered at non-profit organisations, like Poy and Lolita. Before leaving for Australia, Poy was a nurse in Thailand. She volunteered under an organisation that dealt with dementia patients “When I work in Thailand I also do the volunteering job to help people with dementia to try to help them with whiteboard”. According to Poy, she helped anyone who had a problem, encouraging patients to write something on the whiteboard to communicate.

Lolita volunteered at Lifeline, a non-profit organisation. “Yes. I was a volunteer with Lifeline for a number of years. So that’s on the telephone and talking to people who are in crisis or people who have issues”. Furthermore, Lolita mentioned that this organisation is for people who need to talk to someone.

Volunteering in a community

Liza described her volunteer experience in a community in Malaysia. “I was in charge of various activities where we had getting together with the people, grass root people, and getting their support in giving feedback to the City Council”. Further, Liza
described her activities. “One of the activities that we had was planting trees to make the place look better, especially in the rural areas. We had a lot of tree planting on the main roads going towards the rural areas, towards the villages”.

Then, Liza revealed her other volunteer experience, which was for aged care. She reported that most of the residents in an aged care home did not have their children visiting them. “Because, once they put you in a home then that’s it, then they sort of wash their hands”. She continued.

We do spend visits to the old folks homes in various places that we have within the local council, and even before that, when I was in primary school, we went around to the care centres for people where we met up with the aged and we sometimes, some of us, would just spend time talking to them because they feel very lonely in the home.

Volunteering for a governmental institution

Fang experienced volunteering for a local government in her home country. “I have been doing the local government interpretation work. This is volunteer work. I was called and asked: ‘Can you do the interpretation work for the Mayor?’ and then we do it. Fang wondered whether that was volunteering. But, then she confirmed that it was a volunteer job. She said, “Because it is still free, no work pays”.

Boyd described, his experience volunteering for a local Government: “When I was doing youth work, I volunteered at a drop-in centre in West Leederville, and they were closely linked with an organisation called PICYS, which is Perth Inner City Youth Services”. According to Boyd, basically the kids just came in, chatted, and played pool or they used computers, whatever there was. “Over the school holidays, they come in and you do things with them, you cook with them or do different activities”. Boyd admitted that he found it really interesting to see how all the activities he attended were run and attended.
4.4.4. Mandatory volunteering

Mandatory volunteering is a voluntary work that is assigned to someone. Amok had experience in this category. “Thailand’s big industry is tourism. Most of Thai people have been taught, like, give a smile and we smiled to tourists”. Amok explained that as a student, he and his classmate were assigned by an English teacher to talk to and help tourists. “Our first language is Thai, usually we don’t speak English we just learn it”. So that activity was not just volunteering; it was also to practise students’ English skills. “Each semester our assignment was to go to find tourists, like, guide them to travel around the tourist places, and then the local shopping area”.

In his last year of medical school, Amar was assigned by his school to join a program to promote healthier life in a rural region with a very high rate of tuberculosis and other chronic disease in India.

There are some national programs that are run in India, like the national tuberculosis program. The program was a part of the primary care service in the remote areas where I was posted. We were supposed to go out and spread some education in school, mainly to some small communities in the rural areas. So, we went there to educate the people, send out the flyers, and discuss with them the questions.

4.5. Past experience in VT

Respondents were asked about their past experiences in VT. The general answers included destinations, type of activities, duration, how things were organised, people they travelled with, pricing and other general experiences, such as good and hard time before, during, and after volunteering. They also revealed their motivations, and this is discussed and described in Chapter Five.

The power of internet

No distance is too far because the internet shrinks the world even smaller than the palms of one’s hand. No journey is postponed, because the adventure has been started once seeking information through the internet has begun. Due to the internet, the volunteer tourists can contact the needy directly, personally, without
using any VT providers. This information is indeed out of the research questions. However, the author considered that it is important to describe how the participants conduct communication with host community and host organisation and how they run their VT journey.

People who are interested in a project can go online to find information. Not thinking about contacting a profit or non-profit (volunteer) organisation in his country, Sean reported, “I went straight to the charity. Yeah. It wasn’t organised through, like one of the big ones or anything like that. It was just a small charity in Thailand that has a website”. Sean seemed to act as if he was an adviser.

What you did was, you went on the internet and you applied. You filled in like an online survey, questionnaire, because obviously they only need so many people at a time. So you filled that in. They got back to me within about a week and they said, you know, you pay within a month or something. So then you paid, they confirm your place and then they pick you up from Bangkok and take you there.

Sean demonstrated a simple way to register and to be accepted as a volunteer. A similar way was also showed by Ally. “We went to Goa in India. My family and I made contact with an orphanage there through the internet”.

The author notices that Anita had used this method as well. Anita managed a contact on the internet before she left for Vanuatu. Her contact was a group leader, to help her gain information related to the project she would conduct. To Anita, this was necessary to avoid any risks or unpleasant circumstances.

I think I would always work through somebody that has a contact in another country, I don’t think I would ever have the courage to just decide I’m going off on my own and get a base somewhere and just do volunteering work. I’d like to know that there was some formal path or at least a contact, a person there that I know that I can go to before I just get on the plane and go off.

Besides, one of the benefits of making a direct contact is that can witness and appraise the factual needs of the needy.
I communicate with them before I come. I ask them like what do you need and like, for example, with the Goan orphanage they said: ‘Look, we just need books and we need art resources’. She continued: And we saw special needs, you know, there were some broken seats in the classroom, we paid for those to be repaired. We provided a special meal for all the children on the last day. And then we sent money as well.

And Ally, she indicated that by organising the journey alone, she had a free option to go. “Going unpaid, organising it myself, I love that because I can go and get how much I want, I’m under no obligation. If I like it I’ll stay”.

Searching online for a volunteer opportunity abroad might be challenging for some people. It might be a way to avoid unnecessary costs compared to a volunteer package offered by a volunteer organisation. People may be lucky to have a free one, like Ally. “We found this school because I Googled. I went through for about four hours looking, looking, and looking. So eventually after about four hours I found one that was free and we provided our airfares, they provided accommodation and food”.

For volunteer tourists, the internet had an important role to play in a destination and program: while for organisations, the internet helped in finding participants. It could be very helpful to run a distance communication for both parties. Anita said:

We had some email contact with a couple of people but really we had no idea of what we were going into. So we didn’t know what sort of work we’d do, what the conditions would be, what we would be able to buy there, what we wouldn’t be able to buy there, it was really a blank slate I suppose with minimal information. So that was a big challenge, not knowing what we were going into.

To offer their services, profit and non-profit organisations developed a website containing pictures of activities, programs, and pricing. A range of programs, like humanitarian, environmental, health, and even volunteer programs in response to the impact of disasters are offered. Some of those are host organisations that also actively promote their projects via the internet. They built a website and a page on a social media network like Facebook.
Noel volunteered for an educational organisation in Palembang, West Sumatera, Indonesia. He was recruiting foreign volunteers from around the world to teach at the English course institution where he taught. Despite many organisations owning a website, the institution where Noel and his wife, Denise, worked did not have this medium. “We do not have a website. We’re not sophisticated enough for that as yet. However, there are some excellent teacher recruitment websites on the net that ESL [English as a Second Language] teachers tend to view regularly. I use these to advertise our vacancies”.

Noel’s institution opened registration for a whole year to recruit new teachers. Noel did not foresee any difficulties in finding people, even though for some seekers websites expected information from the first source. Nevertheless, this retiree man had a brilliant way to ease his work.

When someone responds to the initial advertisement, I commence an email dialogue with them, giving them full information about who we are and what we are able to offer them. This becomes very personal for each applicant, as all have different interests and motivation. I am particularly careful to ensure that all information sent to them is strictly honest and correct. It is important for potential teacher to know that Palembang is not Bali or Yogya [Yogyakarta], and that living here is very different from what they would experience in more popular ESL teaching destinations.

As can be seen from the cases above, the internet was a definite tool to interact between volunteer tourists and host organisations. People were motivated to be involved in VT because they loved contacting the needy or host organisation directly.

However, here was a hard situation when the internet was unreliable. Lolita reported.

Those were the kind of barriers we had to overcome. Other than that communication methods are quite slow, we basically have to rely on the internet and the internet in Vanuatu is very unreliable so we find when we’re there you can have internet one minute and then the next minute it’s dropped out, so it’s very unreliable and people don’t live on their internet and email like the Australians do, so you might send an email and the person might only read it in a week’s time which means that if you’re needing an answer pretty quickly, you’re probably not going to get it by the time you need it, so we learnt from our first experience, the second time round that
we have to build in a lot more time to prepare and to make our arrangements.

Touring on duty

Some respondents toured before volunteering, while some others toured during and after volunteering. Sean, Anita, Lolita, Eve, and Vida contributed to this section.

Vida experienced several VT projects in Indonesia. She loved volunteering as well as adventuring. “I think leisure is a subjective thing”, Vida argued. “It can be varying among individuals. To me, volunteering activity is leisure by itself because it provides me satisfaction or a sense of self-fulfilment. New friends, good scenery, good culinary and challenging experiences are bonuses to whole activities”.

Eve used the remaining days of her journey after volunteering in the Mentawai Islands by “playing with the kids, watching movie with the local community”. As she loved photography, she documented the Mentawai sceneries, the people, and their culture. She described that the landscape was stunning. “Hanging around other districts to see other ethnic groups, and swimming at a natural beach in Kodi district on our way home”.

After accomplishing his mission volunteering for two weeks on an elephant project in Thailand, Sean still had a long time to spend in that monarchy and other countries. “The rest of it was sort of a week sightseeing in Bangkok and then it was holidaying down in the islands”. Sean decided to quit from his job as an accountant and did something he really wanted to do: backpacking. He regretted not having done this in his teenage years, but he was quite happy by his decision eventually. Sean identified the countries that were in his itinerary. “It was South Africa, Thailand, Malaysia, Singapore, and Australia. I spent more time in Singapore, about a week or ten days. It was sightseeing”.

Almost without a pause, this solo traveller told me his story. Sean mentioned the reason why he took a long time in Singapore. A part of his travelling was used to deputise his mother’s nostalgia and to trace back her past.
My mum, when she was a child, she was in Singapore so she’d always spoken about it, so it was somewhere that I wanted to go and see and just sort of find out a bit more about when she was younger. So yes, that’s why I went to Singapore and again, it was generally, as I say, just sightseeing and going around and sort of following sort of family scenarios.

Sean finally arrived in Australia and stayed mostly in backpacker hostels at the most where he met and made friends with other travellers from other nationalities. “Yeah, we did sort of like sight-seeing, so sort of visiting some of the big places you always hear of, relaxed on the beach, socialising, drinking with friends, meeting new people”. Sean just wanted to be a free human being and acted as a global visitor. He emphasised his lifestyle while touring.

I really enjoy swimming and sort of socialising, meeting new people really. I go for a few beers and bit of a party, but yeah, and getting out in the fresh air and meeting new people, doing new things. So, like yesterday, I met up with two or three people from the hostel and just walked around Perth and stuff having a chat, finding out about other people.

Sean visited some big cities on the continent, but most of time, he spent in Perth, in the bush. He was working as a cattle musterer.

I was working in the jeep rounding up the wild cattle, taking them to the yards and then working in the yards with them, drafting them into the various categories, working with the livestock and then living out in the bush, camping out. Again, very hard work – working, I think, fourteen hour days. But it was just a complete different experience and obviously that contributes as well to me being able to get a second year visa to stay in Australia for longer. So that was another reason for doing that.

As Sean has left his job in England and has no plans there after returning from his long travel, he preferred to benefit from the opportunity to stay away from the country where he belonged. He said he definitely fell in love with Australia.

Lolita and Anita went to Vanuatu as part a team. Republic of Vanuatu is a country with eighty-three islands in the Pacific zone. Vanuatu attracts foreign tourists with volcanos, beaches, tropical forest, small islands, and culture. Due to possessing limited time to spend, Lolita and Anita designed the itinerary effectively. When they
found some spare time before volunteering, there was only single option available: touring. “So I’ve been to Vanuatu. We’ve been twice [to Vanuatu]. Generally we arrive on a weekend and on that weekend that we arrive, whatever’s left of the weekend is for us to explore and see things”.

Volunteer tourists may have interests both in volunteering and touring. Lolita and Anita were fascinated to explore Vanuatu.

We like to go to a place called the Blue Hole which is an island water mass that is very, very blue because of the chemicals. It’s just the water seeping up from underground, but because of the chemicals that come through it’s got this blue colour and because it’s, the flowers and the plants and trees – I can’t think of the word now – are so many. It’s very beautiful around these places and you can see the fish swimming in the water so it’s very enjoyable for people going there as tourists. So that’s one of the places we like.

The natural phenomena attract many volunteer tourists. The interaction between visitors with the richness of scenery adds to the attraction of the destination and the whole VT experience. “Then we like to go to Champagne Beach as well, which is a big tourism beach, absolutely beautiful. Probably because that is one of the attractions of the island, they’re the things that are advertised as the tourism type venues”.

Vanuatu was about eco, cultural, culinary, and island tourism. On alternate weekend, Lolita and friends (on their days off) travelled around with more enthusiasts to explore the island.

They’re exceptionally busy but although we dined out a few times, so we dined at local restaurants. We went to the markets, so it was very much a market, sort of Asian market, not Asian it’s Polynesian but just little market stalls and someone cooking local food and we ate there a number of times so you’d call that tourism. I guess in terms of buying souvenirs, our favourite place was again a handicrafts market where some of the local people actually sat there and made some of the things there so that was very local, very Vanuatu crafts and then on the two Saturdays they were really our only days off, we got to go, it was mostly around beaches and swimming and those sort of activities.

The option to consume and purchase local products and services tended to show they were aware of sustainability tourism. By acting in that way, they have tried to
maintain their relationships with the locals nicely as they had intention to go back to this place in the future.

It’s not a massive tourist market so you can go to one of the beaches or to Blue Hole and you can be the only people there, so there’s not a constant flow of tourists and we don’t go to the big resort type places because we don’t want to spend that kind of money on the resort, we’d rather give it to the locals. You pay an entrance fee to go to the beach or whatever, but that goes to the locals whereas if you go to the resorts it goes all to the people that have got lots of money anyway. We like to go to the markets as well, the local markets. That’s where we eat as well. We go to the local markets to eat because it’s nice.

Funding

For those who organised self-VT, they experienced the challenges of providing proper funding for their activities. Lolita reported:

At the moment I suppose I am more involved in a volunteer organisation because we’ve had to create our own organisation to fundraise for these trips that we do, not for fundraising money for ourselves but for the actual equipment and so we’ve created a board, not a board we’ve created a not-for-profit organisation, a charity and I serve on the board of that charity. But it’s still kind of related to those trips.

Thus Lolita shared how she and her team managed fundraising.

We initially started by baking biscuits and selling them and that type of thing and had a couple of people that would do jewellery parties and then give some of their profit to us and then we started doing sausage sizzles and that was probably the major thing for the fundraising.

Local custom, habit, and culture

Lolita shared her experiences facing constraints when she was in Vanuatu, the venue of volunteering. Local climate, culture, and custom may be a challenge for volunteer tourists.

When we were there, it was quite primitive conditions so there was a hall and we worked there. There was no power, no water, no electricity there. It
was hot and humid so for us, they’re not conditions that we are used to. We sat on mats on the floor and worked, again that’s not what we are used to. We are used to examination tables and tables and decent chairs and that sort of thing so none of that.

In addition, the climate was one of the aspects to be put on the list of unpleasant things. Lolita also noted cultural communication etiquette was, at times a challenge. Like this aspect of confidentiality of every-body’s personal information.

A lot of cultural things so we might ring someone up [here] and say you’ve got an appointment at nine o’clock and they’d be there at five to nine waiting but that didn’t happen there. People would just maybe turn up, maybe they wouldn’t and they’d be there for the day and then they’d go home at three or four o’clock. So we never knew what we were going to see on a daily basis.

So totally different to the way that we work but of course there were benefits too because we worked in this big hall, there was no confidentiality or anything like that, that again we aren’t used to. So we’d be having a conversation with someone and the mum or the neighbour or the dad or the aunty, another family, sitting next door would help to interpret or add some information.

Lolita continued her stories.

Occasionally timing is a factor. Coming from here, where if you say to somebody I’m going to meet you at nine o’clock you expect by nine o’clock they’ll be there, or perhaps five minutes if they’re running late for some reason, whereas in Vanuatu we’ve had to learn that it’s not the time that’s the factor but the event. So if they say well the event is a clinic for the day, and we say it’s going to start at nine o’clock, to them the 9:00 o’clock doesn’t matter, it’s the event, the clinic that matters, so any time during the day they will arrive, and it will be okay for them to arrive. They won’t feel that they have to be there at 9:00 o’clock so that’s another, maybe not a difficulty but something that we’ve had to get used to working around.

Though Lolita identified many unpleasant aspects, she insisted on returning to this community in the future for her holiday. She adored the people. “A great sense of community and so that was a help”.

Denise had her own experiences volunteering in Indonesia.
Most of the people we work with are Muslims. And of course Muslims, if you go to Muslim ceremonies the men are here and the women are there. And I also find that a little bit difficult. Maybe I shouldn’t say this because culturally it’s not correct. But it’s almost as if the women are second-class citizens. Because the men sit at the front and the women sit at the back. Almost subservient. I find that difficult because I come from a society where there is complete equality.

Ally reported her experience volunteering in India.

When I was working with children in a slum and I was playing a game with this little girl, her mother walked up to her and just slapped her like that. The child went flying across. I was shocked. I didn’t know how to behave toward this mother.

4.6. Summary of chapter four

One of the objectives of the qualitative phase of this study was to gain insight into the experiences and rich personal stories of respondents’ experiences in holidaying (tourism), volunteering, and VT. This chapter presented the many faces of holidays and volunteering was one activity uncovered and explored. It was evident that volunteering was conducted on its own and also in conjunction with other motivations such as visiting friends/family and experiencing the culture of the place. The volunteering experience revealed many forms and types. These included the volunteer tourism activity conducted either domestically or internationally. Other aspects of volunteering included paid/unpaid volunteering, formal/informal volunteering, and mandatory/self-initiated volunteering.

Respondents’ past experience in VT showed that VT is a personal journey, packed with diversity both at the individual, host country, and VT organisational levels. The chapter highlights that each person had a story that was multifaceted and context specific. Stories revealed the power of the internet helping respondents seek information about VT projects, organise the project, and contacting the needy, directly or through a volunteer organisation. For volunteer tourists it was evident that there was a balance between volunteering and tourism activities. Respondents toured in their destination, before, during or after volunteering work. Respondents described how they supported themselves financially and also funded the work of
their volunteer organisation. A rich body of knowledge was gathered in this chapter relating to the VT’s experiences in dealing with local customs, language, habits and culture. This chapter has aimed to locate VT within the tourism and volunteering spheres, whilst also exploring experiences and stories. Chapter Five focuses now on VT. It explores the attitudes, subjective norms, motivations, intention and constraints toward engaging in VT.
5.1. Chapter overview

This chapter (the second part of two) presents seven topics derived from the qualitative study results. The first topic is a description of the flow of volunteer tourists: where they came from and where they went to. In Chapter Two, the author described three groups of volunteer tourists based on their origins and destinations: those travelling from a developed to a developing country, those travelling from a developed country to another developed country, and those remaining within a developing country. This study found another three groups: those travelling within a developed country, those travelling from a developing country to a developed country, and those travelling from a developing country to another developing country. This information is presented in this chapter.

The second topic describes the range of attitudes toward the concept of VT. Based on the results, there were four categories of attitudes. Firstly, “disagree with the concept”, for example, a respondent said that volunteering could not be mixed with holidaying because they had two different aims: holiday was for relaxing whereas volunteering was for working. Secondly, “partially disagree with the concept”, for this category, respondents disagreed with the concept of VT on the one hand, but on the other hand they had reasons for supporting it. Thirdly, “agree with the concept”. Those who were in this category valued the concept positively. Lastly, “partially agree with the concept”. Respondents considered some arguable aspects in VT practice, for example, that VT was good but also cautioned that some volunteer tourists acted improperly in the host destination.

The third topic covers information about the role of “word of mouth” that inspired and encouraged respondents to become engaged in VT. Some respondents were inspired by their friends and colleagues who had experienced VT previously to join a
VT project. This word of mouth influence reflects and reinforces the subjective norms noted in the literature.

The fourth topic is a description of intention to be involved in VT. The results were aligned with stages of readiness (Prochaska & Norcross, 2001): *precontemplation*, for those who were not aware about VT and had no interest to be involved in VT; *contemplation*, for those who were in searching for information about a VT project; *preparation*, for those who had no experience in VT previously and at the time they were in preparation for a project; *action*, for those who had experience in VT; and *maintenance*, for those who had experienced in VT and had a plan to be involved in another VT project in the near future.

The fifth topic covers motivation to be involved in VT, both for individuals who were engaged in VT in the past or those who planned to become engaged in another VT project in the future. The sixth topic discusses the constraints faced by individuals who did not become involved in VT. The last topic of this chapter presents information about the psychographic characteristics of the respondents. Discussion centred on respondents’ adventurous nature and their own perceptions of the characteristics of a VT. The chapter ends with a conclusive discussion.

5.2. Origins and destinations of volunteer tourists

The literature reports that VT attracts participants who travel from a developed to a developing country (Stritch, 2011; Van der Meer, 2007; Vrasti, 2012) or from a developed to another developed country (McIntosh & Zahra, 2008; E. M. Raymond, 2007). But the results of this study indicated various journeys of volunteer tourists based on their origins and destinations. These journeys include participants who came from a developed country to a developing country, from a developing country to another developing country, from a developing country to a developed country, within a developed country, and within a developing country.

Boyd, an Australian, visited Uganda, a developing country in Africa, and revealed his reasons for doing so.
I chose Uganda, mainly I think because I really like the idea – I’ve never been, but I really liked the idea of East Africa. Now that I’ve been, I love it, and I really wanted to see the Nile, the source of the Nile – and I saw the source of the Nile, which is fantastic. So, it was a bit selfish. The reason I chose Uganda was because of what I wanted to do when I was there.

Along with Boyd, other respondents in this category were Jake, Lorna, Ally, Jemima, Lewis, Anita, and Lolita. They were from Australia, volunteering in India, Thailand, and Vanuatu.

Furthermore, the category of a journey from a developing to another developing country was represented by Anny, an Indonesian, who travelled to Thailand for volunteering work, as well as holidaying there.

Fang and Jill represented participants who travelled from a developing to a developed country. Fang was from China, and was invited to Western Australia for teaching in an educational institution. She took her husband along and considered their visit a holiday as well as a volunteering journey. Jill was from China too. After joining the Chinese Red Cross, she then had an opportunity to volunteer in Taiwan.

Tina and Ginger, both Australian, volunteer-vacationed within Australia. These two ladies represented participants who made a journey within a developed country. The last category addresses participants living within a developing country who participated in VT in their own country. This included Eve, Vida, and Devi. They lived in Jakarta, flew to isolated rural areas within Indonesia for volunteering and vacationing.

5.3. “Fun, important, but detrimental”

This section discusses respondents’ attitude towards the concept of VT. The respondents were informed that: “VT is an intersection of volunteering and touring. Participants combine volunteer and tour activities in a destination. To be involved, commonly they pay all costs, such as transport, accommodation, meals, and even the project itself” (Broad & Jenkins, 2008; Hobbs, 2007; E. Raymond, 2008; Tourism
Research and Marketing, 2008; Wearing, 2001). Respondents were asked to comment and share their opinions about the concept. Some respondents said VT was fun and important, some others said it was detrimental to the host community.

The qualitative data indicated that respondents’ attitudes toward the concept of VT ranged from: against the concept, against the concept with a qualification to agree, agree with the concept but with a concern, and agree with the concept of VT. Based on these results, it was evident that attitude toward the concept of VT was an influencing factor for being involved in VT.

5.3.1. Disagree with the concept of VT

A number of respondents in the focus groups conveyed some concerns bordering on disapproval towards the concept of VT. For Amar, an Indian, combining volunteering and touring is unreasonable. Amar thought that holidaying and volunteering were two distinct concepts and objectives.

If I’m holidaying I would not like to merge volunteering with holiday, one thing is for sure. Because I think it’s a different mindset. In my perception, volunteering would be something which requires totally different dedication for a certain objective. Whereas holidaying is too personalised for me, I would not prefer marrying these two concepts.

Jenny, a Ghanaian, agreed with what was said by Amar. She was against the concept of VT too because she thought that volunteering was working.

Yeah, I do agree with what’s been said and the fact that you would want to separate holiday from voluntary because doing some voluntary activity is work and you want to know when you are really seriously doing some job and when you are taking a break from the job.

Tio, an Indonesian, disagreed with the concept of VT. He reckoned that merging holidaying and volunteering would decrease the quality of both of those activities.

I cannot imagine mixing holidays and volunteering. I think when I do the volunteering it means my time is filled up for others. But when I do the holiday it means my time is for me only. I’m available at the moment. And I
believe that if you mix volunteering and holidaying. You would get a low
quality volunteer and at the same time a low quality holiday, I think.

Leo said that he cannot see the connection between holidaying and volunteering.
According to him, in China the government recruits a lot of volunteers to the west of
China, like Tibetan areas, to support the Tibetans, but he did not feel that it was a
holiday. Leo noticed that every summer Christians visited China. They taught English,
which was arranged by local people. “I helped to arrange [these visits],” said Leo.
“They pay their own costs for their trip. And we always wonder why they pay that
amount of money just to help”.

5.3.2. Partially disagree with the VT concept
Tio stated that he would consider joining a VT project in the future. “Later in my life,
when retired, I could agree with this holiday and volunteering at the same time, I
could”.

Jenny has been involved in domestic and international volunteering in which the
organisation she assisted provided all materials and funded all the costs. Her opinion
reflected her experience. Jenny was willing to provide labour to work voluntarily, just
labour. Jenny continued:

When you are doing volunteer work and there is sponsorship for it, you know
how you are going to plan so that you are able to achieve your objective. In
my own way with the functional literacy there was some of it, you know, that
I could easily carry my materials along, like, reading and writing and I could
easily provide the pencils and the paper and the reading material. But when
we had to get into doing particular skills, we needed money to buy the
materials and all that. And when money was not available, it meant we
couldn’t do that.

Another respondent Amok, a Thai, echoed Jenny’s opinion. He emphasised that he
was willing to be involved in VT, but he did not want to contribute financially to a
project.
It should be separated. If I want to go on a holiday it’s a holiday. But for volunteering it’s volunteering, it’s a different duty. And then for holiday fully I can afford anything, plus I’m working and collecting money for holiday. But for volunteering, for accommodation, living cost I’m okay to pay but for additional costs, maybe cost in my country if you go to volunteer sometime you want to build a school or something like that, or build some homes, it’s okay. I can help to build but to buy the big wood or cement, I can’t afford about that. You need to find a sponsor.

Amok did not mind bearing his own expenses, but did not want to finance a project. According to him, there should be a sponsor for the project.

Leah, a Chinese Hong Kong person, tented to agree with Amok and Amar. She made an imaginary Maslow’s needs theory triangle in the air to describe her opinion.

For me I think if I can afford it, like, when I reach my older stage when my Maslow’s hierarchy is up there, not down there, right now. But if any time I can afford it, if I won the lottery or if I earn enough I don’t mind mix voluntary with holiday, it’s a beautiful life like you say. For that four weeks of voluntary and one week of holiday, yeah, just contribute to the society and because I earn so much and I feel, like, I want to do something for society. Yeah, but if I can afford it I don’t mind it at all. Holiday and volunteering mix together, doesn’t matter, yeah.

For Tony, an Indonesian, to be involved in VT depended on many variables, for instance whether he had sufficient money, and if the project was suitable for him.

If I had a financial resource, if I had a knowledge resource, or whether the volunteer project is brilliant enough or otherwise; If I was a billionaire and had a really, really important project to develop communities for example, I’d just go for it. If I had like tons of money in my bank I’d just go for it. But I’m just a student, yeah, I can’t afford it. I have to be really selective in choosing which volunteer program that I want to join, and also what kind of volunteering and what field.

5.3.3. Agree with the VT concept

Denise, an Australian, agreed with the concept of VT. According to her, the concept of VT might be an alternative for holidaying.
I think it’s a great idea. It’s excellent. I’m speaking from a personal perspective, of course. But I believe that there are many people who don’t just want to do the Club Med kind of holiday. I think that they are interested in finding out about other cultures.

Denise’s statement was supported by Noel, her Australian husband. “To have a holiday where you are giving to a community and doing the sightseeing as a subsidiary is as sort of an extra. I think that’s a fantastic idea”.

Ginger, an Italian Australian reported, “It’s a good idea, maybe something that we won’t do in our place. It’s another culture and it’s another part of the world”. Furthermore, she saw advantages of VT for participants. Her attitude was influenced by her own experience visiting a neighbouring country to Australia, volunteering for her son’s school program in a summer camp. She mentioned accomplishing two activities – holidaying and volunteering – in one action.

I feel that it is a good idea, because you are going to a country and I think if you are going to meet people of that country, you actually can learn a lot about their culture and their everyday life if you are actually involved in there. It’s lovely to see the tourist sites, and the tourist trips out of the cities, and also if you can do something where you can actually have an input into these people’s lives, that you maybe have learnt in your country, you are helping everyone grow different ideas, and you are actually learning lots of everyday living situations that maybe you don’t experience in your own home, and this is the culture. We are learning culture, having a holiday, and also if we can actually help people. We’ve accomplishing two things at once.

Ginger added that another advantage of VT was that it allowed participants to get a practical experience.

If you were just going on a holiday, you would still be paying for all these things, so if you are going on a holiday, and also learning about other people’s culture, and hands-on, I think a lot of that society. You’ve got theory and you’ve got practice, and I think the practical is very important. I think this is good.

Ginger spent two days doing VT while other respondents spent weeks and even months. Tina, an Australian, spent only one day. She agreed with the concept. “Yeah,
that makes sense to me, because again, you’re stepping out of your zone”. But Tina was doubtful whether her experience volunteering in an Aboriginal community was considered as VT, due to the short duration of the activity. She went on to defend herself: “I guess it depends on the person. Other people would say, ‘Well it would need to be a longer period of time’. To me, having travelled away for that and having volunteered, then that could be classed as volunteer tourism”.

Jemima, an Australian, liked the concept of VT too. She was even prepared to take a budget airline to reach a destination for volunteering overseas.

I think you hit the nail on the head. I’m later in my life, I have done my work. We’ve saved our money. We’ve also travelled extensively. Volunteering is actually an economical way of doing that in the third world developing country. So once we’ve paid our very cheap Tiger airfares to get there, we don’t have very many costs and yet we have the most amazing experience. And for us it didn’t feel like work because we’re retired. So it’s different and it’s exciting and very rewarding. We get as much back as we give.

Devi, an Indonesian, had experienced VT. To illustrate her opinion, Devi picked a proverb in an Indonesian context ‘sekali dayung, dua sampai tiga pulau terlampau’. This is an expression that is similar to the English ancient proverb ‘killing two birds with one stone’. She said, “It’s good for those who have interest in things, volunteering and travelling. Travelling it’s not just a travel and doing volunteering in a different way, to make life more colourful”. This is similar to Ginger’s sentiments, expressed earlier – accomplishing two things at once.

Eve, an Indonesian, also approved of the concept of VT. She was experienced in VT too. “Why not? I am fine with the conditions. If it is one way to achieve a meaningful life and I have the ability to do that, then I will consider doing it”.

Lolita, a South African Australian, referred to her previous journey to Vanuatu, relating the concept of VT to this suitable location.

I think it would appeal to a lot of young people. I think Vanuatu has fantastic tourism opportunities. So to say to someone, ‘Yes you can go and volunteer for two weeks and then you can go surfing or sailing or snorkelling or whatever around the islands’.
Furthermore, Lolita explained why VT was suitable for young people. However, she also mentioned that VT might be appropriate for older people too. “I’m thinking students came with us. So when my students came, they volunteered with us. But similarly any other age group who might want to have a holiday as well. One lot of travel costs for volunteering and holidaying”.

Anita, an Australian, considered that VT might suit younger as well as older people.

Yes, I think the concept is quite okay [for young people], and maybe even for me but when I don’t have children at home anymore and I can put time aside, but at this point in my life it’s not something I would be able to do very easily.

Moreover, Denise said that volunteering abroad was a common thing in Australia, particularly for younger people. “Australian youth are very great travellers. They generally love travelling overseas. They travel usually to Europe, but also to Asia”. She encouraged the youth to go out of Australia, to experience other parts of the world to enrich their perspectives on life. Regarding the concept of VT, Denise explained:

From my own personal perspective I think it’s a great idea because I think the idea of volunteering, particularly in poor communities, poverty-stricken communities, developing countries. I think it’s important for wealthy people from wealthy countries like Australia. Australia is a very isolated country because we don’t share borders with anybody. We’re an island. I think that we Australians should have face-to-face real life contact with developing communities and developing people. So that they can actually see and experience what goes on in half the world, or more than half the world. If they can combine that with the beautiful scenery, and the incredible cultural experiences, and the food, and transport, and whatever goes with that as the pleasurable side, I think that’s a great idea.

Ginger also thought that VT was great for young people.

I think you could start as young as, we’ve already got programs where students, high school students are actually going on a holiday and while they’re over there they are volunteering in some situation, either helping other school children with their ideas, and at the same time they’re learning from the country where they’re visiting. And also volunteering in orphanages, with animal projects, with the orangutan, I’ve heard that there are a lot of
situations where people go on a bit of a holiday and then they’re actually helping, volunteering.

Anny found that the concept of VT was good. “It’s (VT) a good concept. It (VT) doesn’t have to be tourism activities, because the focus here is volunteering. It’s not tourism”. This young woman assumed that each participant might be given different focus, depending on the organisation that organises the event.

I think the focus – it’s different for different people, and it depends on different organisations as well. Maybe they do half and half. If I had to diagrammatically explain it, it would have to be that it depends on how those two things overlap, because the main purpose of that trip could be volunteering.

“Like in my case,” Anny pointed to herself, “even though there weren’t any tourism activities, I would have still done it”. Further, she added: “I think it’s a fantastic concept, it just depends on what the organisation and the purpose – the main purpose – of that person who’s conducting the trip”. Moreover, Anny emphasised. “Grammatically it [VT] explains what the whole thing is volunteering. It’s for the people that you’re going to help, and if you do get some tourism and relaxation and fun activities, then that’s a bonus”.

On the concept of VT, Jake commented: “It’s a nice, a different concept of volunteering if you go out and build stuff for somebody or help them build stuff”. Jake continued:

I think that’s true. I would say that probably many of them would go, the main driver for going would be to volunteer but when you get there all the locals say, ‘Well have you been out to the waterfalls out there, and have you been off to the palaces just over there?’ And you’ve got to go see them and they do a fairly good sell job on all of the bits of tourism that are part of the volunteering. The organisation until now hasn’t said anything about tourism. They will help you do it if you want to do it just because they’ve been there themselves and they know a nice place to stay, that sort of help but they won’t take any money from you for that.
Sean, a British person, was also in favour of the concept of VT. “I think it’s a fantastic opportunity for people to be able to do that and experience it if they’ve got a real passion to do it”. When Sean was asked about the negative sides of VT, he could not see anything wrong with it for himself. “I mean, for myself, I personally didn’t see any negative sides, just because it was what I was expecting. I got out of it what I wanted to get out of it. And I found it an amazing experience”.

Back to Anita – she picked volunteering in response to a natural disaster as an example for VT.

The concept I think is probably good because I think they’d be some support for the people over there, some protection, you know, against, if some disaster happened they’d probably be able to use the organisation to get them out or that type of thing.

Sean also liked the concept. Particularly, he saw it as a positive way for an organisation to raise money.

I think it’s a good thing personally, just because of, I suppose, how I am and the experience I had and what I’ve kind of got out of it and wanted to get out of it. It’s a good way for a charity to make money so they’re kind of like self-sufficient and they’re able to provide better facilities, provide better care maybe to the animals, people, whatever.

5.3.4. Partially agree with the VT concept

Some respondents agreed with the concept of VT, but were concerned about some aspects, such as travelling costs and prices stated by an agent. Besides, they had concerns about health barriers’, attitudes and behaviours of other VT participants.

Concerns about constraints for being involved in VT

Noel agreed with the concept of VT. He thought VT is a great idea. However, he thought it might be a financial constraint for some people.
Now, we are relatively lucky because we don’t have a mortgage, we don’t owe anybody any money. So for us it’s not so bad. But perhaps it’s a bit restricting [for] people to be able to go because not having an income for a long period of time can be difficult for some people.

While Noel was concerned about financial matters, Liza, a Malaysian, had a concern about a health issue and financial security.

If you really want to go for part vacation and part volunteering, you really need to plan things properly because you yourself, if you are going to volunteer yourself, you must make sure you are covered, you are healthy and, financially, you are stable as well.

Vida, an Indonesian, showed her concern about finance too, but she said, “I don’t mind as long as the cost is still under my budget”.

Susi, a Chinese, showed she favoured the concept and was concerned about time and finance availability: “I agree with that. Of course you need to have the time and the money and of course it’s something you need to be really motivated to do”.

Anita assumed that although VT might be suitable for all cohorts, it would probably only be right for those who had fewer burdens in life, including those with no child, seniors, retired, and singles.

I think that type of longer term project is perhaps good for younger people that don’t have commitments, for me I’ve still got a child at school, I’ve got a husband; I don’t think while I’ve still got children at home it would be easy for me to do more than two or three weeks at a time. Maybe I could stretch it to a month but that’s quite an organisation to organise everybody back home as well as volunteering away. So I think those kind of organisations are possibly better for people who don’t have those family commitments or that aren’t tied down to a job, and they’d want to see the world basically, but also reach out while they’re doing it.

Having a child might change someone’s life. Previously, when Jeff was a single man, he had no burden when travelling overseas for volunteering. But since he got married and had a child, the liberty had gone.
I think the obvious factor now is our son and then in the near future potentially more children, so that would be I guess something we would spend time getting through the early stages first. Later on family is one big reason. So my wife’s mother is by herself and she’s more than 60 years old now and if we are not here, she wouldn’t have any other children here. That is a factor that we seriously have to consider. But above all that is calling. So whether we ourselves are in fact called to be overseas in the mission field or are we called to stay here and be people who save and be people who administer to local people who we come across. For us the idea of travelling somewhere, the idea would be as missionary work, but you can be missionaries right here in Perth. So those family factors but above that is actually calling.

Concerns about the attitude and behaviour of VT participants

Sean paid attention to other participants in the same project he assisted who were not really into voluntary work. Sean said that those participants got involved for the wrong reason.

They do it because they feel they have to do it, maybe if they’re like travelling with a friend and the friend wants to do it and they feel they have to go along with their friend. So they do it, but not really have the passion or anything like that to go into it.

Noel thought positively about the concept of VT. But, he noted, he had a concern on attitude of other participants too during his volunteering in Indonesia.

As long as the person who goes – and this is judgemental – don’t go, “look I am a westerner, I know how to do this, and I can help you, you don’t know what to do, I can do this for you”. As long as they don’t end up with that attitude. Because that attitude, to me, really grates on who I am. It’s not uncommon for people to say, well, “I come from a western society, so I know how to do it for you, so we’ll do it for you”. That shouldn’t be the case. Help the people to become more independent. But to go as an expert, and for people to say: “he’s white, he’s an expert”. I don’t like that.

Interrupting Noel, Denise made a clear statement that was to be her concern too. She presented a certain attitude that might be attached to volunteer tourists: “We don’t like the old colonial type attitudes. It bothers me”.

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Noel continued. He had concerns about an inappropriate behaviour of some foreign volunteers who worked in Indonesia, the country where he volunteered.

People can be very superior. And we don’t. It’s a difficult thing. And we try not to – we’re trying to employ new native speakers in Gloria at the moment, and when we interview them, and when we correspond with them via email, we are looking for those kinds of attitudes. We don’t want a superior colonial type attitude in our volunteers to come and work with us. We want people who consider themselves equal to the Indonesian people with whom they are working. They may have some superior skills, but they certainly don’t have superior community skills because the Indonesian community is just really rich. So we need to be careful about not encouraging the white-skinned person from European and other developed countries to be the superior colonial leader.

The author wondered whether Jake and Lorna agreed that VT was just suitable for a certain cohort. Jake retorted, “I don’t think age has anything to do with it,” he said. Further, Jake explained, he met a group of students and their teachers from the UK who visited India and volunteered in the same location with him. He observed:

Well given the characteristics of some of the other teachers that were with us I would say that’s it’s really important that the volunteer teachers, if that’s what they’re going to be have a level of maturity and that doesn’t necessarily have anything to do with age because some of the volunteer teachers were quite mature about it. They would dress in a culturally sensitive manner and so forth; others hadn’t the faintest idea what culture they were in, they were dressed like they were walking the streets of the UK. That’s probably not a good thing to do in India because they really don’t like large expanses of flesh being exposed. They also don’t really have very much sensibility about interacting with people in a culturally sensitive way. I didn’t encounter anybody who was patronising, that’s probably very good but there was just a level of maturity that’s really important in it and it doesn’t matter how old you are as long as you’re mature.

Lorna supported her husband’s opinion. She pointed out some volunteered who misbehaved. “I don’t think they were doing much good where they were trying to work in the school because they were just too irresponsible themselves. They were there for a holiday”. Lorna tried to identify the reasons for this: because it was part of their university course, although students did not really enjoy it, or because there was misplacement.
I think it’s a shame because these children are being taught by mature Indian teachers and the hope of the school authorities is that by exposing them to people who speak English better and who have had experiences of another country will broaden their experience and help them to develop but I think some of these people who were there were a bit too young to do that. I don’t think they were responsible enough and respectful enough. Yes because to discipline the kids is not that easy.

Some of them I think got a lot out of it. We spoke and went out and socialised with quite a few of them and some of them really learnt a lot but others were just there because it was part of their university course and I didn’t think they were behaving particularly well. And quite a few of them were complaining of the choices they were given. Some of them were actually probably not well placed either because there were a couple of young girls who were put in a fishermen’s co-operative or something to try and help them create a better, more economically viable system or something and these girls didn’t really help. It’s very chaotic.

Similar with Lorna’s opinion, Sean emphasised how disruptive people could be when they were not really committed to the volunteer work.

There were people there were some of us would be there wanting to do the work and we’d push ourselves even when we’re tired and stuff like that and there were other people who’d just be like, I can’t be bothered. They were bored after two days, but they stayed for two weeks. I think it’s a good thing personally, just because of, I suppose, how I am and the experience I had and what I’ve kind of got out of it and wanted to get out of it. If they do it because they feel they have to do it, maybe if they’re like travelling with a friend and the friend wants to do it and they feel they have to go along with their friend. So they do it, but not really have the passion or anything like that to go into it. And I think, the other negative side is it can be played upon from the charity point of view as just almost as a money-maker and whether that has to be right ethically for the charity to be doing that, or they should be focusing just on what they actually do. I mean, for myself, I personally didn’t see any negative sides, just because it was what I was expecting. I got out of it what I wanted to get out of it. And I found it an amazing experience.

**Concerns about the role and rule of organisations**

Susie criticised an organisation that created VT projects seemingly as a profit machine.

What I don’t like is that now many companies run this kind of volunteering placement like business, you know what I mean. They charge you 3,000, 4,000 bucks to offer you a chance of placement like in Indonesia, in Malaysia.
This makes me feel it’s not your genuine purpose but they run it like a business. This is not something I like.

‘Price’ for a VT project overseas became a hot topic. Jemima highlighted a case – when VT organisations exploit the volunteers for money. She warned: “I was going to say, I’ve got very strong views that not paying agencies that just collect the money to place you in a charity organisation overseas and that money does not go to the charitable organisation or the project”. Ally picked an example:

They would say, “You pay $1,400US for two weeks and we’ll give you a free pick up from the airport”. Now we know that costs them about $3 in the local currency. And that money does not go to the school and that makes me very angry. The money does not go to the project or the orphanage or the charity.

Jemima supported her opinion by lifting her friend’s experience. An organisation charged participants at high rates, whereas they did not allocate the money adequately to the needy.

We know somebody who’s been volunteering in Kenya and she went with XYZ [Jemima mentioned a name of an international volunteering agent] and when she got to this little tiny school she said the children’s feet were rotting because they had a mud floor that was always wet. And she said, “How much would it cost to put concrete on the floor of this school?” And they said “US $200 for the whole floor”. She went to XYZ and she said, “You know that US $1,400 I gave you, I want US $200 of that for this and this”. They said, “No, no, that doesn’t go to them”.

Lolita also disagreed with organisations that charged volunteers. She argued that volunteering should be free.

That is probably how we worked actually. We had the contact that was there among the needy so we worked through them. I would have a problem having to pay a fee to go and volunteer somewhere else, I think people who are volunteering shouldn’t be expected to pay for the privilege of volunteering because I think they’re already giving up so much of their time, work, etc. to go and volunteer. You shouldn’t expect them to pay for it as well. So I’d have a problem with an organisation asking for a fee.
Sean had a sharp opinion on this issue too. He suggested that other persons who wanted to take part in VT should avoid money oriented organisations.

I have a problem with it. I don’t think it’s right. I don’t think they should be asking for a fee. The way we’ve worked, up until now is that we’ve gone to the places and we’ve actually used the money right there on the base. [The reason] why we like to have a contact there is so that the work can be carried on, it’s not just a drop in the ocean and then you leave again, but that that work can, somebody is there to follow through with it, so that’s why we want to have a contact on the ground and that’s why I wouldn’t want to just go off to a country where I didn’t know somebody there that could carry on with the work. But I guess if you’re looking at an organisation as in a formal organisation that you have to sign up and agree to, then no we don’t work through those kinds of organisations.

Sean noticed, “There were people where some of us would be there wanting to do the work and we’d push ourselves even when we’re tired and stuff like that and there were other people who’d just be like … I can’t be bothered”. According to him, a sender organisation should be more selective in recruiting participants.

I think, in a way, they have to be careful who does go into the placements, because otherwise somebody could be there, just win the Lotto or something and do this, this and this, and then you get to the places, and I saw it myself with the charity I was in. They were bored after two days, but they stayed for two weeks. There just has to be a careful line between just accepting anybody to do it that’s going to go in and mistreat.

Sean also criticised the practice of volunteering abroad for tourists. He called it as “the other negative side” of a sender organisation.

It can be played upon from the charity point of view as just almost as a money-maker and whether that has to be right ethically for the charity to be doing that, or they should be focusing just on what they actually do.

Further, Sean advised volunteer organisations in order to treat participants cleverly, not just place them randomly.

I think it’s a fantastic opportunity for people to be able to do that and experience it if they’ve got a real passion to do it, but I think there’s equally a responsibility from the charity point of view, to make sure that they focus on
the fact that they are still the charity and what their main thing is, not just think, we can get 30 people in paying a thousand pounds and we’ll make lots of money.

Tina would consider many aspects if she were going volunteering abroad. She commented.

The idea of the organisation there – considering that school in Chile, for example – I like the idea of it, but in my mind I have to sit there and think “well, how I would actually get there?” Because once I get to Chile, the infrastructure there isn’t necessarily good to get to the school, so I don’t know how I would get there, I don’t know how safe it would be. But if I did it through an organisation here it would all be set up for me, I’d get all the information and I’d go straight there. So I think it would be safer to do it this way, but it would feel more helpful if I went straight to the organisation.

Lolita identified why she did not use a service from a sender organisation to help volunteering abroad: “Because, I wasn’t aware of them. Because, they probably didn’t go to where we’re going and the call was to go to the specific location that we went to. It wasn’t to go to somewhere in Vanuatu and do something”.

Lewis was glad to depart to Thailand with an organisation. He admitted that he might have had no courage to go alone since that was his first travelling experience abroad. He was concerned about security during his activity.

It’s brave. I don’t think I would do it. I don’t know who I would contact or seek to get involved with. I guess I liked Habitat for Humanity because I had a sense of security, it’s all organised and it’s a large organisation, it’s not small, so that I would be safe when I was in the country, I didn’t feel as though it was dodgy or anything like that whereas I guess if I was to organise it myself I wouldn’t, especially if it’s a country I’ve never been to and I don’t really know the local customs or how everything is organised.

Boyd complained about the organisation he volunteered with previously. His friend had a serious emergency call. “My friend’s mother had skin cancer, and she went into remission and it came back with frightening speed”. The response from the host organisation was very poor.
One thing that really annoyed me about ABC [Boyd mentioned a name of an international volunteer organisation], I felt they weren’t organised. They were a bit slow to respond, not that I prefer more structured, because there was plenty of structure, but in the actual execution, for example, when we were over there, we were meant to have someone call 24 hours a day, and we rang him twice and both times got no response from his mobile, and that’s where we rang our second emergency – they called it an emergency contact – and she didn’t pick up the phone either. So, we had to wait two days. But we called lots of people but they didn’t answer, for a whole day after we found out, which was really not good, we felt.

**Concerns about the impact of VT**

When the author asked for Boyd’s opinion about the concept of VT, he reflected on an article he had read a few months earlier: “I was reading something and it was talking about VT. It was saying how VT is detrimental to local industry”. Boyd was asked to explain more about what he had read and what he thought. “Basically, it said that the shorter the amount of time that you’re there, the less good it is”.

Boyd also paid attention to the duration of volunteering in a community. His statement was still impacted by the article he had read: “I feel with teaching English especially, six months or a year is better than monthly or a couple of weeks that people go over for”. Boyd explained further:

They do one week of tourism and then they do one week of just volunteering. It also said that especially when children are involved, it’s sentimental because if you teach English, especially, and the children have to get used to different people all the time, so they don’t actually learn as well as if it was just one teacher.

5.4. **Word of mouth referral**

This section presents the role of word of mouth (WOM) referrals in influencing an intention to be involved in VT. People might be motivated to be involved in VT because of other people’s roles and their stories. A reliable source is an important key to ensure that a story listener or an information seeker believes the spoken story’s is true worth. A story from a close friend, family member or co-worker might inspire people to seek the same experiences. Word of mouth can raise people’s
awareness, and increase their understanding the concept and circumstances, and motivate them. Word of mouth could be simply spread by the people already participating in VT. Lolita, Anita, Sean, and Boyd told the author about WOM impacting their VT.

Lolita had a colleague, a doctor, who went with his wife to volunteer in Vanuatu, a small country in the Pacific, to practice their skills. The doctor told a story to Lolita and Lolita relayed the story to Anita. Lolita and Anita were interested. They committed themselves to seeking the same experiences their colleague had. On the following year, Anita and Lolita visited Vanuatu.

I have a friend who is a medical practitioner doctor. He volunteered through Intermed [a volunteer organisation] and they went to poorer third world countries and give medical services. He went to Vanuatu, to Santo Island in 2008 and 2009. He came back and told us the story of his visit.

Sean’s friends were involved in a volunteer vacation project in Borneo at an orangutan sanctuary. Sean, who was also interested in animals, particularly elephants, was intrigued. He chose Thailand as a destination.

Friends of mine had told me about sort of some VT they’d done working over in Borneo with orangutans and I’d always had a big passion for elephants, so I looked on the internet and looked to see where I was going.

Further, Boyd had been informed by his ex-girlfriend about volunteering abroad. “One of the people I went with was my ex-girlfriend, and she had gone to Kenya with the same organisation before”.

A travel-mate may also influence someone to keep doing VT. Ally was very enthusiastic talking about her activities. “What I do and I love doing and I’ve been doing it for many years are, my husband and I have a met a lovely couple that travelled with us twenty years ago”. Ally said that every two years they met with them somewhere in the world. There was something in common between Ally and her husband and the British couple; they loved travelling and volunteering. And they were teachers.
We work for two years to save our money so we can go somewhere. Last time it was India, this time it’s Vietnam. What we always do is always give over part of our holiday to volunteering. Wherever we go we volunteer for ten days, and the rest of the time we drink cocktails and go swimming on the beach and play with our children and read books. Because we’re all teachers we also give that ten days to volunteering. And we always stay in a hotel or something but we make our way to the orphanage or the slum or wherever we go.

Another story was presented by Anny. She preferred doing a VT project with an organisation: a religious institution.

Yes. I heard about the organisation from a church friend, and I said “well you know I’m thinking to do a mission trip, I don’t know if you know any ...” because my church doesn’t do that, so I need to find out which other church or organisations would do that, so she’s recommended me this particular organisation, and she went, “yeah, I went with them a couple of times, and they were excellent people because they’re not associated with one church, they’re just a combination of different churches”.

5.5. Intention and the stage of readiness to be involved in volunteer tourism

To understand respondents’ intention, they were asked a simple question – whether they had an intention or had no intention to be involved in (another) VT project. Based on the responses, the author describes the results by applying the stage of change theory (Prochaska & Norcross, 2001) which consists of precontemplation, contemplation, preparation, action, and maintenance. This showed how strong a link between intention and stage of readiness could be.

Precontemplation stage

The precontemplation stage is for those who had no experience in VT and no interest to be engaged in VT. This was reflected strongly by the respondents who had previously stated they could not see the two concepts merging together. Some respondents were even against the concept of VT, for example, “I wouldn’t want to
mix my holiday with volunteering”, said Jenny. Or, “I don’t even think about constraint because to me the concept is just merely impossible”, according to Tio.

**Contemplation stage**

The contemplation stage was for those who had no experience in VT but had an interest in VT. They were interested in VT but they had no decided yet when to go. Susie was in the contemplation stage. In a focus group session she attended, she admitted that she had never thought about VT before. After listening to one respondent’s experiences in VT, Susie was intrigued. She started looking up information about volunteering abroad. Even days after the focus group, she kept contacting the author. Susie said, “I never think of [VT] before, [but now] I think it’s a good idea”.

As a new international student in Australia, Jill dreamed of knowing more about this continent. She wished there was a VT project in Australia where she could immerse herself in its environment and culture.

I can help people while I can travel. It is a good chance. I think in Australia if they have kind of a volunteer tourism, I think it is good because, actually, I can say I have no idea about anything about Australia, but I don’t have any chance to travel because I have to finish my study. If they got volunteer tourism this is a good chance for me to know more about Australia. Also I can see more seasides.

Another story was from Tina. “I’ve done research, but I haven’t actually done anything further. I found out about it through word of mouth. I go to Spanish classes to learn Spanish, and the Spanish teacher was telling me about it, and I’ve had a look”. But, Tina admitted that she could not go in the near future. “I haven’t done much more than that, because at this point I can’t really afford to”.
Preparation stage

This stage was for those who were in preparation for engaging in VT, particularly who had no experience in VT previously. People in this category have considered for engaging in a VT project in the future and have started searching for information. Participants within the qualitative phase were at either ends of the stages of readiness and none fitted this stage at the time of the research.

Action stage

This stage was for those who had experienced in VT previously, and wanted to be involved again sometime in the future but they had not yet decided because they were concerned about personal constraints, such as finance and time constraints.

Devi wanted badly to re-join her travel mates who were in preparation to conduct another VT journey. But, Devi admitted that she had no money to go. “At this moment, I am concerned about getting another job”.

Another respondent who was in this stage was Sean. He had always wanted to take part in a VT project in the future but he realised that financially he was insecure.

Very much loved to do it again. If the opportunity arose and if I had, sort of, the finances, then I think I’d definitely do it again. Whether I’d do it again while I’m travelling, at the moment, I don’t know. But if maybe, I hope to go home or maybe in a couple of years. It’s definitely something that I’d look to again as like a holiday, when you take the time off from work. I’d look to maybe go back to the same place or maybe go somewhere else and do the same thing.

Positively, Anny intended to be involved in VT again in the future. “Yep, definitely. I would love to do it again, and again, and again”. Her passion to engage in a mission trip and her previous experience made her fall in love with volunteer tourism. But she had no ideas when she would be involved again. Anny had a reason.

I have to actually make the time for it, so if I want to get married next year, or next few years, then I can’t go until I get married because obviously I have to
save up for the wedding and everything, and for the house and things like that, so at the moment it’s not my main priority. My main priority at the moment is to have a family. So once I’ve done that, then I’ll take my boyfriend. He’ll be interested. We’ll go somewhere afterwards.

If Anny had a chance to be involved in VT again, it was “because I loved my experience in Thailand”. Further, she added: “I had such a great time and I learned so much, and I hope they were being helped as well and they were happy that we were there and helping them out. Because these villages, they don’t have clinic and doctors”.

Another respondent, Jeff, dreamed of taking part in VT. “Possibly, yes. I have been thinking about it, I just haven’t seen a country or a project that I feel like doing at the moment”. When Jeff was asked further about the type of project, he pointed towards his previous experience: “Same type as Habitat for Humanity”. Jeff also revealed his dream to visit some foreign countries for his next destination, “Maybe China or Japan and maybe Africa”.

I wanted to go somewhere I hadn’t been before and when I travel I like to experience more of the local stuff as opposed to the touristy just visiting temples or just shopping. I like to sort of get involved more with the people, with the locals so that’s why I chose Thailand.

**Maintenance stage**

The maintenance stage was for respondents who were experienced as a volunteer tourist and had further intentions to be engaged in another VT project. Some respondents were in preparation for their upcoming journeys. Respondents like Vida, Eve, Jemima, Ally, Anita, and Lolita were in this stage. Vida said: “I plan to join 1N3B’s 2011 program, but don’t know the details yet”. Vida declined to describe the project in detail as she was not intimately involved in the team preparation. “I need to concentrate on other things, but I plan to join whatever they need me to do”.

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1. 1N3B (Satu Nusa Satu Bangsa Satu Bahasa dan Satu Bumi – One Island One Nation One Language and Earth) is a non-profit organisation established by Indonesian travellers. At least once in a year they organised a volunteering project in a rural area involving urban people to participate direct or indirect ways.
Eve leaked her plan. She and Vida would be together in the same project.

Yes, I have intention to be involved in a VT project in the near future. This project is under preparation. It’s still under the same community and the program still the same with the previous one. We are seeking the best location now. It would be conducted around the end of this year.

For the next involvement, Eve would be taking a role as a public relations team leader. “At this occasion I take my role as public relations [staff]. I’d like to join since I still share the same vision and mission with [the] 1N3B”.

Lolita reported. “Yes. We’ll go to the same location. We’ll do a similar thing there. We’ll provide wheelchairs, we’ll provide therapy, and we’ll do training”. Clearly, Lolita mentioned her next destination to volunteer was Vanuatu:

I don’t know that I was really aware of Vanuatu, I certainly had never thought of it as tourism destination. It was like I needed an excuse to go and I thought I’ll go and volunteer here. It was certainly the other way around. It was certainly a call to go there and volunteer.

Lolita continued. “We’ve made connections there. Because we know the people and we want to work with them again”. Lolita exhaled. She tried to convince me about her reason to go back to Vanuatu.

We’ve met them, we know them, they’re friends now and also part of what draws me back is that I’ve seen the huge need and I know there’s just a huge ongoing need that my two weeks there and the people that I take with me, I know can make a small difference. The people are beautiful. I love the people.

Another respondent was Anita who was in a preparation for her another project. When she was asked about her new project, she happily delineated, “Yes, I hope to continue”. Anita explained her destination.

At this point in time I’m probably looking at the same destination, at least another one time, until I find out about other destinations that need similar needs. What we are planning on in the next visit is to actually extend beyond the one island. There’s a hundred and something islands in Vanuatu, so, and eighty-three I think or eighty-four are inhabited islands, so instead of just
going to the one next year, we’re hoping to go to a second one as well, so, expanding a little bit onto the other islands.

Before immersing herself in VT, Ally experienced working as a paid international volunteer under AusAID. She recalled how this organisation treated her.

They paid for us to go basically. They paid for our airfare. They paid for our transferring so that we could pack up and they gave us all or inoculations. And they gave us all our insurance which was a really good deal because if you’re going to a country that you don’t know for a long time, you want to know that there is somebody is looking after you. There’s security when you go paid.

After finishing her duty on Marshal Island, Ally went back to Australia. She then was involved in several VT projects. Ally compared the paid volunteering with VT.

Going unpaid, organising it myself, I love that because I can go and get how much I want, I’m under no obligation. If I like it I’ll stay. If I don’t like, I’ll say, “Thank you, I’m going somewhere else”. So I don’t feel I have an obligation. And now in terms of money, what I tend to do is, because I communicate with them, before I come, I ask them, like, for example, with the Goan Orphanage they said, “Look, we just need books and we need art resources”.

Ally considered her journey as a serious deal. She went through a series of rituals to prepare for her VT work. She prepared many things in advance, for example, collecting goods to be carried to the destination and did fundraising by asking people to donate.

So I went to all the shops and I said to them, “Look, I’m going to a slum in Goa, can you donate anything?” I wanted to take new things. I didn’t want to take second hand things because I don’t think any child deserves rubbish, somebody else’s rubbish. I wanted to collect really good things. So I collected a suitcase full of good things which I took with me, and my friends in England did the same. And then we also did, around the workplace, I just collected money. I just said to people whenever they go for coffee, put your change in here and I collected loads of money.
Previously, Ally talked about a British couple she met when she was travelling abroad. They became closer and closer. When the author met her in a focus group session, Ally revealed her plan that she, her husband, and the couple from Britain were planning to visit Vietnam in 2012: “Last time it was India, this time it’s Vietnam. So, yeah, we planned this. We plan the next holiday destiny”. Ally had even designed another journey for the following year. “After Vietnam, in 2013 we’re going to Central America. We’re going to meet in Guatemala”. Ally described her activities in preparing her journey. “We start researching two years before, but very slowly and very sporadically. Then we email each other and say this is what I found, and then as it gets closer to the time we get frantic”.

5.6. Motivations to be involved in volunteer tourism

The classification diagram of the taking/receiving and giving (TRG) motivations was presented in the literature review chapter. TRG was developed by combining the motivations of tourists to travel, volunteers to volunteer, and volunteer tourists to be involved in VT. The results of the qualitative study showed that, in general, motivations for being involved in VT contained taking/receiving motivation, giving motivation, and taking/receiving and giving motivation, and they were a combination between the motivation to travel and to volunteer.

Give something to take something else

Anita sighed heavily when the author asked her motivation to volunteer abroad. Originally from South Africa, Anita later migrated to Australia. She felt like there was unfinished business if she didn’t help somebody. Her self-imposed guilt for making a better life for herself led her to need to help others less fortunate.

It’s probably quite complex really, I do come, or I came from South Africa and have felt at times guilty for jumping ship, you know leaving them to suffer while I got out and made a better life for myself, so in a way I’ve always wanted to do a kind of payback and help somebody that is in a difficult situation so that I can feel I’ve done my share for society. I think we are
relatively well off in Australia and I’ve always had a desire to do some outreach beyond my work, so when this opportunity came up it just seemed to be ideal to fit into what I wanted to do. I might not be going back to Africa to help people there, yet, but I’m helping other people that are in need.

Anita reported her motive was for payback to society. She also expressed that she was motivated to obtain self-esteem.

I think it’s in my nature. If I could, I would make the whole world a better place, but I know that’s not possible. So I try and perhaps make the world a better place for one person and that will make me a better person. It makes me feel good. I think it’s my desire to reach people that don’t have, to make their lives better for them, for me is a deep need that I want to be able to give something to other people. I’d like to share them with a bigger group.

Anita said, in Australia most people have some means of getting the assistance they need, whereas in places like Vanuatu or even other countries, “I know there’s lots of countries that need this, there’s no real medical assistance, people have severe disabilities because they don’t have the early intervention like you can get in Australia”.

Respondents mentioned their various motivations if they had a chance to be involved in volunteer tourism in the future. Some motivations indicated the role of the ‘giving’ motivation; for example, Amok’s motivation. He wanted to help society, because “They need help”, whereas Leah was motivated to contribute to society.

If I can afford it in the future I will definitely yes. I want to contribute to the society. My motivation is, as I say, I want to give back to the society, no matter International, to the developing country or to my own country, it doesn’t matter. I want to help someone if I can. That means I’m healthy, I’m available, I’m still, you know, I can afford.

Boyd said, if he had another chance to be engaged in VT, his motivation could be “to develop something sustainable, dig a well or something”. Boyd calculated this might be in the next 18 months, he would realise his next journey by doing a project that he was really concerned about.
I would prefer something that’s going to provide long lasting effects, like a well or another rabbit hutch or goat. It depends. Something that will be beneficial to a community rather than to a couple of people, a few people. The more people the better. If it can be used to turn a profit and put back into the community, even better.

Eve discussed her motivation for VT. “[To] help others. For me it’s a rare opportunity to be involved in such activities, volunteering yet having the adventurous part: great team, great activities, great adventure. I feel great. It feels good”.

Confident with a particular skill they owned, some respondents were motivated to help and be involved in volunteering tourism. Lolita was a lecturer of occupational therapy. She said:

I suppose I have a lot of skills in that area. I’m very skilled. I have a lot of knowledge in that area and I’m very happy to share that so that’s one reason I think why I work at university is I want to pass on a lot of that knowledge and skill and passion to the OT [Occupational Therapy] students, so I am very happy to take that further. We are just so lucky here, so well off. We have so many resources and it is in my nature to want to be able to share some of that with people who are less fortunate, so to give to other people.

Ally was also motivated to share what she had for the needy.

When I went there (India), I just said to them, “Here’s some resources and here’s some money,” and, “I can give you my time, I can give you my expertise in my area, and I’m willing to do whatever you want me to do,” and so, yeah, that’s how I tend to operate right there.

Furthermore, Ally added.

Because I believe that by volunteering in places like this, it’s a two-way learning: I learn from them and they learn from me. It’s I have something that they need and they have something that I need. That’s the only way I can put it. And we help each other to give each other what we need.

Poy demonstrated her motivation. “When I help someone, I also learn something from them. I think it’s valuable to pay something. Actually I pay just only little thing
or anything I can afford or I can do and then I can learn from them. I think it’s more than whatever money I give them”.

Another story came from Ginger. She was motivated by her interest to learn something from other people. “I just love to speak to people and I like to learn from people and I like people to learn from what I know”.

These respondents realised that volunteering was a symbiotic relationship, involving the volunteer and people who they volunteer for. When a volunteer gives help to the needy, the needy actually give something back to the volunteer. Perhaps not in material wealth, but, stories indicate that the strength of the experience impacts the volunteers self-image or self-esteem. These results were in line with the concept of taking/receiving and giving (TRG) motivations presented in Chapter Two.

**The place**

Attachment to the place of volunteering was evident with respondents. Everyone had a reason to choose a certain country – a place to deliver a service. Tere said, “If that place is charming and attractive, I will [go there and be involved]”. Tere showed how the journey would be beneficial for her: “That’s just for experience”. She added:

> I think experience is important. I mean, I don’t spend a lot of money in other things, travelling is always important. I think volunteer experience is important because I’ll have a chance to see a different country, a different place, not to mention that the culture will be lower than. I expect, yeah.

Ginger experienced VT in Australia, a country where she had lived since she was five. “At this stage I’d like to see more of my Australia”. Then she revealed her reason for choosing this country. “Because I feel that there’s some places that we speak about, and we read about, but I actually want to put my feet there and say this is beautiful. I want to see more”.

Boyd volunteered in Africa and had an impulse to go back to Africa. “I really, really enjoyed Uganda, and I like the feel of East Africa. I feel that my time there was too
short. I might go back to Kenya though”. Boyd felt that he had been attached to this continent.

**Portrait of a lady**

Some people were motivated by the people they met while volunteering. Lolita and Anita revealed their thoughts. The author interviewed them one by one but as both went together to Vanuatu; they had a few things in common in their stories. Lolita was motivated by a woman whom she had never met before. The woman lived on the island and had a heroic mission for her community.

I think the stories about this woman who’d set up really a self-help group, a mother who had a child with a disability herself and she’d set up what really was a self-help group and was helping a lot of other children just by using a bit of mother sense I suppose, common sense and working with a large number of children with disabilities and so that’s my passion, children with disabilities, that’s my passion here. So it’s really been my passion somewhere else.

Similar to Lolita, Anita was also impressed by the same woman who was trying to change her kid’s life and the community where she lived. Their friend, a doctor, told them a story.

I have a friend who is a medical practitioner doctor and he volunteers through Intermed and they go to poorer third world countries to go and give medical services. He went to Vanuatu to this island Santo in 2009 or 2008 I’m not quite sure which year, and came back and told us the story of his visit and in particular told us about a woman that had had a premature child and when her child was born it was still at the stage where they used to hide people with disabilities, and she decided she wasn’t going to hide her daughter and so she trained her as best she could, with no training or knowledge, just mother’s instinct, not much support from her husband either, because he at that stage was still in the old belief that this child should be hidden away and not made public.

Anita continued her story.
In particular he told us about a woman who had had a premature child and when her child was born it was still at the stage where they used to hide people with disabilities, and she decided she wasn’t going to hide her daughter and so she trained her as best she could, with no training or knowledge, just mother’s instinct, not much support from her husband either, because he at that stage was still in the old belief that this child should be hidden away and not made public.

Then this woman decided if she can help her daughter she can help other people as well, so she went around the island gathering all the children she could with disabilities, brought them to her home and just with what came naturally to her assisted people to know how to train their children.

Her daughter was already in her teens by this stage and was going to a normal school, but she was still continuing with this assistance to others.

I just heard the story and I thought I can do something for them as well. So from there we made contact with them and found out that they had a need for wheelchairs, so we contacted Wheelchairs for Kids which is a not-for-profit organisation in Perth that makes wheelchairs for third world countries and rough terrain wheelchairs and we contacted them, got some of their wheelchairs and we started going over.

Lolita, Anita, and the team came back for the second time to Vanuatu in the following year. For this journey, Lolita explained the reason:

Oh yes we’d met the people first time, we had to go back and see how they were doing. There’s more work to do. More children needed wheelchairs. We gave wheelchairs the first time, we needed to go and see how they were going twelve months later. We’ll go to the same location. We’ll do a similar thing there so we’ll provide wheelchairs, we’ll provide therapy, we’ll do training.

Lolita visited the same community in Vanuatu as Anita. She admitted: “Yes, we’d been asked to go back and do some more training so we went back and did that. So really I’ve got a vested interest there now. Part of my heart has been left there”. Why was it Vanuatu again? Lolita explained.

Because we’ve made connections there. Because we know the people and we want to work with them again. Well we’ve met them, we know them, they’re friends now and also part of what draws me back is that I’ve seen the huge need and I know there’s just a huge ongoing need that my two weeks
there and the people that I take with me, I know can make a small difference. The people are beautiful. I love the people.

For both Anita and Lolita, there was a personal connection and investment formed which motivated the return visit. While Anita and Lolita were motivated by a woman who had a hero spirit, Sean was motivated by elephants.

I’d say it was for the experience. I’ve always had a passion for elephants. The location of it was half way between Bangkok and Cha Am, which is where I was sort of aiming to get to. The price, compared to other projects, appeared reasonable as well because I’d seen projects in the north of Thailand up near Chiang Mai and they were charging maybe two, three hundred pounds or more for a similar experience. And with this one, there seemed to be more variety. It was very hands-on with the elephants, where for some of them you were still between barriers. So this was much more of a hands-on role and there were opportunities there – well, that’s not why I chose it – but I chose it because it was the hands-on experience, it was on the way, it seemed a reasonable cost.

A figure with a great story can be a strong attraction for some people to be affiliated with. Anita and Lolita were impressed with a local heroine in a random place, who struggled with her poor daughter. Eventually, she was not only able to sort out her daughter’s problem, but also other people who had the same situation. Anita and Lolita came helping to make this local figure’s work easier aiding her people. A strong attraction to the needy also happened to Sean. He fell in love with elephants. Therefore, volunteering in a wild conservation was to fulfil his dream, to obtain a hand-on experience, feeding, bathing, and interacting with elephants.

**There’s something about ‘V’**

‘V’ is for volunteering (Simha, Topuzova, & Albert, 2011): a VT project. Some respondents were interested in VT because they are motivated by a certain volunteer project in a destination.
Sean’s curiosity about elephants became high and higher. He wondered about a project related to elephants for his future travelling. He got a taste for wildlife experience in Africa. But for him, that was not sufficient.

I went specifically to look for elephants projects, but not specifically to the charity, because I didn’t know which charities did it or didn’t. It was through using the internet that I found out. I think I typed into Google something like, elephant volunteering charities, or something like that into Google and then from there it came up with some and from that, then I looked at what was on offer, how much it was going to be, what that kind of included, whether it included accommodation, whether it included meals, you know, things like that.

A project can’t stand alone. It’s attached with a price, the promise of excitement, and is a hands-on job.

And as I say, primarily what you’re actually doing, because if you’re going to be there Africa] and you’re working for maybe one hour a day, then you wouldn’t really have any interaction with the animals, where for this one, they said you’d be working 12 hour days, you’d be, you know, hands-on.

When Sean was asked about his feeling concerning his work with the elephant project, he said:

To me, it’s just a completely unique experience. As I say, to be that sort of close to such a wild animal, sort of thing. I mean, we were there, we had bananas and things that literally you’d put just straight into the animal’s mouth. A few weeks before I’d been in Africa and I’d just been charged by an elephant and if you see how wild they can be and then to see them there, enough to be able to go up and just sort of help them and everything like that, it was amazing.

The author wondered whether Sean’s motivation to be in this project was influenced by his previous job or education background.

Certainly not my previous job because I used to work as an accountant. So, not that. I think when I was younger, you know, I always enjoyed going to the zoo, things like that, sort of seeing animals and I think there was always that thing of, you know, there’s always you and the barrier between them,
where to actually get to the other side of that barrier. So maybe some sort of childhood experience, but yeah, certainly not from the job or anything.

Apparently, Sean’s past work or education experience has had little influence on his motivation to engage in VT. Further, he admitted, “I think as well, because in London the year before I came away, there’s a charity called the Elephant Family’s fundraising”, an event that was organised by The Elephant Family, a UK based organisation that helps community and NGOs in Asia to save elephants and their habitats. They organise events to raise people’s awareness and attract them to donate. One of the events in London was attended by Sean.

They raise money for animal awareness, like around the world and stuff to try and stop them becoming endangered and things like that. And they organised a massive charity thing around London where they built sort of big statues of elephants – placed 200 of them around London, auctioned them off and we were round sort of looking at all the elephants and sort of like handed out leaflets for the charity and stuff like that. So, I don’t know, like you sort of find out a bit more about the elephant through that.

Sean volunteered in that event. “There we were just sort of like handing out leaflets and just raising awareness”. His motivation was “the passion for the animals really. Just a passion for the animals and sort of raising the awareness of what they were doing”.

Eve was also motivated by a project.

I decided to join this event since I realized that I share the same vision and mission with 1N3B. It became a bonus when the event was held in a remote area, a challenging place that I never visited before. The place choice does not a matter to me. My first priority is voluntary.

Eve explains her feeling.

By joining the project I feel my life is more meaningful; besides, I feel fortune to have the opportunity working with other volunteers. It’s a complete package which consists of team work, volunteerism, and experience to know further about my country and the people as well, I am very grateful because of that.
“It was challenging”, Lolita said. She was motivated by the project too. “We paid the cost, we just did a little bit of fundraising to get some money and then we paid for it out of the fundraising”. Lolita and friends went back to Vanuatu the following year. “The second time? It was mainly because we felt we wanted to follow up on what we had done the previous year”. Again, it was the personal connection and investment that was formed and the desire to ‘check’ up on this investment that motivated a second trip. Lolita mentioned she was impressed by the first project. However, she considered the activities she has done needed some improvements. Lolita reports that she and the team expanded the second year journey. “We did more training for the field workers, the people that were going out, because it’s very bushy and difficult to get to various villages and we go to the main town and then we train people that go out to the different areas”. To achieve her goal, the team conducted a lot of trainings and also provided some more wheelchairs to the island. Lolita continued. “Then we also were working with one of the people from Wheelchairs for Kids who actually went with us this year and did a bit of work as well”.

**Affordable price**

Earlier, Sean identified that price was one aspect he considered to go to a volunteer project in Thailand. “I paid 570 UK Sterling for two weeks”. This was a figure that Sean believed was affordable and made sense.

Yes. I think that sort of price was reasonable, around about £250 a week. I think reasonable, especially compared with other ones. I know one I saw working with lions in Africa, that one’s advertised and that was nearly £1000 for two weeks. So I found the price reasonable and they provide the accommodation, they provide the meals and, you know, you do the work.

On the site, Sean met other young foreign volunteers who gave their opinion on pricing. Sean said: “The only real barrier that I can see for most people would be the
financial barrier”. For younger people, money might be a matter for a consideration, while for seniors it might not.

Senior volunteers Ally, Anita, Lolita, and Mia did not reveal that money really mattered for them. However, unilaterally, they indicated that money may be one of aspects they considered. For example, Ally was happy because she found free volunteering in India. She contacted an orphanage, and she paid nothing but her personal expenditure.

By undertaking this style of volunteering, Ally could donate her money according to the needs of the orphanage. Anita and Lolita chose a similar method to Ally’s. They contacted a host organisation in a country destination and appraised by themselves how much money they had to spend; while for Mia, to get around the spending, she was willing to use a cheap flight so she could volunteer regularly in the destination country.

From these experiences, it is clear that a high price can be a constraint but a reasonable price may motivate people to be involved in VT. To find a reasonable price, the internet was a source of comparison and a place to seek out as much information as possible.

**Religious reason**

Some respondents were engaged in VT due to religious motivations. Anny, Jeff, and Lolita expressed their thoughts.

Oh, I love to do missions. I would like to do it again in the future if I can. If I can talk about religion, that’s because I want to. I feel that I’d love to be able to help other people, and I mean it’s quite similar to a lot of other religions that help people and that they have an opportunity to do that, and I’m always interested in helping. Secondly’ I feel that I’m being called forward to do it, you know, to do something in that particular team – Anny

Motivation is very much related to what we believe. So the primary thing is actually exploring the possibility of long-term mission work; and secondly, I think it was something that we felt that God was calling us to do at that time. We didn’t have children at that time and we had the ability to leave work for
a short time, for six months, and go and try this. Travelled there and worked and gave up our time. So the major motivation is our faith – Jeff

Anita and I both felt a real Christian call and we were called from God to do that. That’s not the path it came through but when Anita heard that information she just knew that she was going and she told me and I just knew that I was going, very definitely – Lolita

**VT as a stepping stone**

Boyd considered that engaging in VT could be a stepping stone to having what he considered a dreaming job, and he had a reason. “I would like to possibly work for the UN [United Nations]. [It] would be kind of dreamy, but I feel that projects like these aren’t that beneficial – obviously they’re beneficial, but I feel I prefer large scale projects that impact on more people”. working to gain skills and experience on the smaller VT type projects was Boyd was of preparing himself for the more important, larger projects conducted by the UN.

**The provider**

Boyd revealed that he was motivated by the size of the volunteer organiser. He explained: “I need to look into it more, I think. I need to find an organisation that I will be able to find out people’s experiences, and find out whether they think it was well organised”. Further, Boyd mentioned that he badly wanted to be a volunteer under an international organisation like UN. He told me the reason: “That’s different. Experience is experience. Larger [organisation] one, I would experience. And I feel bigger organisations would be more organised”.

**5.7. Constraints to becoming involved in VT**

This qualitative study found some constraints to becoming involved in VT. In general, the barriers can be categorised into: perceived constraint, for example, the concept itself of VT as a barrier, and factual constraints, for example, time, money, distance, and language constraints.
The concept of VT as barrier

The concept of VT, which allowed participants to volunteer and tour in the same journey, is unacceptable or not appropriate for some respondents. These respondents just could accept the notion of combining a holiday with volunteering and therefore the concept was not one they would consider.

I wouldn’t want to mix my holiday with volunteering – Jenny

I don’t even think about constraints because to me the concept is just merely impossible – Tio

I cannot buy this service [volunteer tourism] because I can’t focus, I’m in my dream world of holidaying and all of a sudden someone comes and says: “Do this volunteering job”. That’s the constraint. It has nothing to do with money in my case, if I had to do volunteering I can do it but it would be half hearted so I won’t be able to enjoy it. And because I carry this image about volunteering which will not be satisfied if I’m forced to do working and holidaying then I will be full of dissatisfaction as well. Doing it half-hearted, being dissatisfied. It’s more of an emotional side, I think, than the money side – Amar

Time constraints

The notion of a time poor society came to the fore here. Respondents said that time could be a constraint for them to be engaged in a VT project because family, partners, and/or works required their time.

We arrived in India this year to volunteer at a school. The day we started volunteering my mother fell over and injured herself. Her leg and things have gone down since then. So I wanted to go back. You know, we stayed for the month for we felt guilty because the rest of the family was looking after my elderly parents. If my parents didn’t need my help here, then I could go – Jemima

Well we’ve just had a kid so that’s taking up most of our energy and attention. So I think it has been not that easy to think very far into the future at this point in life. It probably will change – Jeff
Relationships can get a little bit strained. If I went away by myself for three or four months, it would be hard on a girlfriend I had at the time, as I’m sure you could imagine. There’s not a lot I can think of - Boyd

Very difficult to find a volunteering job and holiday together because it’s a very long serving [the volunteer tourism project] while there’s only ten days a year for this [holiday] – Poy

Given the circumstances and the time, if I have the money and I have the time to do it. Because normally, as I said, it’s a three weeks to four weeks trip, and sometimes I just don’t have three weeks on spend to that – Anny

Money matters

The need for financial stability became a definite barrier to stop people from engaging in VT. Sean wished he could volunteer abroad over and over again to taste the experience. He realised that to access that chance again, he should have a lot of money. Sean was not alone. According to him, most of the participants (on his VT camp) were also concerned about finance: “Finance, yes, because obviously to go on these projects, they’re not cheap. The only real barrier that I can see for most people would be the financial barrier”.

Other respondents also mentioned that money could be a constraint for them to travel and volunteer.

I wouldn’t have budgeted fully to be able to foot the bill to do a very good job volunteering. Yeah, so I wouldn’t be ready to take that up at all, yeah – Jenny

Because of my current situation, I’m an international student here not that well settled down yet. So financial is part of the reason. That’s the reason for my decision. But after I’m settled down well, yeah, I will consider it then – Susi

It’s very constrained in financial matters, so I put holidays and voluntary work next after I have put myself in good standing. That’s what I do. Yeah, it’s basically because of financial position. I’m here on my own with the three children, so there’s nobody who helps me with that – Liza

The costs are prohibitive. That’s all. It’s hard to come up with $5000 or $6000 – Boyd
Financial problems and time because we have to pay the money then maybe I can’t afford it – Jill

For those who had experienced in VT more than once, they knew how to deal with financial barriers. Some of them had had saved money for years, as Sean said: “In my own circumstance, there wasn’t a barrier to be involved before the program, on the basis that I had the finances available. Had I not then that would have been the barrier that would have stopped me”. Or, like Ally said: “We work for two years to save our money so we can go somewhere”.

Distance

Another constraint identified by a respondent was distance. Tina wished to go to Chile for volunteering. But, “Probably time and money are the key ones there, and maybe distance as well”. Tina continued: “Chile’s quite a long way away. So if I wanted to head over to Chile I’ve got to think about how long it’s going to take me to get there. The fact that is it’s on the other side of the world”.

Language

Jill, a new international student in Australia, from China, admitted that she had no confidence in communicating in English if she was involved in volunteer tourism in Australia. “I am afraid it is my English. I can’t communicate very fluently. I want to help people but if they can’t understand me, that is a big problem. So, that is another thing why it stops me”.

Fang assumed that language would be one of the biggest constraints for her to be involved in volunteering if the event occurred overseas. “I would be thinking about the language barrier”. Fang continued. She was frequently acting as a host for some international volunteers from the USA visiting her home country. She helped those visitors, for example, by driving them to a destination, but without saying anything.
In fact, language was a serious constraint to building communication between volunteer tourists and the needy. This was experienced by Anita and Lorna when they did volunteering overseas, and even for Devi who did volunteering in her own country.

So those were the kind of barriers we had to overcome. Other than that communication methods are quite slow, we basically have to rely on internet. And internet in Vanuatu is very unreliable. So we find when we’re there you can have internet one minute and then next minute it’s dropped out. It’s very unreliable and people don’t live on their internet and email like the Australians do. You might send an email and the person might only read it in a week’s time which means that if you’re needing an answer pretty quickly, you’re probably not going to get it by the time you need it. We learnt from our first experience – second time round that we have to build in a lot more time to prepare and to make our arrangements – Anita

When we’re there sometimes we have difficulties with communicating because not many of them speak straight English. Some of them speak French, some of them speak English, and most of them speak different dialects of Bislama so depending on where you are depends on the dialect. So sometimes we’re not totally sure that they understand what we’re trying to say but we just push on and carry on with that – Lorna

A significant constraint that we faced during the event was mostly language. Most villagers speak local language or if they speak ‘bahasa’ (Indonesian language) it is just a little. So that we don’t know exactly how effective our conversation during delivering the healthcare service, or story telling in educational program – Devi

Respondents, who organised their VT projects alone, indicated that some unpleasant situations occurred during the preparation and in a volunteer destination. Although these situations were not fully detailed in the discussions, some of these constraints could be avoided by utilising a profit or non-profit volunteer vacation organisation’s assistance with a place to go and provide travel and other needs. This could reduce this constraint and increase their convenience, safety, and security and also save the time and energy. Nevertheless, these respondents chose to organise their own style of volunteering overseas.
5.8. **Psychographic profile**

Respondents were asked whether they considered themselves adventurous or not. In addition, they were asked to describe their perceptions of the characteristics of a volunteer tourist.

**The adventurers**

Most of respondents admitted that they were adventurous. The understanding of adventurous was different across respondents. Some might feel adventurous when they were in the middle of high tides sailing on a small boat. Others felt adventurous when they did solo travelling. ‘Adventure’ had many shapes, many gradations. This illustrated in the following quotes:

- Yes I am a little bit – Lolita
- A hundred per cent adventurous – Ally
- Yes I think I am adventurous, but there’s a condition, I like to have somebody with me. Or, just encouraging me – Anita

- Yes, I am adventurous and also creative – Jenny
- Yes – Liza, Jemima, Tony
- Yes, a careful adventurous – Fang
- Yeah, in some way – Tere
- Yes, I am a planned adventurer – Amar
- Yes. I like tasting the other people’s cuisine, I like trying new things, I love doing water sports, and I don’t sort of sit by the pool and sip drinks, I like to get out and do things. Even in the evenings we tended to go for walks or investigate the neighbourhood – Lorna

- Yes. I don’t think we’ve ever taken holidays that consisted of going to really expensive hotels and sitting round the pool all day, I can’t imagine anything worse really so we tend to do bushwalking. Even when we go to visit family in North Wales we tend to be out walking in the mountains – Jake

- Yes, I consider myself as an adventurous traveller. I prefer to travel to uncommon destination or to the place that most people might not go and enjoy to mingle freely with local – Devi

- Yeah, I think so. Yes. Yeah. And certainly since I’ve started travelling I’m certainly open to a lot more experiences and certainly in the last eight, nine
months I’ve done more probably than the last eight, nine years. So, very open to adventure. Very much looking – Sean

More or less yes, because I love exploring things. I love entering some kind of a new or different world: geographically, demographically, spiritually, culturally and also culinary – Vida

I always try to explore the new place, such as what’s around the school-place where we stay, go to church where people go, visit their house and have a little chat with them, taste their traditional food, go to an hour walking distance water fall where the trek is very challenging – Eve

To a certain degree. Now I’m probably more wary of a lot of things as in if I was younger of course, I would maybe go more sailing or things like that. Today, I just would like to sit back and help in these fields, but probably not be so adventurous to actually continue, because I haven’t continued on an everyday, every weekend. I still like to do things, but differently – Ginger

Yes, reasonably. I love to travel. I like to experience new places and new foods and cultures so I guess that way I’m adventurous – Jeff

Yes, any exciting things. When I was in China I can’t do anything alone or kind of dangerous so why I like adventure interest because I [have] never done adventure things, but I think when I finish this course I will try to backpack. It is kind of adventure I think because just backpack with everything and work, travel around. I like this kind of feeling because you have got freedom. If I don’t have money I can just help whoever and earn some money and then I can catch up my journey – Jill

Sometimes. Not all the time. Okay, so I think that sometimes I like to be in my comfort zone, I like to know what’s going on. I like to know that I have a plan and this is the way that my future is going to pan out, but I mean, I also… I want to move overseas, I want to travel, I want to go all these places that people would consider risky. So I think I’m not adventurous all the time, but there’s a little bit of an adventurous aspect to me – Tina

Eve referred to her experience travelling to Mentawai Islands, West Sumatra. She demonstrated how she and the team had reached Madobag village, one of the venues chosen for volunteering. Eve said, if someone was not adventurous, he or she would not take a journey like she did.

It’s two hours by plane [from Jakarta] to Padang; Nine hours by ferry to Sipora Island; Two hours by boat to Siberut Island; and four hours by ‘pompong’ [a very small boat without engine] going through the river to the
Madobag village. Life is completely separated from the outer world for three days.

Anny rated herself as a slightly adventurous person: “Not that adventurous. Like, not too adventurous, but adventurous”. She explained. “I’m adventurous in the sense of I’d like to try new things, I don’t mind if people suggest to go somewhere else new. I don’t mind it, even camping, or to different villages or doing some risky sports and things like that”. To support her idea, Anny also told a story about her travelling to the Netherlands, for two months to visit her boyfriend. “At that time I didn’t have any money so I thought it was quite an adventurous thing of me! Well I had enough money for the flights and everything”.

Although the majority of respondents claiming that they were adventurous, there was a small number who admitted that they were not adventurous. Leo said his life had changed since he was older.

I was an adventurer when I was very young, but now when I’m getting older every year I’m more careful. Like when we were in the Brown Brother’s property and they wanted to go motorbike riding on their own property, I refused. I said no, because just in case we get hurt. If I were younger I would do anything.

Liam reported that he was courageous rather than adventurous. This was a distinctive difference and one that relevant in the context of his international volunteer work.

I was there [New Guinea] to help people because we knew that they needed the help. So that was the motivation for going. I’m not an adventurer that will go and skydive, or bungee jump, or just go somewhere for the sheer adventure of it. But at the same time I’m courageous enough, if you like. Because with the one in Papua New Guinea I was challenged by a Rotarian to go, because he said “You bloody doctors, you’re all the same, you’re a mob of wimps”. And I said “What do you mean?” He said “We need doctors on the western border with the refugees”. And it was in guerrilla warfare country, and he said a number of doctors had promised to go but all pulled out. And I said “I’ll go”. So I went up there, not having any idea where I was going.
A volunteer tourist’s characteristics as perceived

In the focus groups, respondents were asked their perceptions of volunteer tourists – persons who like volunteering during or for a holiday. As outlined in Chapter Three (see section 3.8) a projective technique was used to uncover respondents’ perceptions of a VT. Figure 5.1 below indicates the characteristics of a volunteer tourist as perceived by the respondents, and the ‘place’ on the body they were located by the focus group participants. The author grouped all the characteristics based on themes, for example, for the head area, respondents located ‘successful, experienced, mature, and expert’; for the chest area, respondents located ‘generous, altruistic, spiritual, and religious’.

![Characteristics of a volunteer tourist as perceived by focus group participants](image)

**Figure 5.1 Characteristics of a volunteer tourist as perceived by focus group participants**

Based on the characteristics revealed by respondents, in general, volunteer tourists were considered:
1) **People who love adventure.** The descriptors included: explorer; explorer-minded (always striving to find a new experience); like to adventure; adventure; outgoing;

2) **People who love nature.** The descriptors here included: interested in culture, people, places; people who wish to authentically experience another culture, life, beliefs;

3) **People who love people.** This included: able to connect with community groups; good communication; people-minded; easy-going; people who enjoy walking/being with other people; can get along with others; friendly; altruistic; charity; generous; good heart; compassionate; sharing; have something/experience to share with others; have firm belief that he/she can help; helpful; humanitarian; people who have skills to offer others; caring; people who believe that by helping other help everyone; people who like to make a difference to others; willing to do a good thing; think of others; understanding other people; aware of customs and beliefs; benevolence; kind; large heart; empathetic; generosity;

4) **Religious people.** The descriptors were: religion; spiritual (religious);

5) **Free people.** The statements included: retired; less burden in life (no child, senior parents, etc.); have enough time; single; enjoy personal life; good at balancing work and leisure time; selfishness; mature; maturity; stubborn concerning objectives; egalitarian;

6) **Self-sufficient people.** The statements included: independent; healthy; good health; well-built; rich (financially settled), enough money, financially stable; successful; have expertise; honest; passionate; optimising; experience; broad-minded, open-minded, open-minded/broad-minded; energise; enthusiasm; enthusiastic; educated; knowledgeable; life learning; people who like to learn; visionary;
5.9. Summary of chapter five

In response to the research objective to explore and gain insights into VT, this chapter presents a discussion on respondents’ attitudes toward the concept VT, subjective norms, motivation, and intention to be involved in VT, as well as respondents perception of volunteer tourists’ characteristics. The qualitative data revealed a range of attitudes toward the concept of VT: some respondents disagree with the concept of mixing volunteering and tourism activities concurrently. They saw VT as a completely giving activity and therefore it would not mix with the relaxing ‘taking’ aspect of a holiday. There was a perception that volunteering was ‘working’ and tourism was for holidaying; some partially disagree with the concept; some agreed with the concept as it was important and fun; some partially agreed with the concept. They considered although VT was great, but there were some negative side effects, for example, working with children for a short time meant that they had to leave and perhaps would break the children's heart once they felt close to the volunteers. These respondents felt that VT was great but detrimental, concerns such as health, safety and financial matters were discussed.

Furthermore, a number of respondents were variety seeking individuals that considers the VT an alternative to the ‘club med holiday’ (see section 5.3.3. Denise). These respondents emphasised the benefits to the VT, with gaining day-to-day culture insight, helping others and gaining practical experience as advantages of VT. These respondents were in strong agreement with the concept of VT and highlighted the growth of the concept particularly within the younger age groups. This was stimulated by high school VT projects and gap year VT promotions.

Word of mouth had an important role in inspiring and encouraging those who had experience in VT. Volunteer tourists were engaged in VT because previously their friends, family members, spouse, colleagues, and seniors at university informed about their experiences. This led to the importance of subjective norms in involvement process in VT. WOM was often a catalyst for seeking more information about the process of VT.
Further, respondents were asked about their intentions to be involved in VT in the near future. The results were presented in a stage of readiness form. *Precontemplation* was for those who were not interested in VT and even they were against to the concept of the VT; *contemplation* stage was for those who were interested in VT and in searching process for information about VT; *action stage* was for those who had undertaken a VT project in the last three years; and *maintenance stage* was for those who had an experience previously and they had an intention to take another VT project. Some of them, indeed, were in a preparation to departing for a new journey.

For those who had an intention, they were asked about their motivation to engage in VT. Their motivations can be categorised into taking/receiving motivation, giving motivation, and taking/receiving and giving motivation. These are listed here for reference:

1) Taking/receiving motivation, included:
   - To experience adventuring, great time, great activities.
   - I’ll have a chance to see a different country, a different place, and culture.
   - I’d like to see more of my Australia because I feel that there are some places that we speak about and we read about but I actually want to put my feet there and say this is beautiful.
   - I like the feel of East Africa.
   - I’ve always had a passion for elephants. I chose [an elephant conservation] because it was a hands-on experience.
   - I decided to join to this event [VT] since I realised that I shared the same vision and mission with 1N3B [a traveller organisation].

2) Giving motivation, included:
   - I’ve always wanted to do a kind of payback; I want to give back to the society; to give to other people.
   - I want to help someone; [to] help others; I feel that I’d love to able to help other people; I’m always interested in helping; to help somebody who is in a difficult situation
   - I want to be able to give something to other people.
- I think it’s my desire to reach people that don’t have to make their lives better for them.
- I want to contribute to the society.
- I’m very skilled. I have a lot of knowledge in that area and I’m very happy to share.
- I can give you my time. I can give you my expertise in my area, and I’m willing to do whatever you want me to do.
- It’s my nature to want to be able to share some of that with people who are less fortunate.
- We wanted to follow up on what we had done the previous year.
- The price was reasonable and they provide the accommodation and the meals.

3) Taking/receiving and giving (TRG) motivations, included:
- I try to make the world a better place for one person and that will make me a better person.
- It’s a two way learning: I learn from them and they learn from me.
- I have something that they need and they have something that I need.
- We hale each other to give each other want we need.
- When I help someone, I also learn something from them.
- I like to learn from people and I like people to learn from what I know.

4) Religious motivation:
- I’d love to do missions.
- I feel that I’m being called forward to do it; I think it was something that we felt that God was calling us to do at that time; I felt a real Christian call and we were called from God to that.
- It is very much related to what we believe; the major motivation is our faith.

For those who had no intention, they were asked about their constraints to be involved in VT. Their answers included: their refusal to the concept of VT as well as time, finance, distance, and language constraints.
The last topic discussed in this chapter was the characteristics of volunteer tourists. Respondents were asked to describe their perceptions on volunteer tourists’ characteristics. This uncovered a vast amount of descriptive data. The responses were categorised into the following characteristics of VTs: people who love adventure, people who love nature, people who love people, religious people, free people, and self-sufficient people.

Chapters four and five have presented the qualitative findings relating to the objective to explore and gain insights into VT. One further objective of the qualitative phase was to enrich the development of the quantitative measurement instrument. The next chapter presents the methodology for the quantitative stage includes the items of the instruments for each variable tested. The qualitative study results were adopted, confirmed, and justified to support the instrument development. The next chapter also describes the hypotheses development. The hypotheses were developed based on the literature on tourism, volunteerism, and VT and the findings from the qualitative phase of this study as presented in Chapters Four and Five.
Chapter six  

Research methodology: Quantitative stage and hypotheses development

6.1. Chapter overview

This chapter provides information concerning the quantitative phase of the study. The previous findings from the qualitative phase have been used to develop the instrument (questionnaire) used in this data collection method. The chapter includes the following information: quantitative data collection methods used in the web based survey, instrument development, quantitative data analysis methods using SPSS (Allen & Bennett, 2010; Blunch, 2008; Coakes et al., 2010; Pallant, 2010) (version 19) and AMOS (Blunch, 2008; Holmes-Smith, 2010) (version 19), respondent criteria, respondent recruitment methods via convenience sampling and chain referral, feedback on the survey, and a pilot study.

Furthermore, this chapter provides two other important bases to this study: Firstly, the hypotheses to be tested. In total, there were 16 hypotheses in the model, involving 10 variables (this number increased after conducting exploratory factor analysis. See Chapter Eight). Each hypothesis is specified and reinforced with reference to the literature. Referring to the literature review chapter (Chapter Two), the following three groups of hypotheses were examined:

1) Intention was influenced by attitude, subjective norms, sensation-seeking personality, motivation, factual constraints, and perceived constraints (section 2.4).

2) Motivation was influenced by attitude and sensation-seeking personality (section 2.5).

3) Stage of readiness was influenced by attitude, intention, sensation-seeking personality, social class, motivation, past experience, perceived constraints, and factual constraints (section 2.8).
Secondly, this chapter presents a proposed model that was shaped based on the literature in tourism, volunteerism, and VT. This chapter then concludes by summarising the key points of the methodology discussed within.

6.2. Data collection methods

A web-based survey was chosen and the questionnaire was developed using the Qualtrics survey web service. As this was an electronic survey, respondents were treated as a self-selected sample who participated by completing and returning the internet questionnaire (Landwehr & Swift, 1987). This type of survey method was chosen after considering the following advantages:

1) It is visually attractive (Jansen, Corley, & Jansen, 2007; Tuten, 1997; Van Selm & Jankowski, 2006) and sophisticated (Gaiser & Schreiner, 2009). The author chose one of the optional colourful template designs. Figure 6.1 (see below) indicates a screenshot of how the questionnaire was presented using Qualtrics. Each page is to entice response and engagement with the questionnaire.

2) The web-based survey had time and place flexibility.

3) VT is a niche product of tourism or an alternative type of voluntary work. To promote this, organisations use internet-based communication. In addition, potential participants also use the internet to obtain information about this product. Applying a web-based survey matched with the nature of the VT participant-organisation-community communication type.

4) The method allowed respondents to promote the survey link by forwarding it to their networks. Some respondents initially asked permission from the author to pass the link to their friends and family members.

5) The method was designed to obtain only completed questionnaire. Qualtrics recorded the completed questionnaires and sent them to an initial report,
whereas the uncompleted ones stayed in the ‘in progress’ folder. This feature avoided missing data.

6) The method guaranteed the participants’ privacy and confidentiality (Andrews, Nonnecke, & Preece, 2003; Sue & Ritter, 2007). Once respondents completed the questionnaire, they could submit it by pushing a button without leaving any information that could lead to certain individuals.

7) The method was relatively inexpensive (Amar, 2008; Gaiser & Schreiner, 2009; Sue & Ritter, 2007; Tuten, 1997; Van Selm & Jankowski, 2006).

8) The method allowed the author to gather responses from potential respondents as soon as the questionnaire link was submitted (Amar, 2008; Jansen et al., 2007; Sue & Ritter, 2007; Tuten, 1997).

9) The method allowed the author to sample a larger number of respondents (Gaiser & Schreiner, 2009; Jansen et al., 2007).

10) The method allowed the author to conduct a survey in a very practical way (Amar, 2008; Gaiser & Schreiner, 2009; Jansen et al., 2007; Tuten, 1997; Van Selm & Jankowski, 2006), avoiding having to print the questionnaire, fold it, send it via mail post, or enter and code the data. The software helped the author reduced all those activities and also avoided transcription errors (Gaiser & Schreiner, 2009).

11) The method allowed the author to promote the survey to many groups and organisations in virtual social media networks (Gaiser & Schreiner, 2009; Sue & Ritter, 2007).
6.3. Survey instrument and hypotheses development

This section outlines the instrument constructs, the scales to be used in the web-based survey, and the references. The following constructs were used for pilot study purposes only. In total, this chapter shows nine variables and each has scales, questions, item statements or questions, and references. In addition, this section also presents hypotheses to be tested.

6.3.1. Attitude towards VT concept

Ten items were used to measured attitude. Respondents were asked their opinion about the following definition of the concept of VT: Volunteer tourism is a combination of volunteer and tourism activities at a travel destination. This often requires a participant to pay some or all costs involved, such as transport, accommodation, meals, and possibly some financial contribution to the actual
Volunteer tourism: A moment to give, no moment to take

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project (Broad & Jenkins, 2008; Hobbs, 2007; E. Raymond, 2008; Tourism Research and Marketing, 2008; Wearing, 2001). The wording was adjusted due to feedback from the qualitative phase of the study. Seven-option bipolar semantic scales from Han, Lee, and Lee (2011) were provided. Intentionally, the items were presented in a different order. Some items were ordered in in positive-negative value formations; others were negative-positive value formations. The items of attitude on the concept of VT as follows:

- Enjoyable – unenjoyable
- Invaluable – valuable
- Uninteresting – interesting
- Desirable – undesirable
- Unpleasant – pleasant
- Unforgettable – forgettable
- Unreasonable – reasonable
- A charity project – a business project
- Suitable for all age groups – suitable only for certain age group
- Advantageous – disadvantageous.

Studies in tourism and recreation conducted by Hrubes, Ajzen, and Daigle (2001), Lam and Tsu (2006), and Brown (1999) reported that attitude may influence intention. Furthermore, Tsai (2010b) showed a link between attitude and motivation and between attitude and stage of behaviour. These studies led to the following hypotheses:

- H1a – There is a positive relationship between a person’s attitude towards the concept of VT and their intention to be involved in VT.
- H1b – There is a positive relationship between a person’s attitude towards the concept of VT and their motivation to be involved in VT.
- H1c – There is a positive relationship between a person’s attitude towards the concept of VT and their stage of readiness to be involved in VT.

6.3.2. Subjective norms

The subjective norms variable was measured by three items adapted from Greenslade and White’s (2005) study. Respondents were asked to assess the
sensation-seeking scale using a seven-point Likert scales, 1 for extremely inaccurate to 7 for extremely accurate. The items of subjective norms are as follows:

- Most people who are important to me would NOT want me to be engaged in volunteer tourism.
- Most people who are important to me would approve of my engaging in volunteer tourism.
- Most people who are important to me would think it was desirable for me to be engaged in volunteer tourism.

According to prior studies in tourism and leisure (for example, Hrubes et al., 2001; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Shen et al., 2009; K.-S. Wu & Teng, 2011), subjective norms may influence intention. These studies led to the following hypothesis of this research:

- **H2** – There is a positive relationship between a person’s subjective norms and their intention to be involved in VT.

### 6.3.3. Intention to become involved in VT

The intention was measured using the probability scale (Juster, 1966) which has been adopted and/or adapted by prior researchers in tourism, media consumption, and marketing (for example, Franke, Keinz, & Steger, 2009; T. J. Holmes & Yan, 2012; Kerr, Cliff, & Dolnicar, 2012; C. Nguyen & Romaniuk, 2012). Respondents were asked to assess their intentions to become involved in VT within 1 year, 3 years, and 5 years. The scale options were as follows:

- Certain, practically certain
- Almost sure
- Very probable
- Probable
- Good possibility
- Fairly good possibility
- Fair possibility
- Some possibility
- Slight possibility
- Very slight possibility
- No chance, almost no chance

Intention has been shown to influence behaviour (in this study behaviour was modified to be stage of readiness). Some studies in tourism, leisure, and
volunteerism undertaken by Tsai (2010a), Hrubes et al. (2001), and Warburton and Terry (2000) support this relation. These studies led to the following hypothesis of this current research:

- H3 – There is a positive relationship between a person’s intention to be involved in VT and their stage of readiness to be involved in VT.

6.3.4. Altruistic lifestyle values

Prior researchers (for example, Gage & Thapa, 2011; Greenslade & White, 2005; Vocino & Polonsky, 2011; Whitehead III, Kitzrow, & Taylor, 2011; J. Wu, Wing Lo, & Liu, 2009) utilised the complete dimensions of the volunteer function inventory (VFI) (protective motives, values, career, social, understanding, and enhancement) (Clary et al., 1998) to measure motivation of volunteers. Due to the qualitative findings and the need for a parsimonious questionnaire, the value dimension of the VFI was used to represent altruistic lifestyle values. The item of this variable as follows:

- I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.
- I am genuinely concerned about a particular group I would like to serve.
- I feel compassion toward people in need.
- I feel it is important to help others.
- I am motivated to do something for a cause that is important to me.

Respondents were asked to assess the value using a seven point Likert scale: 1 for extremely unimportant to 7 for extremely important.

Lifestyle influenced behaviour, according to prior research in tourism and volunteering (for example, Kitamura, 2009; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2004; Salomon & Ben-Aktiva, 1983). In particular, the altruistic lifestyle value was examined in this study due to findings from the qualitative research phase, the VFI scale (XXXX) and the importance of value as studied by Pizam and Calantone (1987). These studies led to the following hypothesis of the current research:

- H4 – There is a positive relationship between a person’s altruistic lifestyle value and their stage of readiness to be involved in VT.
6.3.5. Sensation-seeking personality

Sensation-seeking personality was measured using the Brief Sensation Seeking scale adopted from Wymer Jr., et al. (2010). The item “I like to do frightening things” was changed to “I like to do adventurous things” as suggested by a pilot test of the questionnaire. Respondents were asked to assess the sensation-seeking scale using a seven-point Likert scale, 1 for extremely disagree to 7 for extremely agree. The items of sensation-seeking personality as follows:

Experience seeking
- I would like to explore strange places.
- I get restless when I spend too much time at home.

Disinhibition
- I like to do adventuring things.
- I like wild parties.

Boredom susceptibility
- I would like to take off on a trip with no pre-planned routes or timetables.
- I prefer friends who are excitingly unpredictable.

Thrill and adventure seeking
- I would love to have new and exciting experiences, even if they are illegal.
- I would like to try bungee jumping.

A study undertaken by Wymer, Self, and Findley (2008) showed that there was a relationship between the sensation-seeking personality and intention. Other studies in tourism conducted by Xu (2010) and Xu et al. (2010), reported that sensation-seeking personality influenced motivation. Furthermore, Farré, Lamas, and Cami (1995) claimed that sensation seeking affected behaviour. The studies above led to the following hypotheses:

- **H5a** – There is a positive relationship between a person’s sensation-seeking personality and their intention to be involved in VT.
- **H5b** – There is a positive relationship between a person’s sensation-seeking personality and their motivation to be involved in VT.
- **H5c** – There is a positive relationship between a person’s sensation-seeking personality and their stage of readiness to be involved in VT.
6.3.6. Social class

Social class was measured by asking respondent to subjectively assess three aspects of themselves: level of education, occupation, and annual income. For each aspect, there were the following options provided: upper-upper, lower-upper, upper-middle, lower-middle, upper-lower, and lower-lower as created by Warner, Meeker, and Eells (1960).

Prior studies in tourism, tourism marketing, heritage tourism, and food consumption class indicated that social class may influence behaviour (C. Conner, 2008; Herbert, 2001; Kraus, 1990; Tomlinson, 2003). These studies led to the following hypothesis:

- **H6** – There is a positive relationship between a person’s subjective assessment of their social class and their stage of readiness to be involved in VT.

6.3.7. Motivation to be involved in VT

The motivations to be involved in VT were measured by a compilation of items taken from the Travel Career Ladder (Pearce & Lee, 2005a), and the Volunteer Function Inventory (Clary et al., 1998), Pearce and Lee (2005a), and Bruyere and Rappe (2007). These scales contain two groups of motivations and each group consists of sub-scales. Respondents were asked to assess their motivations using a seven-point Likert scale: 1 for extremely unimportant through to 7 for extremely important. The items used for the motivation construct were:

**Taking motivation**
Sub-dimension: physiological motivations.
- Volunteer tourism would allow me to rest and relax.
- Volunteer tourism would allow me to get away from everyday psychological stress/pressure.
- Volunteer tourism would allow me to be away from daily routine.
- Volunteer tourism would allow me to get away from the usual demands of life.
- Volunteer tourism would allow me to give my mind a rest.
- Volunteer tourism would allow me to not worry about time.
- Volunteer tourism would allow me to get away from everyday physical stress/pressure.
Sub-dimension: protective motivations
- No matter how bad I’ve been feeling, volunteer tourism would help me to forget about it.
- By involving myself in volunteer tourism, I feel less lonely.
- Being involved in volunteer tourism would relieve me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.
- Volunteer tourism would help me work through my own personal problems.
- Volunteer tourism is a good escape from my own troubles.

Sub-dimension: social interaction motivations
- I look forward to the social events that volunteering affords me.
- The social opportunities provided by the agency are important to me.
- Volunteer tourism is a way to build one’s social networks.
- Volunteer tourism provides a way for me to make new friends.

Sub-dimension: self-esteem motivations
- Volunteer tourism would allow me to have a feel-good experience.
- Volunteer tourism would make me feel like a good person.
- Volunteer tourism would make me feel important.
- Volunteer tourism would make me useful.
- Volunteer tourism would keep me busy.

Sub-dimension: understanding motivations
- Volunteer tourism would allow me to gain a new perspective on things.
- Volunteer tourism would allow me to learn things through direct, hands-on experience.
- Volunteer tourism would allow me to learn how to deal with a variety of people.
- Volunteer tourism would allow me to explore my own strengths.

Sub-dimension: self-actualisation/autonomy motivations
- I would be independent.
- I would be obligated to no one.
- I would be doing things my own way.

Giving motivation
Sub-dimension: environmental motivations
- I have a concern for the environment.
- Volunteer tourism would allow me to help the environment.

Sub-dimension: spiritual motivations
- I have a desire to share religious values/beliefs.
- Volunteer tourism allows me to fulfil religious obligation/beliefs.
- It’s God’s expectation.

Sub-dimension: community service motivations
- Volunteer tourism would allow me to develop something sustainable.
- Volunteer tourism would allow me to help community/others.
Volunteer tourism would allow me to give something back to community/others.
Volunteer tourism would allow me to make a difference.
Volunteer tourism would allow me to fulfil moral/social obligations to community/others.

Sub-dimension: project/organisational motivations
• Volunteer tourism allows me to help a project.
• Volunteer tourism allows me to help an organisation.

Studies in tourism show an impact of motivation on intention as reported by Huang and Hsu (2009), Jang et al. (2009), and Konu and Laukkanen (2009). Furthermore, a study conducted by Ooi and Laing (2010) indicated that motivation might influence behaviour. These studies led to the following hypotheses:

- H7a – There is a positive relationship between a person’s motivation to be involved in VT and their intention to be involved in VT.
- H7b – There is a positive relationship between a person’s motivation to be involved in VT and their stage of readiness to be involved in VT.

6.3.8. Past experiences in tourism, volunteerism, and VT
Respondents were asked whether they had taken a holiday, engaged in volunteerism, and/or VT in the last three years. If they had, they were asked about frequencies – once, twice, three times, and more than three times; locations/destinations – domestic, international, and both domestic and international; and methods – solo/alone, with a group of friends/family members, through an agent or a combination of two or more options.

In tourism, past experience impacted on intention as studied by prior researchers (for example, Huang & Hsu, 2009; Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006; Ryu & Jang, 2006; K.-S. Wu & Teng, 2011). Researchers of tourism (for example, Lam & Hsu, 2006; Lehto et al., 2004) also found a link between past experience and behaviour. These studies led to the following hypotheses:

- H8a – There is a positive relationship between a person’s past experience in VT and their intention to be involved in VT.
• H8b – There is a positive relationship between a person’s past experience in VT and their stage of readiness to be involved in VT.

6.3.9. Constraints to being involved in VT

Five statements were adapted from statements used by Kerstetter, Zinn, Gaaefe, and Chen (2002), and the qualitative results found by Taillon (2007) were used to measure the constraints to being involved in VT variable. These were also verified by the qualitative results in this study. Respondents were asked to assess their constraints (in being involved in VT) using a seven-point Likert scale: 1 for extremely disagree through to 7 for extremely agree. The items of constraints as follows:

• I don’t have enough time to be involved in volunteer tourism.
• I don’t want to be involved in volunteer tourism because I don’t know enough about this.
• I, or someone I travel with, is physically unable to be involved in volunteer tourism.
• I don’t want be involved in volunteer tourism because I’ve done it before.
• I have a concern about my safety or security issues.
• I’m not interested.
• I don’t believe that volunteer tourism can help people effectively.
• My family requires my time.

Studies in tourism examined a link between perceived constraints and intention (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005), and between perceived constraints and behaviour (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998), and between constraints and behaviour (Scott & Munson, 1994), these led to the following hypotheses:

• H9a – There is a negative relationship between a person’s constraints to be involved in VT and their intention to be involved in VT.
• H9b – There is a negative relationship between a person’s constraints to be involved in VT and their stage of readiness to be involved in VT.

6.3.10. Stage of readiness to being involved in VT

It was evident from the qualitative results that respondents were at different stages of acceptance and readiness to engage in VT activities. The stage of readiness to become involved in VT was measured by adapting and applying the scale that has
been used by prior researchers (for example, Piasecka, 2006; Prochaska & DiClemente, 1992; Prochaska & Norcross, 2001; Velicer, Hughes, Fava, Prochaska, & DiClemente, 1995). The items for stage of readiness as follows:

- I have never given volunteer tourism much thought.
- I have actively considered being involved in volunteer tourism recently.
- I plan to do volunteer tourism in the next year.
- I have participated in volunteer tourism in the last three years.
- I have involved in volunteer tourism currently.
- I have been involved in volunteer tourism previously and plan to be involved in the future.

6.4. Quantitative data analysis

This subsection describes the strategies and actions taken analyse the quantitative data: the descriptive analysis, is presented in Chapter Seven, with the exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis presented in Chapter Eight.

6.4.1. Respondents’ characteristics

The first action was to analyse the categorical variables that relate to demographic profiles (gender, marital status, education, and employment status), psychographic profile (social class), past experiences (in tourism, volunteerism, and VT), intention, and stage of readiness. This information is presented in Chapter Seven.

6.4.2. Missing data investigation

Though the online questionnaire was designed by only accepting completed entries, five incomplete questionnaires related to the age restriction were found that caused missing data. These data were removed in the first stage of analysis.

6.4.3. Normality test

Further action was taken a normality test (Coakes et al., 2010; Hair Jr. et al., 2006). Data should be normal before any further analysis. However, it might happen that
some data might be imperfectly normal. “Each variable should be approximately normally distributed, although factor analysis is fairly robust against violations of this assumption” (Allen & Bennett, 2010, p. 200). By observing the structural equation model output, normality of data can be indicated (Holmes-Smith, 2010). All data collected in this study were considered normal.

6.4.4. Exploratory factor analysis

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA), using SPSS (version 19) (Allen & Bennett, 2010; Coakes et al., 2010; Hair Jr. et al., 2006; Pallant, 2010) was used to extract the items that provided a reliable measure of the constructs under investigation in this study which included attitude towards the concept of VT, subjective norms, altruistic lifestyle value, sensation-seeking personality, past experience, motivation, and constraints.

The principal extraction method with direct oblimin was used for the rotation method. The coefficient display format was suppressed to 0.3 (L. Coote, 2012), the appropriate value expected. The consequence, if there were any factor loadings values less than 0.3, the item would be deleted (Holmes-Smith, 2010).

6.4.5. Reliability test of exploratory factor analysis results

A reliability test was also conducted for each variable to obtain the Cronbach’s alpha score. Allen and Bennet (2010, p. 15) claimed that “ideally, Cronbach’s alpha should be around 0.9, but anything above 0.7 is considered acceptable for most research purposes.” This reliability test may suggest which items of a certain variable can be really reliable or ambiguous. For future research, those ambiguous items might be deleted or edited. By removing the suggested items, the Cronbach’s alpha was expected to rise.
6.4.6. Confirmatory factor analysis or structural equation modelling

After completing the exploratory factor analysis, the next action was conducting confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Blunch, 2008; Hair Jr. et al., 2006; Hoyle, 1995; Kline, 2010). Information obtained by the EFA was analysed using CFA; also known as structural equation modelling (SEM). CFA was conducted to confirm the EFA result. SEM was used to analyse the quantitative results were for reasons (Holmes-Smith, 2010): the model that was examined was considered big and it involved many variables; there were new and modified items to confirms; and by using SEM, that was unnecessary to use other multi-variate analysis statistics.

Furthermore, in an effort to obtain a fit model, some items were deleted due to standardised regression weights values (Holmes-Smith, 2010). Furthermore, other criteria were also considered, such as extreme values of probability (P) on regression weights and standardised residual covariances. In addition, regression weights values on modification indices were also noticed. Lastly, criteria for a fit model were applied, such as CMIN or chi-square, DF, probability of P, CFI, TLI, RMSEA, and GFI.

This section explains the proposed model examination, adapting the steps identified by Hair Jr. et al. (2006) and Holmes-Smith (2010). The following paragraphs present the steps taken to conduct structural equation model.

Developing a theoretically based model

The proposed model to be tested in this study was developed based on the literature review (Chapter Two) on tourism, volunteerism, and VT. Information from the qualitative phase of the study was also instrumental in the model construction. The author divided the model constructs into two groups: intention as a dependent variable and intention as an independent variable.

As a dependent variable, intention was influenced by other variables, including attitude, subjective norms, altruistic lifestyle value, sensation-seeking personality, past experience, motivation, and constraints. As an independent variable, intention influenced stage of readiness.
**Estimating the structural model**

In this study, maximum likelihood (ML) estimation was used to estimate all models as ML is very common and preferred in SEM (Blunch, 2008; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2007). As ML was chosen, consequently, a large sample size was needed (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2007). Tabachnic and Fidell (2001) mentioned that a minimum sample size is 300 cases. In this study, the number of total cases was 542 and considered as a very good sample size (Comrey & Lee, 1992).

**Structural equation model in tourism, volunteerism, and VT studies**

Before opting for goodness of fit indices for this study, the author randomly picked some studies in tourism (for example, Gross & Brown, 2008; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Ko & Stewart, 2002; T. H. Lee, 2009; Yoon, Gursoy, & Chen, 2001), volunteering (for example, Grano, Lucidi, Zelli, & Violani, 2008; Li & Ferraro, 2005, 2006; Miller, Powell, & Seltzer, 1990; Tang et al., 2010), and VT (for example, Bailey & Russell, 2010; S. J. Lee, 2011) that applied the structural equation model. These researchers identified which indices were the most reported. This is presented in Error! Reference source not found. Table 6.1 below. The structural equation model is commonly used in these three fields of studies. However, there is no strict rule as to which and how many indices should be used in a study apparently. Overall, the most indices reported were $X^2$, df, p, CFI, GFI, and RMSEA.

**Rules of thumb for a fit measure**

The proposed theoretical model was tested using structural equation model and then was modified to obtain a fitted model (Holmes-Smith, 2010). This study applied $X^2$, or CMIN or chi-square, probability (P), $X^2$/df, Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) or Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI),
and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) (see Table 6.1 below for the criteria of each index).

To obtain a fitted model, chi-square ($X^2$) value, or CMIN value, should be at the level of 2:1 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) or 3:1 (Carmines & McIver, 1981); probability value should be between 0.05 and 1.00 (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, & Müller, 2003); $X^2$/DF should be less than 2.00 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Furthermore, a good model fit occurs when the RMSEA value is less than or equal to 0.05 (M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992), whereas Hu and Bentler (1999) suggested RMSEA ≤ 0.6 as the cut-off for a good model fit. For details of other criteria in detail see Table 6.1 below. Other indices are CFI, TLI or NNFI and GFI, which should be closed to 1.00 (Bentler, 1990; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1995, 1999).

Table 6.1 Rules of thumb for a fit measure (adapted from L. Coote, 2012; Holmes-Smith, 2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fit measure</th>
<th>Good fit indices</th>
<th>Authors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$X^2$ or CMIN</td>
<td>$0 \leq X^2 \leq 2.00$</td>
<td>Tabachnick &amp; Fidell, 2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$0 \leq X^2 \leq 3.00$</td>
<td>Carmin &amp; McIver, 1981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$0.05 &lt; P \leq 1.00$</td>
<td>Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, &amp; Müller (2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$X^2$/DF</td>
<td>$0 \leq X^2$/DF $\leq 2.00$</td>
<td>Tabachnick &amp; Fidell, 2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$0 \leq X^2$/DF $\leq 5.00$</td>
<td>Carmin &amp; McIrvan,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TLI or NNFI</td>
<td>$0.97 \leq TLI \leq 1.00$</td>
<td>Bentler and Bonnet, 1980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$0.95 \leq TLI \leq 1.00$</td>
<td>Hu &amp; Bentler (1995)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>$0.97 \leq CFI \leq 1.00$</td>
<td>Bentler, 1990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$0.95 \leq CFI \leq 1.00$</td>
<td>Hu &amp; Bentler (1995)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>$0.95 \leq GFI \leq 1.00$</td>
<td>Miles &amp; Shevlin, 1998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>$0 \leq RMSEA \leq 0.05$</td>
<td>Browne &amp; Cudeck (1992)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$0 \leq RMSEA \leq 0.06$</td>
<td>Hu &amp; Bentler (1999)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.4.7. Item reliability, variance extracted, and discriminant validity

It is suggested that reliability, variance extracted, and discriminant validity tests of items and factors are completed after conducting congeneric model analysis (Hair Jr. et al., 2006).
**Item reliability**

Item reliability was obtained by observing squared multiple correlations of SEM output. Holmes-Smith (2010) outlined the values categories: an item is very poor measure of the factor if the reliability is < 0.2; the item is a poor measure of the factor if the reliability is between is 0.2 – 0.3; the item is weak measure of the factor but adequate if the reliability between is 0.3 – 0.5; and the item is good measure for the factor if the reliability is > 0.5.

**Construct reliability**

The construct reliability test included twelve constructs, using the formulas as follows (Hair Jr. et al., 2006):

$$
Construct\ reliability = \frac{(\sum \text{of Standardised loadings})^2}{(\sum \text{of Standardised loadings})^2 + \sum \text{Indices Measurement Error}}
$$

Suggested by Hair Jr. et al (2006), the value of construct reliability of each construct should be 0.70 and greater.

**Variance extracted**

For obtaining variance extracted values, the following formula was applied (Hair Jr. et al., 2006):

$$
Variance\ extracted = \frac{\sum \text{Squared Standardised Loadings}}{\sum \text{of Standardised Loadings} + \sum \text{Indices Measurement Error}}
$$

The minimum value accepted of the variance extracted is 0.50.

**Discriminant validity**

A discriminant validity test is conducted to measure validity of two constructs or more (Holmes-Smith, 2010). In this study, the AVE method was applied using the formula as follows (Fornell & Larcker, 1981):
Discriminant validity = $\sqrt{\text{Average variance extracted}}$

The minimum value accepted of the discriminant validity is 0.50.

6.4.8. The proposed theoretical model testing

The last action was to determine the proposed model, using structural equation modelling. The proposed model was developed based on the theoretical analysis which was presented in Chapter Two. The fixed variables tested by CFA were applied to develop a structural equation model. Structural equation modelling is used to estimate associations between observed variables and unobserved variables by combining factor analysis models and multivariate regression models (Hair Jr. et al., 2006).

6.5. Respondent criteria

Researchers in quantitative studies have typically addressed their surveys both toward respondents who have experience and those who do not have experienced in VT. In the first group, researchers who included only respondents with a VT experience were, for example, Cheung, Michel, and Miller (2010b) and Benson and Seibert (2009). In this quantitative study, the author recruited those who had varying levels of experience in VT. In addition, the criteria of eligibility for participation in the survey were not stated, except the minimum age, for ethical considerations.

6.6. Respondent recruitment methods

Potential respondents were sourced via four primary channels: virtual social media networks, personal communication, web pages, and an electronic bulletin. Table 6.2 below indicates channels and places where the advertisement was published. Almost 75% (404) of respondents were recruited via LinkedIn.
Table 6.2 Channels to promote the survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualitative Channel</th>
<th>Media</th>
<th>Quantitative Channel</th>
<th>Media</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Virtual social media networks</td>
<td>Facebook</td>
<td>Virtual social media networks</td>
<td>LinkedIn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LinkedIn</td>
<td></td>
<td>Google groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Google groups</td>
<td></td>
<td>Twitter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal communications</td>
<td>Email</td>
<td>Personal communications</td>
<td>Email</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Direct communication</td>
<td></td>
<td>direct communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Web page</td>
<td>Volunteering WA</td>
<td>Web page</td>
<td>Volunteering WA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poster</td>
<td>Noticeboards: campuses, backpacker hostels, internet cafes</td>
<td>Electronic bulletin</td>
<td>Volunteering Australia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.7. Feedback on the survey

It was a challenge to obtain adequate participants for the online survey. Particularly, it was difficult to obtain diversity in the backgrounds of the respondents. For this study, voluntary and religious organisations were contacted and asked for assistance to distribute and promote the survey link to their members or ‘listserv’. These types of organisations were chosen based on the qualitative study experience that most of the respondents were attached to volunteer or religious organisations. Up to 49 organisations across Australia were approached, with only six responses agreed to spread the survey link on their internal media, and the remaining organisations declined with understandable reasons.

Additionally, the author published an advertisement on the student portal at Edith Cowan University, on Facebook, Twitter, and the LinkedIn ‘walls’ of many clubs, groups, and organisations in various settings, such as volunteering, international volunteering, tourism, travelling, adventuring, sport, festival, religious, and leisure.

Initially, Facebook was relied on to communicate one-on-one with potential respondents. Through this social media network, the author observed hundreds of people with tourism, volunteerism, and VT experiences in groups. Some problematic experiences occurred during the online survey. In addition, some respondents have
reported relating to their experiences in filling in the questionnaire. Below are listed the disadvantages of an electronic survey, particularly in relation to using social media to recruit potential respondents.

1) An online survey depends on an internet connection. Two respondents experienced difficulty reaching the end of the questionnaire and they had to restart over and over again.

2) When the invitation was launched through LinkedIn, one potential respondent refused to participate because he thought that the invitation was a spam.

3) There was a negative feedback from a respondent when a mini advertisement was lodged on an organisation’s Facebook wall. This person said: “Start paying for people's time or f--- off home.” It was considered an act of bullying.

4) The electronic survey allowed the author to get immediate responses, but on the other hand the author found that some respondents took two to four weeks to accept the invitation. Once the survey link was established, they also delayed filling in the questionnaire. According to the respondents, this happened because they did not open the LinkedIn and other social media accounts on a daily basis, because they were busy, and because there was no internet connection available at that time.

5) Two respondents reported that they had been invited three times. The LinkedIn did not record ‘cookies’ so there was no historical information on which persons had been contacted previously. As a result, one of them eventually agreed to participate and the other one refused.

6.8. Pilot study

A pilot study to test the instrument was conducted from 1 to 7 March 2012. There were 81 respondents who completed the online questionnaire, selected by a convenience sampling technique. Based on initial exploratory factor analysis results, feedback from the respondents, and results from the panel of experts, some items in the questionnaire were edited, deleted, and replaced by new items. The final
questionnaire is attached in Appendix 3. Examples of changes include; questions related to destination of holidaying, volunteering, and volunteer tourism activity; methods of involvement; and motivation.

**Destination**

Respondents indicated that domestic destinations were most preferable for holiday, volunteering, and volunteer tourism activities. For the survey, one new option was added to this question: both domestic and international. Besides, ‘destination’ was used for the holiday question; but for the volunteering question, ‘location’ was used rather than ‘destination’. However, for the volunteer tourism question, both ‘location’ and ‘destination’ were used (see Table 6.3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6.3 Result of destination questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Domestic destination(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holiday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Methods of involvement**

Most respondents chose to be with a group rather than solo when they were on holiday and involved in volunteering or volunteer tourism. The results are shown in Table 6.4. For the survey, the word ‘agent’ was changed to ‘agent or organisation’ to avoid misperception. An ‘agent’ might lead respondents to a broker or mediator with a business involvement, whereas ‘organisation’ might work in an unprofitable way. This was a multiple option. However, for this question another option was added: “combination of the three existing answers”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6.4 Results of involvement methods</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holiday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Motivation

Changes were also made with motivational indicators. Initially, 40 indicators under ten dimensions were designed. However, the factor analysis resulted in only eight factors: altruistic, physiological, religious, self-esteem, self-actualisation, social interaction, protective, and project/organisational motivations. The indicator “VT would allow me to fulfil a moral/social obligation to a community/others” came out twice in the dimensions of altruistic and religious motivations and also, the indicator “By involving myself in VT, I would feel less lonely” in dimensions of social interaction and protective motivations. Furthermore, the word ‘agency’ in the indicator “The social opportunities provided by the agency are important to me” was changed to ‘social opportunities’ because a volunteer tourism project might be organised by an agency or a non-agency.
Table 6.4 Results of motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factor loading</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
<th>Variance explained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Altruistic motivations</td>
<td>VT would allow me to give something back to a community/others.</td>
<td>.916</td>
<td>.950</td>
<td>34.027%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT would allow me to help a community.</td>
<td>.879</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT would allow me to learn how to deal with a variety of people.</td>
<td>.829</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT would allow me to help the environment.</td>
<td>.808</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I have a concern for the environment.</td>
<td>.791</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT would allow me to learn things through direct, hands-on experience.</td>
<td>.787</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT would allow me to gain a new perspective on things.</td>
<td>.766</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT would allow me to make a difference.</td>
<td>.677</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT would allow me to explore my own strengths.</td>
<td>.556</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT would allow me to develop something sustainable.</td>
<td>.510</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT would be a feel-good experience.</td>
<td>.460</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>VT would allow me to fulfil a moral/social obligation to a community/others</strong></td>
<td><strong>.443</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Physiological motivations</td>
<td>VT would allow me to be away from daily routine.</td>
<td>.970</td>
<td>.923</td>
<td>48.719%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT would allow me to get away from the usual demands of life.</td>
<td>.881</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT would allow me to get away from everyday physical stress/pressure.</td>
<td>.740</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT would allow me to get away from everyday psychological stress/pressure.</td>
<td>.705</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT would allow me to give my mind a rest</td>
<td>.626</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT would allow me to rest and relax</td>
<td>.594</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I look forward to the social events that volunteering affords me.</td>
<td>.479</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Spiritual motivations</td>
<td>VT would allow me to fulfil religious obligation/beliefs.</td>
<td>.877</td>
<td>.851</td>
<td>56.507%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It’s God’s expectation.</td>
<td>.831</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I have a desire to share my religious values/beliefs.</td>
<td>.670</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>VT would allow me to fulfil a moral/social obligation to a community/others</strong></td>
<td><strong>.534</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Self-esteem motivations</td>
<td>VT would make me feel useful</td>
<td>-.818</td>
<td>.849</td>
<td>62.499%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT would make me feel like a good person.</td>
<td>-.780</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT would keep me busy</td>
<td>-.777</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT would make me feel important.</td>
<td>-.640</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Self-actualisation</td>
<td>I would be obligated to no one.</td>
<td>.856</td>
<td>.782</td>
<td>67.229%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>motivations</td>
<td>I would be doing things my own way.</td>
<td>.771</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I would be independent.</td>
<td>.443</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Continued. Table 6.5 Results of motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6. Social interaction motivations</th>
<th>VT would provide a way for me to make new friends.</th>
<th>-.724</th>
<th>.805</th>
<th>70.968%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT would be a way to build one’s social network.</td>
<td>-.667</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>By involving myself in VT, I would feel less lonely.</td>
<td>-.403</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Being involved in VT would relieve me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.</td>
<td>.774</td>
<td>.859</td>
<td>74.328%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT would allow me not to worry about time.</td>
<td>.694</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT is a good escape from my own troubles.</td>
<td>.675</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No matter how bad I’ve been feeling, VT would help me to forget about it.</td>
<td>.619</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>By involving myself in VT, I would feel less lonely.</td>
<td>.489</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT would help me work through my own personal problems.</td>
<td>.485</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Protective motivations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT would allow me to help a project.</td>
<td>.691</td>
<td>.800</td>
<td>77.561%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VT would allow me to help an organisation.</td>
<td>.654</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I look forward to the social events that volunteering affords me.</td>
<td>.578</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The social opportunities provided by the agency are important to me.</td>
<td>.543</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.9. Summary of chapter six

To sum up, stage two of this study used a web-based survey to collect data. Potential respondents were recruited via convenience and snow-ball sampling methods. Findings of this study were analysed using SPSS (version 19), including hypotheses testing. Finally, to model and investigate attitude, subjective norms, intention, stage of readiness, psychographic profile, past experiences, motivation, and constraints relating to VT the author applied AMOS (version 17) statistical software.

This study consists of nine variables with fifteen relationships to be tested: attitude (H1), subjective norms (H2), intention (H3), altruistic lifestyle values (H4), sensation-seeking personality (H5), social class (H6), motivation (H7), past experience (H8), and constraints (H9). In total, there were 16 hypotheses to be examined (see Table 6.3).
Table 6.6 Hypotheses to be tested

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor/Variable</th>
<th>Intention</th>
<th>Motivation</th>
<th>Past experience</th>
<th>Perceived constraints</th>
<th>Stage of readiness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>H1a</td>
<td>H1b</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>H1c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective norms</td>
<td>H2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>H3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruistic lifestyle values</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>H4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensation-seeking personality</td>
<td>H5a</td>
<td>H5b</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>H5c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social class</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>H6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>H7a</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>H7b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past experience</td>
<td>H8a</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>H8b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constraints</td>
<td>H9a</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>H9b</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All measurements of the hypotheses are presented in Chapter Eight. After the hypotheses were tested, the next step was employing all of the variables into exploratory factor analysis and structural equation modelling (confirmatory factor analysis) to examine the proposed theoretical model as discussed earlier.

The next chapter presents the descriptive analysis of the quantitative study, describing attitude, subjective norms, altruistic lifestyle values, sensation-seeking personality, motivation, and constraints.
Chapter seven
Quantitative study results: Descriptive analysis

7.1. Chapter overview
This chapter provides information about the characteristics of the sample respondents. The SPSS statistical software (Allen & Bennett, 2010; Coakes et al., 2010) version 19 was used to calculate frequencies and associated percentages of the sample’s demographic profile, including gender, age group, education level, marital status, and employment status.

Furthermore, descriptive analysis of variables is presented, including attitude, subjective norms, psychographic characteristics (which were measured by sensation-seeking personality and altruistic lifestyle values), motivation, and constraints. In addition, this chapter provides descriptive statistics on past experiences in holidaying, volunteering, and volunteer tourism; intention; and stage of readiness.

7.2. Respondent characteristics
A total of 542 respondents (see Table 7.1) were recruited and completed the survey, five respondents were screened out because they did not meet the minimum age limit. The percentages of male and female participants were 49% (268) and 51% (274) respectively. This section describes nationality and country of residence, age group, level of education, employment status, social class, and stage of readiness. The descriptive information about the sample characteristics is discussed in the following paragraphs.

Nationality
The questionnaire was placed on open membership groups through many channels including virtual social media networks, and respondents were allowed to distribute and promote the survey to their links. This resulted in a variety of countries being
represented. However, respondents who held Australian nationality (57.4%) were dominant (see Table 7.1).

Nationalities, as well as countries of residence were grouped into two categories: developed and developing countries. In the literature, these categorisations were obviously an important issue regarding where the VT participants originated. The author referred to the developed and developing countries list established by the United Nations Statistics Division (2011) to categorise the nationalities and residence of the respondents.

A total of 385 (71%) respondents were citizens of developed countries, such as Australia, Austria, Canada, France, Germany, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, New Zealand, Spain, Taiwan, the United Kingdom, and the United States. One respondent held a citizenship of a former country – ex-Yugoslavia.

A further, 157 (29%) respondents were citizens of developing countries, such as Algeria, Argentina, Belarus, Brazil, China, Columbia, Costa Rica, Ghana, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Kenya, Macedonia, Malaysia, Nigeria, Philippines, Poland, Romania, Russian Federation, South Africa, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Thailand, Vanuatu, and Vietnam.

**Country of residence**

Respondents who resided in Australia (78%) were predominant (see Table 7.1). Approximately 83% of respondents resided in developed countries, such as Australia, Iceland, Italy, Japan, New Zealand, Singapore, Spain, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, and United States.

Ninety-two (17%) respondents resided in developing countries, such as Argentina, China, India, Indonesia, Iran, Macedonia, Malaysia, Philippines, Poland, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Vanuatu, and Yugoslavia.
Table 7.1 Distribution frequencies of age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sex</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>49.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>50.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age group</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 - 23</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 - 29</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 - 35</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36 - 41</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42 - 47</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>13.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48 - 53</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54 - 59</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 - 65</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66 - 71</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>44.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>35.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College, no degree</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school graduate</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than high school graduation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marital status</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>30.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married/de facto</td>
<td>342</td>
<td>63.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employment status (multiple options)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed for wages</td>
<td>345</td>
<td>63.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out of work and looking for work</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out of work but not currently looking for work</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A student</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In a gap year (before starting university or a new job)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unable to work</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retired</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Age group**

The age range of respondents was from 18 to 71 years (see Table 7.1). In general, the age groups were evenly distributed, particularly those aged between 24 - 41 years (between 15% and 18%). Respondents aged 30 - 35 years were the highest category (18%). The Bureau of Labour Statistics of the United States (2013) noted that group
of 35 to 44 year olds were the most enthusiasm to volunteer (about 32%), contrast with the group of 20- to 24-year-olds (about 19%) that were the lowest enthusiasm to volunteer.

**Level of education**

The distribution frequencies of education levels are shown in Table 7.1. The largest aggregate was those who had achieved the postgraduate level (44%). Respondents with undergraduate levels were in the second largest group (36%), whereas those who had less than high school levels of education were a very small group, comprising only 0.4% of the total sample.

**Marital status**

Table 7.1 also shows the distribution frequency for respondents’ marital status. Married (and de facto) respondents comprised 63% of the sample, with singles 30%; the remaining respondents were divorced (5%), separated (1.5%), and widowed (0.4%).

**Employment status**

Respondents were able to indicate if they were undertaking combine activities such as study and working part time (see Table 7.1). The frequencies of respondents were ‘employed for wages’ - 57%, ‘self-employed’ - 20%, and ‘a student’ - 17%, with the remaining stating that they were: ‘out of work and looking for work’ (4%), ‘out of work but not currently looking for work’ (1%), ‘in a gap year’ (0.7%), ‘retired’ (0.7%), and ‘unable to work’ (0.3%).
**Social class**

Respondents were asked to locate themselves within the following social class classifications: upper class (higher and lower), middle class (higher, middle, and lower), and lower class (higher and lower). These scales were used to measure respectively, their own highest level of education completed, personal annual income, and current occupation. Table 7.2 indicates the distribution frequencies of social class.

*Table 7.2 Distribution frequencies of social class*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class classification</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Class classification</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Total percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Educational level has been completed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher-upper class</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>Upper class</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>34.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower-upper class</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher-middle class</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>Middle class</td>
<td>347</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle-middle class</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower-middle class</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher-lower class</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>Lower class</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower-lower class</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current occupation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher-upper class</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>Upper class</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower-upper class</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher-middle class</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>Middle class</td>
<td>397</td>
<td>73.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle-middle class</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower-middle class</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher-lower class</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>Lower class</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower-lower class</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual income</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher-upper class</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>Upper class</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower-upper class</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher-middle class</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>Middle class</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>72.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle-middle class</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower-middle class</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher-lower class</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>Lower class</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower-lower class</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most respondents assessed themselves to be in the higher-middle class group (37%) with the second highest group being the middle-middle class (23%). No one assessed themselves to be in the lower-lower class even though two responses indicated an educational level of ‘less than high school’. These two respondents joined other
respondents ticking the higher-lower class classification, as there were nine respondents (2%) in this category.

Regarding their current occupation, the majority of respondents assessed themselves to be in the higher-middle class (37%), with 31% assessing themselves in the middle-middle class group. A smaller number of people assessed themselves to be in the middle higher-upper class (8%) and 15% assessed themselves to be in the lower-upper class. A small number of respondents considered that they were in the higher-lower class - 2%, and the lower-lower class - 2%.

The majority of respondents assessed themselves to be in the middle-middle class of income (31%), with the second most popular being those who assessed themselves to be in the higher-middle class (28%). Respondents who were in the higher-upper class and lower-upper class were 4% and 15% respectively. Further, those who assessed themselves to be in the higher-lower class and lower-lower class were 5% and 4% respectively.

In general, respondents assessed themselves to be in the middle class across all measures of social class (64% for level of occupation, 72% for current occupation, and 73% for annual income).

7.3. **Descriptive analysis**

The following section details measures of central tendency – the mean and standard deviation values of eight variables: attitude toward the concept of VT, subjective norms, intention, stage of readiness, psychographic characteristics (sensation-seeking personality and altruistic lifestyle values), past experiences, motivation, and constraints.

7.3.1. **Attitude towards the VT concept**

To measure attitude, a seven-option bipolar semantic scale was employed ranging from 1 for negative, through to 7 for positive values. There were two sub-scales, four
items measured the attitude towards the VT experience and two items measured the attitude towards the VT concept.

The mean and standard deviations for the attitude sub-scales are shown in Error! Reference source not found. Table 7.3. In general, all items measured had relatively high scores ranging from 5.08 to 6.15. The highest mean score was obtained by “Valuable experience – Not valuable experience” (6.15) and the lowest mean score was gained by “At a reasonable financial cost – At an unreasonable financial cost”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-scale</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude towards the volunteer tourism</td>
<td>At2 Valuable experience – Not valuable</td>
<td>6.15</td>
<td>1.231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experience</td>
<td>experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>At3 Uninteresting experience – Interesting</td>
<td>6.04</td>
<td>1.283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>At5 Memorable experience – Forgettable</td>
<td>6.01</td>
<td>1.587</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>At1 Enjoyable experience – Unenjoyable</td>
<td>5.97</td>
<td>1.301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>At4 Unpleasant experience – Pleasant</td>
<td>5.62</td>
<td>1.330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude towards the volunteer tourism</td>
<td>At6 An unreasonable idea – A reasonable</td>
<td>5.82</td>
<td>1.349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>concept</td>
<td>idea</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>At7 At a reasonable financial cost – At an</td>
<td>5.08</td>
<td>1.515</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>unreasonable financial cost</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.3.2. Subjective norms

Subjective norms was measured using a seven-option Likert scale, ranging from 1 = extremely disagree, through to 7 = extremely agree (see Table 7.4). All measurement items of subjective norms had relatively high mean scores. The first item, “Most people who are important to me would approve of me being involved in VT” had the highest mean score 5.41, whereas the second item had the mean score 5.22 and the last item had the mean score 4.71.
Volunteer tourism: A moment to give, no moment to take

Table 7.4 Mean and standard deviation of subjective norms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subjective</td>
<td>Sub2 Most people who are important to me would approve of me being</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>1.613</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>norms</td>
<td>involved in volunteer tourism.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub3 Most people who are important to me would NOT want me to be</td>
<td>5.24</td>
<td>1.733</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>involved in volunteer tourism.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub1 Most people who are important to me would think it was desirable</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>1.566</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>for me to be involved in volunteer tourism.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.3.3. Psychographic characteristics

Psychographic characteristics had three dimensions: sensation-seeking personality, altruistic lifestyle values, and social class. As social class has already been discussed in this subsection only sensation-seeking personality and lifestyle value are described.

Altruistic lifestyle values

In this study, respondents were asked to measure altruistic lifestyle values items to present their lifestyle using a seven-point Likert scale, with 1 = extremely disagree, through to 7 = extremely agree. Table 7.5 presents the mean and standard deviations of the lifestyle value items. In general, all items had relatively high mean scores ranging from 5.84 to 6.25. The highest mean score was for “I feel it is important to help others” (6.25) and the lowest mean score was for “I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself” (5.84).

Table 7.5 Mean and standard deviations of altruistic lifestyle value items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Ls2 I feel it is important to help others.</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>1.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ls4 I am motivated to do something for a cause that is</td>
<td>6.10</td>
<td>1.103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>important to me.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ls2 I feel compassion toward people in need.</td>
<td>5.97</td>
<td>1.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ls1 I am concerned about those less fortunate than</td>
<td>5.84</td>
<td>1.226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>myself.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sensation-seeking personality

To measure sensation-seeking personality, eight sensation-seeking items under four sub-scales were used: experience seeking, disinhibition, boredom susceptibility, and thrill and adventure seeking. Each sub-scales had two measurement items. Table 7.6 below presents the mean and standard deviations of the sensation-seeking personality.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-scale</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experience seeking</td>
<td>Ss1 I like exploring strange places.</td>
<td>5.64</td>
<td>1.437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ss2 I get restless when I spend too much time at home.</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>1.848</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disinhibition</td>
<td>Ss3 I like to do challenging things.</td>
<td>5.46</td>
<td>1.364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ss4 I like wild parties.</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>1.708</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boredom susceptibility</td>
<td>Ss5 I would like to take off on a trip with no pre-planned routes or timetables.</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>1.997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ss6 I prefer friends who are excitingly unpredictable.</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1.593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thrill and adventure seeking</td>
<td>Ss7 I would like to try bungee jumping.</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>2.218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ss8 I would love to have new and exciting experiences, even if they are illegal.</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>1.649</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The highest mean score under the experience seeking sub-scale was for “I like exploring strange places” (5.64), whereas for the disinhibition sub-scale the highest was “I like to do challenging things” (5.46), for the boredom susceptibility sub-scale the highest was “I would like to take off on a trip with no pre-planned routes or timetables” (4.25), and for the thrill and adventure-seeking sub-scale the highest was “I would like to try bungee jumping” (3.16). Overall, the highest mean score was 5.64% for “I like exploring strange places” and the lowest mean score was 2.41 for “I would love to have new and exciting experiences, even if they are illegal”.

7.3.4. Motivation to be involved in VT

Forty-two measurement items under ten sub-scales were designed to question the motivation of respondents for being engaged in VT. The ten motivational sub-scales are as follows: physiological, protective, social interaction, self-esteem, understanding, self-actualisation or autonomy, environmental, religious, public
service, and project/organisational. These questions used a seven-option Likert scale, ranging from 1 = extremely disagree, through to 7 = extremely agree.

Items under the public service motivation had the highest mean score with mean scores ranging from 5.50 to 5.15; items under the understanding motivation had mean scores ranging from 5.49 to 4.97 (see Table 7.7); items under the project/organisational motivation had mean scores ranging from 5.27 to 5.01; items under the environmental motivation had mean scores ranging from 5.05 to 4.95; items under the self-esteem motivations had mean scores ranging from 5.04 to 3.23; items under the social interaction motivations had mean scores ranging from 4.37 to 4.18; and items under the physiological motivations had mean scores ranging from 3.97 to 3.48. Other items under the sub-scales, such as protective, self-actualisation or autonomy, and religious motivations had mean scores under 3.00. Overall, the highest mean score obtained was “VT would allow me to give something back to a community” (5.50) and the lowest mean score was “It’s God’s expectation of me” (2.51).
### Table 7.7 Mean and standard deviation scores for motivation items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-scale</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Physiological motivation</strong></td>
<td>M14 Volunteer tourism would allow me to be away from my daily routine.</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>1.825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M6 Volunteer tourism would allow me to get away from the usual demands of life.</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>1.829</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M3 Volunteer tourism would allow me to give my mind a rest.</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>1.757</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M5 Volunteer tourism would allow me to get away from everyday physical stress/pressure</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>1.860</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M38 Volunteer tourism would allow me to rest and relax.</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>1.834</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M9 Volunteer tourism would allow me not to worry about time.</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.812</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M42 Volunteer tourism would allow me to get away from everyday psychological stress/pressure.</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>1.901</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Protective motivation</strong></td>
<td>M8 No matter how bad I’ve been feeling, volunteer tourism would help me forget about it.</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>1.828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M11 Being involved in volunteer tourism would relieve me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>1.820</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M10 By involving myself in volunteer tourism, I would feel less lonely.</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>1.836</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M13 Volunteer tourism is a good escape from my own troubles.</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>1.726</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M25 Volunteer tourism would help me work through my own personal problems.</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>1.794</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social interaction motivation</strong></td>
<td>M7 Volunteer tourism would provide a way for me to make new friends.</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>1.645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M15 The social opportunities provided by volunteer tourism are important to me.</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>1.782</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M17 Volunteer tourism would be a way to build my social networks.</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>1.902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M27 I look forward to the social contacts that volunteer tourism affords me.</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>1.762</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-esteem motivations</strong></td>
<td>M18 Volunteer tourism would be a feel-good experience for me.</td>
<td>5.04</td>
<td>1.637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M19 Volunteer tourism would make me feel useful.</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>1.765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M2 Volunteer tourism would make me feel like a good person.</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>1.621</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M4 Volunteer tourism would keep me busy.</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>1.800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M12 Volunteer tourism would make me feel important.</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>1.868</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Understanding motivations</strong></td>
<td>M20 Volunteer tourism would allow me to gain a new perspective on things.</td>
<td>5.49</td>
<td>1.517</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M21 Volunteer tourism would allow me to explore my own strengths.</td>
<td>5.28</td>
<td>1.603</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M37 Volunteer tourism would allow me to learn things through direct, hands-on experience.</td>
<td>5.24</td>
<td>1.613</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M30 Volunteer tourism would allow me to learn how to deal with a variety of people.</td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td>1.709</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-actualisation/autonomous motivations</strong></td>
<td>M16 I would be independent.</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>1.905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M28 I would be doing things my own way.</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>1.788</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M26 I would be obligated to no one.</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>1.758</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Continued. Table 7.8 Mean and standard deviation scores for motivation items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Environmental motivations</th>
<th>Item Description</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M29</td>
<td>I have a concern for the environment.</td>
<td>5.05</td>
<td>1.752</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M33</td>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to help the environment.</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>1.723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M23</td>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to do something for an environmental cause that is important to me.</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td>1.771</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious motivations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M24</td>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to fulfil my religious obligation.</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>1.906</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M34</td>
<td>I have a desire to share my religious values.</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>2.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M36</td>
<td>It’s God’s expectation of me.</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>1.978</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M1</td>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to fulfil a moral obligation to a community.</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>1.700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public service motivations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M41</td>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to give something back to a community.</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>1.499</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M35</td>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to help a community.</td>
<td>5.46</td>
<td>1.579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M39</td>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to make a difference.</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>1.553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M22</td>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to develop something sustainable.</td>
<td>5.15</td>
<td>1.616</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project/organisational motivations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M32</td>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to help a project.</td>
<td>5.27</td>
<td>1.529</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M40</td>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to help an organisation.</td>
<td>5.20</td>
<td>1.612</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M31</td>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to support an organisation that has a similar mission to me.</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>1.629</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.3.5. Constraints to being involved in VT

Respondents were asked to answer eight constraints questions, using a seven option Likert scale, ranging from 1 = extremely inaccurate, through to 7 = extremely accurate. Items were designed under two sub-scales: intrinsic and extrinsic constraints (see Table 7.8). Under the perceived constraints sub-scale, the highest mean score was 5.07 for the item “I don’t have enough time because my family/work requires my time” whereas, the lowest mean score was 1.58 for the item “I’ve done VT before and I don’t want to be involved any more”. It should be noted that this low score can be partly attributed to the fact that the majority of respondents had never been involved in VT. Two other low scores were: 2.43 for “I’m not interested in VT”, and 2.21 for “I don’t believe that VT can help people effectively”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-scale</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceived constraints</td>
<td>C1 I don’t have enough time because my family/work requires my time.</td>
<td>5.07</td>
<td>2.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C8 Financially, I can’t afford it.</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>2.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C6 I’m not interested in volunteer tourism.</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>1.834</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C7 I don’t believe that volunteer tourism can help people effectively.</td>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>1.644</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C4 I’ve done volunteer tourism before and I don’t want to be involved any more.</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>1.227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factual constraints</td>
<td>C2 I don’t know enough about volunteer tourism.</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>2.116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C5 I am concerned about my safety and/or security.</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>1.939</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C3 I, or someone I would want to travel with, is physically unable to be involved.</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>1.834</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Under the factual constraints sub-scale, the only item that had a mean score over 3.00 was “I don’t know enough about VT”. The other two items indicated a score of under 3.00 (2.84 for “I am concerned about my safety and/or security” and 2.45 for “I, or someone I would want to travel with, is physically unable to be involved”).
7.3.6. Past experiences in tourism, volunteerism, and VT

Respondents were asked about their past experiences in tourism, volunteering, and VT in the last three years (see Table 7.9). Most of the respondents had taken a holiday (95%), and more than half of the respondents (54%) had taken a holiday more than three times. Many also indicated they had experienced both domestic and international destinations (65%). Further, most of the respondents combined solo travelling, with an agent, and with friends or family members (48%) when they organised their holidays.

Table 7.10 Distribution frequency of past experiences in holidaying (tourism), volunteerism, and VT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Holidaying (tourism)</th>
<th>Volunteering</th>
<th>Volunteer tourism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>512</td>
<td>94.5</td>
<td>378</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Frequency</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 times</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 times</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 3 times</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>54.3</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Destination/location</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both, domestic and international</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>64.6</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Method</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Through an agent</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With a group of friends/family</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solo/alone</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combination of 2 or more organisers</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nearly 70% of respondents had been involved in volunteering, with 68% of respondents indicating they had done volunteering more than three times in the last three years, mostly in domestic locations (70%). Only 5% of respondents had volunteered overseas and 25% had volunteered both in domestic and overseas
locations. Surprisingly, the majority of respondents organised the volunteering by themselves (40%), with only 7% organising it through an agent or organisation.

Approximately 20% of respondents (113) claimed that they had been involved in VT. Of those who had experienced VT, around 38% had one VT experience and around 36% had more than three VT experiences. Furthermore, almost 40% of those who had experienced VT chose international locations, and likewise almost 40% chose domestic locations. As for what way they organised the VT journey, there were relatively average scores for all options: through an agent (27%), with a group of friends/family (25%), solo/alone (26%), and a combination of all options (23%).

7.3.7. Intention to be involved in VT

Respondents were asked to assess their intentions to be involved in VT in three time categories: within 1 year, 3 years, and 5 years (see Table 7.10). These were organised into 11 options over a range of possibilities and impossibilities. Regarding intention within 1 year, 28% of respondents rated themselves as having ‘no chance’; intention within 3 years, only 9% thought they had ‘no chance’; and for intention within 5 years, this fell down to 6% who considered they had no chance to be involved in VT.

Conversely, the numbers of respondents who felt certain of being involved in VT rose from 5.4% within 1 year to 6.1% within 3 years, and to 10.1% within 5 years. These growing intentions were also seen in other possibility options, such as: fairly good possibility, good possibility, probable, very probable, and almost sure.
Table 7.11 Frequency distribution of the intention for being involved in VT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1 year</th>
<th></th>
<th>3 years</th>
<th></th>
<th>5 years</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No chance</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very slight possibility</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slight possibility</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some possibility</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair possibility</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairly good possibility</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good possibility</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probable</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very probable</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almost sure</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certain</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.3.8. Stage of readiness to be involved in VT

Table 7.11 presents the frequency distribution for respondents’ self-rated stage of readiness for being involved in VT. The largest category (40%) admitted that they had ‘never given VT much thought’, and 25.3% stated they had ‘actively considered being involved in VT recently’. The respondents who had been involved in VT were put into two categories: (a) those who had been involved previously (5.9%) and (b) those who had been involved previously and intended to be involved again in the future (16.2%). A further, 10.9% of respondents ‘planned to do VT in the next year’; and interestingly, 1.7% of respondents were ‘currently involved in VT’.

Table 7.12 Frequency distribution of the stage of readiness to be involved in VT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-scale</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Precontemplation</td>
<td>Never given volunteer tourism much thought.</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contemplation</td>
<td>Actively considered being involved in volunteer tourism recently.</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>25.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparation</td>
<td>Planning to do volunteer tourism in the next year.</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action</td>
<td>Currently involved in volunteer tourism.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Termination</td>
<td>Participated in volunteer tourism in the last 3 years.</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance</td>
<td>Been involved in volunteer tourism previously and plan to be involved in another volunteer tourism project in the future.</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.4. Summary of chapter seven

This chapter has described two types of information gained from the quantitative study results: respondent characteristics and descriptive analysis of variables taken from the qualitative study stage. Respondent characteristics included nationality, country of residence, age group, level of education, marital status, and employment status. Descriptive analysis delineated frequency and percentage of respondent responses toward all questions on the questionnaire. This included attitude towards the concept of VT, subjective norms, altruistic lifestyle values, sensation-seeking personality, motivation, constraints, past experience, intention, and stage of readiness.

The next chapter discusses the quantitative results and includes the exploratory and confirmatory analysis.
Chapter eight  
Quantitative study results

8.1. Chapter overview

The previous chapter detailed the descriptive analysis of respondents’ characteristics, including gender, age group, marital status, level of education, employment status, and social class of the quantitative sample. Also, it presented the descriptive statistics for the variables, for instance, attitude, subjective norms, psychological profiles (altruistic lifestyle values and sensation-seeking personality), motivation, constraint, past experiences (in tourism, volunteering, and volunteer tourism (VT)), intention, and stage of readiness to be involved in VT.

This chapter, the second part of the quantitative study results, contains four sections. The first section of this chapter presents the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) of independents variables used in this study. EFA was utilised to explore the factor solutions for the items within the VT context. EFA was also used because a number of new items were included due to the exploratory analysis (Allen & Bennett, 2010; Hair Jr. et al., 2006; Pallant, 2010).

The second section depicts the first order construct analysis of variables using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The reason for conducting CFA is to confirm the constructs and achieve a good fit with the hypothesised models (Blunch, 2008; Hair Jr. et al., 2006; Holmes-Smith, 2010). A reliability test of items and constructs for each factor, extracted variance, and discriminant validity are also conducted and presented in this subsection.

The third section depicts the second order construct analysis, involving sensation-seeking personality and motivation variables. The second order construct development grouped factors and variables in one higher order construct to obtain a fitted model before they were installed together in a full model (L. Coote, 2012).
The last section describes testing of the proposed theoretical full model. Six fitted models were eventually obtained. These are illustrated and discussed.

8.2. Exploratory factor analysis and reliability test

Six variable constructs were examined using exploratory factor analysis included attitude, sensation-seeking personality, altruistic lifestyle values, motivation, and constraints. The principal extracted method and oblimin rotation method were used for all analyses (Hair Jr. et al., 2006).

8.2.1. Attitudes toward the VT concept

Seven items relating to attitude towards the VT concept were factor analysed. One factor loading resulted and all items were retained, with factor loading ranging from 0.49 to 0.86 (see Table 8.1 below). In total, this factor explained 58% of the variance in the questionnaire data. In addition, the Cronbach’s alpha was considered high at 0.86.

Table 8.1 Exploratory factor analysis of “attitude towards the concept of VT”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factor loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At2</td>
<td>Valuable experience – Not valuable experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At1</td>
<td>Enjoyable experience – Unenjoyable experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At3</td>
<td>Uninteresting experience—Interesting experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At6</td>
<td>An unreasonable idea – A reasonable idea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At4</td>
<td>Unpleasant experience – Pleasant experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At5</td>
<td>Memorable experience – Forgettable experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At7</td>
<td>At a reasonable financial cost – At an unreasonable financial cost</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Cronbach’s alpha | 0.86 |
| % variance explained | 57.81 |

Five items (At1, At2, At3, At4, and At6) adapted from Han, Lee, and Lee (2011) and two items (At 6 and At 7) taken from the qualitative study retained.
8.2.2. Subjective norms

The subjective norms construct was factor analysed, using three items adapted from Greenslade and White (2005). The item with a negative value was reverse coded: “Most people who are important to me would NOT want me to be involved in volunteer tourism.” In the first run of analysis, one factor loading resulted, with factor loadings ranging from 0.79 to 0.88, all with greater than the minimum values suggested (0.6) (see Table 8.2 below) (Hair Jr. et al., 2006; Holmes-Smith, 2010). In total, this factor explained 69% of the variance in the questionnaire data. The Cronbach’s alpha was high with a value of 0.78.

Table 8.2 Exploratory factor analysis of “subjective norms”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sub2 Most people who are important to me would approve of me being</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>involved in volunteer tourism.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub3 Most people who are important to me would think it was desirable</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for me to be involved in volunteer tourism.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub1 Most people who are important to me would NOT want me to be</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>involved in volunteer tourism.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Cronbach’s alpha | 0.78 |
| % variance explained | 69.34 |

8.2.3. Psychographic characteristics

As discussed in Chapter Two and supported by the qualitative findings, psychographic characteristics were represented by sensation-seeking personality, altruistic lifestyle values, and social class (Kotler et al., 2002). As the social class variable is presented in the descriptive analysis chapter (Chapter 7), it is not presented again in this chapter.

Sensation-seeking personality

Exploratory factor analysis resulted deleting the item – “I would like to take off on a trip with no preplanned routes or timetables” – on the first run of the analysis due to cross loadings (Coakes et al., 2010; Hair Jr. et al., 2006). On the second run, seven factors were retained. Two factors resulted: excitement seeking (Factor 1, four
items), factor loading ranging from 0.47 to 0.86. This factor explained 40% of the variance. The second factor, new experience seeking (Factor 2, three items), with factor loadings ranging from 0.62 to 0.86, explained an additional 17% of the variance. These are illustrated in Table 8.3.

Table 8.3 Exploratory factor analysis of sensation-seeking personality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factor loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Excitement seeking</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ss4 I like wild parties.</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ss7 I would love to have new and exciting experiences, even if they are illegal.</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ss6 I prefer friends who are excitingly unpredictable.</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ss8 I would like to try bungee jumping.</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% variance explained</td>
<td>40.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| New experience seeking                     |                 |
| Ss1 I like exploring strange places.       | 0.86            |
| Ss3 I like to do challenging things.       | 0.83            |
| Ss2 I get restless when I spend too much time at home. | 0.62 |
| Cronbach’s alpha                           | 0.66            |
| % variance explained                       | 17.42           |

The finding above is completely different with the one that established by Hoyle et al. (2002). These researchers initially identified four dimensions of the brief sensation-seeking scale, included experience seeking, disinhibition, boredom susceptibility, and thrill and adventure seeking. Result on sensation seeking of this study might be influenced by the changing the word ‘frightening’ to ‘adventuring’ in the item “I like to do frightening things”. Furthermore, the finding distinguished with the studies conducted by Wymer Jr. et al. (2008) and Wymer Jr. et al. (2010).

**Altruistic lifestyle values**

Four items representing altruistic lifestyle values were factor analysed. In the first run of analysis, one factor loading resulted, ranging from 0.74 to 0.92 (see Table 8.4). In total, this factor explained 73.20% of the variance in the data. The Cronbach’s alpha was high with a score of 0.87 (Coakes et al., 2010; Hair Jr. et al., 2006).

Table 8.4 Exploratory factor analysis of altruistic lifestyle values
8.2.4. Motivation for being involved in VT

Forty-two items relating motivation were factor analysed. Five factors resulted (see Table 8.5). The first factor was physiological motivation (Factor 1, 10 items), which explained 42% of the variance within the data. The Cronbach’s alpha for the first factor was 0.92. The second factor was public service motivation (Factor 2, six items). This explained an additional 14% of the variance. The Cronbach’s alpha for the second factor was 0.92. Religious motivation (Factor 3) was the third factor with three items. This factor explained an additional 7% of the variance with a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.93. The fourth factor was social interaction motivation (Factor 4), with six items. This factor explained further 5% of the variance, with a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.97. The last factor was environmental motivation (Factor 5) with three items. This factor explained 4% of the variance, with a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.90. In general, the Cronbach’s alpha values of each factor were greater than 0.9, except for the social interaction motivation of 0.89, indicating that their internal consistency was excellent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factor loadings</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha</th>
<th>% variance explained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ls2 I feel compassion toward people in need.</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>73.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ls3 I feel it is important to help others.</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ls1 I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ls4 I am motivated to do something for a cause that is important to me.</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% variance explained</td>
<td>73.20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8.5 Exploratory factor analysis of motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factor loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Physiological motivation</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M6</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M5</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M9</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M14</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M42</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M4</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M3</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M38</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M10</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M28</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Public service motivation</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M41</td>
<td>-0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M39</td>
<td>-0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M35</td>
<td>-0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M40</td>
<td>-0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M32</td>
<td>-0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M31</td>
<td>-0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Religious motivation</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M34</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M36</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M24</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha</th>
<th>% variance explained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>41.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>13.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>6.76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*due to the content consideration, these items were not included in any further tests (Holmes-Smith, 2010). The item ‘I would be doing things my own way’ did not fit with other items of the physiological motivation dimension. Also, the item ‘Volunteer tourism would be a feel-good experience for me’ did not fit other items of the social interaction motivation dimension.
Continued. Table 8.6 Exploratory factor analysis of motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Social interaction motivation</strong></th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha</th>
<th>% variance explained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M27 I look forward to the social contacts that volunteer tourism affords me.</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M15 The social opportunities provided by volunteer tourism are important to me.</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M17 Volunteer tourism would be a way to build my social networks.</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M7 Volunteer tourism would provide a way for me to make new friends.</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M30 Volunteer tourism would allow me to learn how to deal with a variety of people.</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M18 Volunteer tourism would be a feel-good experience for me.*</td>
<td>-0.45</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Environmental motivation</strong></th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha</th>
<th>% variance explained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M29 I have a concern for the environment.</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M33 Volunteer tourism would allow me to help the environment.</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M23 Volunteer tourism would allow me to do something for an environmental cause that is important to me.</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha</th>
<th>% variance explained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

*due to the content consideration, these items were not included in any further tests (Holmes-Smith, 2010). The item ‘I would be doing things my own way’ did not fit with other items of the physiological motivation dimension. Also, the item ‘Volunteer tourism would be a feel-good experience for me’ did not fit other items of the social interaction motivation dimension.

8.2.5. Constraints to be involved in VT

Eight items relating constraints when considering being involved in VT were analysed using factor analysis. In the first run of analysis, two factors resulted – perceived (Factor 1, three items) and factual (Factor 2, three items) constraints, with factor loadings ranging from 0.80 to 0.60 (see Table 8.6).
Table 8.7 Exploratory factor analysis of constraints

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factor loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perceived constraints</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C7 I don’t believe that volunteer tourism can help people effectively.</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4 I’ve done volunteer tourism before and I don’t want to be involved any more.</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C6 I’m not interested in volunteer tourism.</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance explained</td>
<td>37.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factual constraints</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1 I don’t have enough time because my family/work requires my time.</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C8 Financially, I can’t afford it.</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2 I don’t know enough about volunteer tourism.</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance explained</td>
<td>19.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the questionnaire, the item C3 = “I, or someone I would want to travel with, is physically unable to be involved” was deleted. This finding is different with one of the findings of the qualitative study. One respondent claimed that she shortened her VT journey in India because her mother who accompanied her was sick. In the following year when she wished to revisit India, for the same reason, she postponed her plan. Another item was C5 – “I am concerned about my safety and/security”. The author just realised that there are two different meanings between ‘safety’ and ‘security’ and these two words should be written in two different items. However, this item retained at this stage. This finding is supported by the qualitative study findings. No one of the respondents complained anything related safety or security issues.

Furthermore, labelling ‘perceived constraints’ for the items: C4, C6, and C7 and ‘factual constraints’ for the items: C1, C2, and C8 may be debatable regarding the contents. For example, C8 – “Financially, I can’t afford it”. Some respondents might think that VT was expensive because they did not know exactly about the costs, then they perceived that the cost to be involved in VT was high. Other respondents, who knew the costs of VT and reflected to their own conditions, might think that this was a factual constraint. Another example is C7 – “I don’t believe that volunteer tourism can help people effectively”. Respondents who experienced in VT might consider
that based on their experiences, VT was ineffective to help society. On the other hand, respondents without VT experience might only perceive that VT cannot help.

8.3. First order constructs

This section provides information about the results of the confirmatory factor analyses (CFA). Hair Jr. et al. (2006) mentioned that there are two ways to conduct CFA or the structural equation model (SEM): (a) by analysing all single constructs first and then putting all the fitting single constructs together in a full model and analysing it; and (b) by analysing a full model directly. Hair Jr. et al. (2006) recommended the first option because it would ensure highly reliable measures and a strong theoretical foundation. In this study, the author applied the first option for the same reason.

In total, there are 13 first order congeneric or first order constructs, consisting of: (a) attitude, (b) subjective norms, (c) altruistic lifestyle values, (d) excitement seeking, (e) new experience seeking, (f) social class, (g) physiological motivation, (h) social interaction motivation, (i) religious motivation, (j) environmental motivation, (k) public service motivation, (l) extrinsic constraints, and (m) intrinsic constraints. In addition, there are three second order constructs, including sensation-seeking personality, taking motivation, and giving motivation. The CFA results for each of these constructs are discussed in the following paragraphs.

8.3.1. Attitude towards the VT concept

With four items, this attitude construct had a fitted model with a chi-square of 1.70 and a probability of 0.43 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Other goodness of fit indices were very good as well, with TLI of 1.00, CFI of 1.00, RMSEA of 0.00, and GFI of 1.00 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999) (see figure 8.1). The four items were retained for further analysis.

The CFA deleted the item At4 (Unpleasant experience – pleasant experience) and two items taken from the qualitative findings – At6 (An unreasonable idea – A
reasonable idea) and At7 (At a reasonable financial cost – At an unreasonable financial cost). At this stage, respondents’ attitudes just relate to valuable/not valuable (At1), enjoyable/unenjoyable (At2), interesting/uninteresting (At3), and memorable/forgettable (At5) experiences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>GFI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Result</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut-off</td>
<td>&gt; 0.05</td>
<td>&lt; 3.0</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>≤ 0.05</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 8.1 The congeneric model of attitude factor*

### 8.3.2. Subjective norms

Three items were used to measure the subjective norms construct. As this construct had only three items, the two the closest standardised loadings were constrained with an ‘a’ to gain goodness of fit values (Holmes-Smith, 2010). As a result, this construct had a chi-square of 0.01 and a probability of 0.93 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Additionally, the TLI, CFI, RMSEA, and GFI values were 1.01, 1.00, 0.00, 1.00, and 1.00 that indicated that this model was a very good fitting model (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999) (see Figure 8.2). One of the disadvantages of applying only three items in CFA that is all the three items will be safe so that the result is predictable. In this case all the items were retained for further analysis.
8.3.3. Psychographic characteristics

Psychographic characteristics were represented by three factors: altruistic lifestyle values, sensation-seeking personality, and social class. These three factors were each measured independently.

(a) Altruistic lifestyle values

To measure the altruistic lifestyle values construct, four items were used. A good fitted model was gained by correlating Ls3 and Ls4. This model had with a chi-square of 2.86 and a probability of 0.09 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). All of the goodness of fit indices (with the exception of the RMSEA) supported a fitted model (RMR=0.011; TLI=0.99; CFI=1.00; RMSEA=0.06; GFI=1.00) (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999) (see Figure 8.3). Given the fit indices it was decided to retain the four items for this construct.

---

**Figure 8.2 The congeneric model of subjective norms factor**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>GFI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Result</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut-off</td>
<td>&gt; 0.05</td>
<td>&lt; 3.0</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>≤ 0.05</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criterion</td>
<td>CMIN</td>
<td>DF</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>CMIN/DF</td>
<td>TLI</td>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>PCLOSE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Result</td>
<td>2.862</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut-off</td>
<td>&gt; 0.05</td>
<td>&lt; 3.0</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>≤ 0.05</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 8.3 The congeneric model of altruistic lifestyle values factor

(b) Sensation-seeking personality

Sensation-seeking personality was represented by two factors based on the exploratory factor analysis: excitement seeking and new experience seeking.

Excitement seeking

The excitement seeking personality construct was measured using four items. Even though the item Ss8 ("I would like to try bungee jumping") had a relatively low standardised coefficient values (0.43), it contributed to a best fit with a chi-square of 1.39 and a probability of 0.50 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Furthermore, the goodness of fit indices indicated really good values, TLI of 1.01, CFI of 1.00, RMSEA of 0.00, and GFI of 1.00 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999) (see Figure 8.4). The four items were retained for further analysis and the items were Ss4 (I like wild parties), Ss6 (I prefer friends who are excitingly unpredictable), Ss7 (I would like to try bungee jumping), and Ss8 (I would love to have new and exciting experiences, even if they are illegal).
Figure 8.4 The congeneric model of excitement seeking factor

**New experience seeking**

Another construct of sensation-seeking personality was new experience seeking, measured by three items. This model indicated a good fitted model with a chi-square of 2.82 and a probability of 0.09 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Other values, TLI=0.98, CFI=1.00, RMSEA=0.06, and GFI=1.00) indicated that this construct was a fitted model (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999)(see Figure 8.5). Three items were retained for this construct and the items were Ss1 (I like exploring stare places), Ss2 (I get restless when I spend too much time at home), and Ss3 (I like to do challenging things).
So far, all items in the two dimensions (excitement seeking and new experience seeking) retained for further analysis.

**(c) Social class**

Social class was measured by three items: education level (Sc1), occupation (Sc2), and income (Sc3). As the squared multiple correlation value of Sc2 of 1.13 which was greater than 0.99, this item should be constrained with a certain value (Holmes-Smith, 2010). In this case, the value of 0.005 was placed. The chi-square for this construct was 2.86 and probability was 0.09 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Other indices values were TLI of 0.99, CFI of 1.00, RMSEA of 0.59, and GFI was 1.00 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999) (see Figure 8.6).

**Figure 8.6 The congeneric model of social class factor**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>GFI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Result</td>
<td>2.856</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut-off</td>
<td>&gt; 0.05</td>
<td>&lt; 3.0</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>≤ 0.05</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.3.4. **Motivation for being involved in VT**

Five factors of motivation were measured independently (physiological, public service, religious, social interaction, and environmental motivations) as separate dimensions of motivations. Several items loading onto some factors had been dropped in order to obtain a good fitted model, for instance, (a) physiological motivation, from 10 to four items and (b) public service motivation, from six to four items.
Physiological motivation

This construct indicated that it had a good fitting model with a chi-square of 4.72 and probability of 0.10 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Other indices, for instance, TLI, CFI, RMSEA, and GFI (0.99, 1.00, 0.05, and 1.00), indicated that this physiological motivation construct was a good fitted model (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999) (see Figure 8.7). The four items that were retained for physiological motivation were: M5 (Volunteer tourism would allow me to get away from everyday physical stress/pressure), M6 (Volunteer tourism would allow me to get away from the usual demands of life), M9 (Volunteer tourism would allow me to not to worry about time), and M14 (Volunteer tourism would allow me to be away from my daily routine).

![Figure 8.7 The congeneric model of physiological motivation factor](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>GFI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Result</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut-off</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; 0.05</td>
<td>&lt; 3.0</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>≤ 0.05</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Public service motivation

The construct of public service motivation retained four items, showing a good fitted model with chi-square of 0.04 and probability of 0.88 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). All indices resulted in really good great values for each criterion, with TLI of 1.00, CFI of
1.00, RMSEA of 0.00, and GFI of 1.00 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999) (see Figure 8.8). The items that were retained for the public service motivation construct were: M41 (Volunteer tourism would allow me to give something back to a community), M39 (Volunteer tourism would allow me to make a difference), M35 (Volunteer tourism would allow me to help a community), and M40 (Volunteer tourism would allow me to help an organisation).

### Table 8.8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>GFI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Result</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut-off</td>
<td>&gt; 0.05</td>
<td>&lt; 3.0</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>≤ 0.05</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 8.8 The congeneric model of public service motivation factor*

**Religious motivation**

The religious motivation construct was measured by three items with a chi-square of 2.26 and a probability of 0.13 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). This good fitted model had TLI of 1.00, CFI of 0.999, RMSEA of 0.05, and GFI of 1.00 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999) (see Figure 8.9). All three items were retained for further analysis and the items were: M24 (Volunteer tourism would allow me to fulfil my religious obligation), M34 (I have a desire to share my religious values), and M36 (It’s God’s expectation of me).
Social interaction

The social interaction motivation construct was measured by five items with chi-square of 4.71 and probability of 0.45 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). This construct indicated that it was the best fitted model with TLI of 1.00, CFI of 1.00, RMSEA of 0.00, and GFI of 1.00 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999) (see Figure 8.10). All five items were retained for further analysis and the items were: M7 (Volunteer tourism would provide a way for me to make new friends), M15 (The social opportunities provided by volunteer tourism are important to me), M17 (Volunteer tourism would be a way to build my social networks), M27 (I look forward to the social contracts that volunteer tourism affords me), and M30 (Volunteer tourism would allow me to learn how to deal with a variety of people).
Environmental motivation

The environmental motivation construct was measured using three items with chi-square of 6.36 and probability of 0.01 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). This construct indicated a good fitted model with TLI of 0.99, CFI of 1.00, and GFI of 0.99 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999) (see Figure 8.11). In this model, an RMSEA of 0.10 was greater than the values expected. As other values of good fit were acceptable it was decided to proceed with caution with this construct (Hair Jr. et al., 2006). The three items were retained for further analysis for this construct and the items were: M23 (Volunteer tourism would allow me to do something for an environmental cause that is important to me), M29 (I have a concern for the environment), and M33 (Volunteer tourism would allow me to help the environment).

Figure 8.10 The congeneric model of social interaction motivation factor
8.3.5. Constraints to being involved in VT

The constraints variable had two factors – perceived and factual constraints. The confirmatory factor analysis retained three items for each factor.

**Perceived constraints**

The perceived constraints construct was tested with three items with a chi-square of 0.33 and a probability of 0.57 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). As a good fitted model, this construct had TLI of 1.01, CFI of 1.00, RMSEA of 0.00, and GFI of 1.00 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Carmines & McIver, 1981; Hu & Bentler, 1999) (see Figure 8.12). These were retained for further analysis and the items were C4 (I’ve done volunteer tourism before and I don’t want to be involved anymore), C6 (I’m not interested in volunteer tourism), and C7 (I don’t believe that volunteer tourism can help people effectively). Like subjective norms variable, as the items for perceived constraint were just three, all the items retained.
**Factual constraints**

For the factual constraints construct, an additional three items were used to measure the construct and this resulted a chi-square of 0.26 and a probability of 0.61 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). This construct had TLI of 1.03, CFI of 1.00, RMSEA of 0.00, and GFI of 1.00 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999) (see Figure 8.13). Even though the regression weights were low for two of the items, it was decided to retain these items for further analysis and the items were C1 (I don’t have enough time because my family/work requires my time), C2 (I don’t know enough about volunteer tourism), and C3 (I, or someone I would want to travel with, is physically unable to be involved). Again, as only three items for this dimension, all the items retained.
8.3.6. Reliability tests, variance extracted, and discriminant validity

This subsection describes the test of items reliability, construct reliability, variance extracted, and discriminant validity. All the results are shown in Table 8.7.

**Item reliability**

All items were observed by examining the squared multiple correlations on SEM output (Holmes-Smith, 2010) for each construct as discussed above. As a result, all items of subjective norms, altruistic lifestyle values, and motivations indicated adequate and high reliabilities (see Figure 8.7); one item of some variables, such as attitude (At5), excitement seeking (Ss8), new experience seeking (Ss2), social class (Sc1), and perceived constraints (C4) had a poor reliability; and two items of factual constraints (C2 and C8) constructs had a poor reliability. Due to the nature of the constructs and fitted congeneric models achieved, it was decided to retain all the items for further analysis in the assessment of the fitted model (Holmes-Smith, 2010).

**Extracted variance and discriminant validity**

The average extracted variance and the discriminant validity for all factors and variables ranged respectively from 0.81 to 0.91 and 0.90 to 0.95. All constructs were considered adequate to be included in further analysis of structural equation modelling (Holmes-Smith, 2010).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors/items</th>
<th>Factor loadings</th>
<th>Item reliability</th>
<th>Construct reliability</th>
<th>Average extracted variance (AVE)</th>
<th>Discriminant validity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attitude</strong>*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At1 Enjoyable experience - Unenjoyable experience.</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At2 Valuable experience – Not valuable experience.</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At3 Uninteresting experience – Interesting experience.</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At5 Memorable experience – Forgettable experience.</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subjective norms</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub1 Most people who are important to me would think it was desirable for me to be involved in volunteer tourism.</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub2 Most people who are important to me would approve of me being involved in volunteer tourism.</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub3 Most people who are important to me would NOT want me to be involved in volunteer tourism.</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Altruistic lifestyle values</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ls1 I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ls2 I feel compassion toward people in need.</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ls3 I feel compassion toward people in need.</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ls4 I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Excitement seeking</strong>*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ss4 I like wild parties.</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ss6 I prefer friends who are excitingly unpredictable.</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ss7 I would love to have new and exciting experiences, even if they are illegal.</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ss8 I would love to have new and exciting experiences, even if they are illegal.</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>New experience seeking</strong>*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ss1 I like exploring strange places.</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ss2 I get restless when I spend too much time at home.</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ss3 I like to do challenging things.</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social class</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sc1 Educational level</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sc2 Current occupation</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sc3 Annual income</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*1 item in this construct had low values on reliability; **2 items in this construct had low values on reliability; ***3 items in this construct had low values on reliability.
Continued. Table 8.9 Results of factor loadings, item reliability, construct realiability, extracted variance, and discriminant validity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
<th>Construct Reliability</th>
<th>Extracted Variance</th>
<th>Discriminant Validity</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Physiological motivation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M5 Voluntary tourism would allow me to get away from everyday physical stress/pressure.</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M6 Volunteer tourism would allow me to get away from the usual demands of life.</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M9 Volunteer tourism would allow me not to worry about time.</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M14 Volunteer tourism would allow me to be away from my daily routine.</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Public service motivation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M41 Volunteer tourism would allow me to give something back to a community.</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M35 Volunteer tourism would allow me to help a community.</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M40 Volunteer tourism would allow me to help an organisation.</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M39 Volunteer tourism would allow me to make a difference.</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Environmental motivation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M23 Volunteer tourism would allow me to do something for an environmental cause that is important to me.</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M29 I have a concern for the environment.</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M33 Volunteer tourism would allow me to help the environment.</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social interaction motivation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M7 Volunteer tourism would provide a way for me to make new friends.</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M15 The social opportunities provided by volunteer tourism are important to me.</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M17 Volunteer tourism would be a way to build my social networks.</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M27 I look forward to the social contacts that volunteer tourism affords me.</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M30 Volunteer tourism would allow me to learn how to deal with a variety of people.</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Religious motivation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M24 Volunteer tourism would allow me to fulfil my religious obligation.</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M34 I have a desire to share my religious values.</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M36 It’s God expectation of me.</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perceived constraints</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4 I’ve done volunteer tourism before and I don’t want to be involved any more.</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C6 I’m not interested in volunteer tourism.</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C7 I don’t believe that volunteer tourism can help people effectively.</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factual constraints</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1 I don’t have enough time because my family/work requires my time.</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2 I don’t know enough about volunteer tourism.</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C8 Financially, I can’t afford it.</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*1 item in this construct had low values on reliability; **2 items in this construct had low values on reliability; ***3 items in this construct had low values on reliability
The next section presents the second order constructs of variables: sensation-seeking personality and motivation.

8.4. Second order constructs
A second order construct was undertaken to group certain individual constructs under one higher order construct. The constructs were built based on the EFA results. There were three variables to be analysed: sensation-seeking personality (subsection 8.2.3) and taking/receiving motivation and giving motivation (subsection 8.2.4). The procedure involved merging all items into a second order congeneric model.

8.4.1. Sensation-seeking personality
The second order construct of sensation-seeking personality contained excitement seeking and new experience seeking factors. These constructs had a good fitting model after eliminating two items of the excitement seeking factor, with a chi-square of 7.52 and probability of 0.11 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The construct was also supported by other good values, for instance, TLI of 0.98, CFI of 0.99, RMSEA of 0.04, and GFI of 1.00 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999) (see Figure 8.14).
### Table 8.14 The second order of sensation-seeking personality variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>GFI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Result</td>
<td>7.518</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut-off</td>
<td>&gt; 0.05</td>
<td>&lt; 3.0</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>≤ 0.05</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 8.14 The second order of sensation-seeking personality variable**

### 8.4.2. Motivation for being involved in VT

Two methods to examine the motivation variable as a second order construct were examined. The first approach failed to form a fit model by locating the five factors (physiological, public service, religious, social interaction, and environmental motivations) of motivation in a model. The model had a chi-square of 47.17 and probability of 0.01 which did not quite fit the data. However, other indices indicated good outcomes.

Another approach to treat the motivation variable was to categorise the factors into two different groups: “taking”, which consisted of physiological, religious, and social interaction motivations; and “giving”, which consisted of public service and environmental motivations. This categorisation was referred to in the literature review in Chapter Two (section 2.5). The taking motivation model indicates a good fitting model with chi-square of 22.39 and probability of 0.17 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Other indices also indicate very good marks: TLI of 1.00, CFI of 1.00, RMSEA of
0.02, and GFI of 0.99 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999) (Figure 8.15).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>GFI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Result</td>
<td>22.39</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut-off</td>
<td>&gt; 0.05</td>
<td>&lt; 3.0</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>≤ 0.05</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 8.15 The second order of taking motivation variable*

The giving motivation construct also indicated a good fitting model with a chi-square of 1.87 and probability of 0.07 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Other indices also indicated very good values, for instance, TLI of 0.99, CFI of 1.00, RMSEA of 0.04, and GFI of 0.99 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999) (see Figure 8.16).
Figure 8.16 The second order of giving motivation variable

8.5. The fitted models to predict intention and stage of readiness
To assess the theoretical framework proposed and as illustrated in Chapter Two (presented here for reference. See Figure 8.17), the full model was assessed. Unfortunately, the model was not a good fit. Therefore, modifications were necessary to simplify the analysis and model construction. A number of alternative models were developed to test the objectives as stated in Chapter Two (see Chapter Two section 2.8).
As indicted, the initial analysis revealed that the full model was not a good fit. It was decided to reduce the size of the model (and subsequent number of variables), so a more focused analysis could be achieved. A number of models were tested and the following paragraphs discuss three resultant models that each test specific hypotheses as developed in Chapter Six. Each model consisted of a combination of three or more variables. The three-stage model of volunteers’ duration of service from Chacon, Vecina, and Dávila (2007) was adapted here to locate the observed variable (intention within 1 year, within 3 years, and within 5 years) on each full model.

Following each fitted model, a table is presented providing information about variables included in the model, such as the t-value, standardised total effects, effect interpretation, and related hypotheses. The t-value is a critical ratio or C.R. to observe whether a correlation between two variables is significant. Holmes-Smith (2010) and Byrne (2001) suggested to eliminate any correlations with a t-value less than 0.2 or keep them if there is a reasonable supporting argument.

Another value revealed in the table is the standardised total effects, a sum of direct and indirect effects. This value can be obtained from the structural equation model output. Holmes-Smith (2010, p. 6.23) marked the rules of thumb to interpret these

Figure 8.17 The theoretical framework of the current study

As indicated, the initial analysis revealed that the full model was not a good fit. It was decided to reduce the size of the model (and subsequent number of variables), so a more focused analysis could be achieved. A number of models were tested and the following paragraphs discuss three resultant models that each test specific hypotheses as developed in Chapter Six. Each model consisted of a combination of three or more variables. The three-stage model of volunteers’ duration of service from Chacon, Vecina, and Dávila (2007) was adapted here to locate the observed variable (intention within 1 year, within 3 years, and within 5 years) on each full model.

Following each fitted model, a table is presented providing information about variables included in the model, such as the t-value, standardised total effects, effect interpretation, and related hypotheses. The t-value is a critical ratio or C.R. to observe whether a correlation between two variables is significant. Holmes-Smith (2010) and Byrne (2001) suggested to eliminate any correlations with a t-value less than 0.2 or keep them if there is a reasonable supporting argument.

Another value revealed in the table is the standardised total effects, a sum of direct and indirect effects. This value can be obtained from the structural equation model output. Holmes-Smith (2010, p. 6.23) marked the rules of thumb to interpret these
values of a full model: (a) a value of < 0.2 indicates a weak effect; (b) a value of between 0.2 to 0.3 indicates a mild effect; (c) a value of between 0.3 and 0.5 indicates a moderately strong effect; (d) a value of between 0.5 to 0.8 indicates a strong effect; and (e) a value of > 0.8 indicates an extremely strong effect.

8.5.1. The first fitted model

The first fitted model was a result of modifications from the theoretical proposed model that failed to result in a fitted model due to the size of the variables and the interrelationships. This model maintained variables, including attitude, subjective norms, sensation-seeking personality, and giving motivation. Other variables, for instance, altruistic lifestyle values, social class, taking motivation, and constraints (perceived and factual), were eliminated because they had a critical ratio value were less than 2.00 and standardised residual covariances over 1.96 (Byrne, 2001; Holmes-Smith, 2010).

Figure 8.18 illustrates the fitted model with chi-square of 119.65 and probability of 0.16 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Other indices, like TLI, CFI, RMSEA, and GFI were 1.00, 1.00, 0.02, and 0.98, indicated that this was a very good fitting model (Bentler, 1990; Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999). This model revealed the following relationships:

1) Attitude directly linked to giving motivation.
2) Subjective norms directly linked to giving motivation.
3) Sensation seeking directly linked to giving motivation.
4) Giving motivation directly linked to all intentions (within 1 year, 3 years, and 5 years).
The fitted model accepted three hypotheses (Figure 8.8):

- **H3** – There is a positive relationship between a person’s intention to be involved in VT and their stage of readiness to be involved in VT.

- **H5b** – There is a positive relationship between a person’s sensation-seeking personality and their motivation to be involved in VT.

- **H7a** – There is a positive relationship between a person’s motivation to be involved in VT and their intention to be involved in VT.

Furthermore, new relationships were developed (see Table 8.8) between: (a) intention within 1 year and intention 2 year, (b) intention within 1 year and intention within 3 years, (c) intention 2 year and intention within 3 years, (d) attitude and giving motivation, and (e) subjective norms and giving motivation.
Dependent variable | Independent variable | t-value | Standardized total effects | Effect interpretation | Hypothesis
--- | --- | --- | --- | --- | ---
In1 → Stage | 4.77 | 0.47 | Moderately Strong | H3 (1)
In2 → Stage | 2.49 | 0.43 | Moderately Strong | H3 (2)
In3 → Stage | 3.15 | 0.23 | Moderately Strong | H3 (3)
In1 → In2 | 20.73 | 0.61 | Strong | *
In1 → In3 | -6.36 | 0.38 | Moderately Strong | (rejected) *
In2 → In3 | 26.06 | 0.92 | Strong | *
ATTITUD → GIVING | 7.28 | 0.39 | Moderately Strong | *
SUB_N → GIVING | 6.91 | 0.40 | Moderately Strong | *
SENSAT → GIVING | 3.83 | 0.19 | Weak | H5b
GIVING → In1 | 7.23 | 0.37 | Moderately Strong | H7a (1)
GIVING → In3 | 8.80 | 0.58 | Strong | H7a (2)
GIVING → In5 | 5.06 | 0.62 | Strong | H7a (3)

Note: SUB_N = subjective norms, ATTITUD = attitude, GIVING = giving motivation, In1 = intention within 1 year, In2 = intention within 3 years, In3 = intention within 5 years, and Stage = stage of readiness. *New relations, were not included in hypotheses development.

8.5.2. The second fitted model

This model was tested to examine the hypotheses relating to motivation. This model retained both motivation variables (taking/receiving and giving). Once the taking motivation variable was held, there was an option to eliminate the sensation seeking, social class, altruistic lifestyle values, and constraints variables because they had critical ration (C.R.) values of less than 2.00 and standardised residual covariances greater than 1.96 (Byrne, 2001; Holmes-Smith, 2010). There was also an option to eliminate religious motivation factor for the same reasons (Holmes-Smith, 2010).

In this model, attitude, subjective norms, and taking motivation variables remained. The final model – statistics included a chi-square of 141.55 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) – however, the probability measured 0.04. The model was considered fitted in spite of the probability being less than 0.05, as other indices revealed good scores,
including TLI of 0.99, CFI of 0.99, RMSEA of 0.03, and GFI of 0.98 (Bentler, 1990; Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999). As this quantitative study had 542 cases, it could be considered acceptable if only one of the indices had a lower value (Holmes-Smith, 2010).

This second fitted model resulted in the following relationships:

1) Attitude directly linked to taking motivation and giving motivation.
2) Subjective norms directly linked to taking and giving motivation.
3) Taking motivation directly linked to giving motivation.
4) Giving motivation directly linked to all intentions (within 1 year, 3 years, and 5 years).

Moreover, initially environmental motivation was owned by the giving motivation, but it was also belonged to the taking motivation; physiological motivation in the second order construct was contained by M5 and M6. But in this model, M6 was replaced by M9 to get an acceptable value of probability (Hair Jr. et al., 2006; Holmes-Smith, 2010); moreover, two residuals of environmental motivation and public service motivation were correlated.
The second version of fitted model accepted two hypotheses, for instance, H3 and H7a:

- **H3** – There is a positive relationship between a person’s intention to be involved in VT and their stage of readiness to be involved in VT.
- **H7a** – There is a positive relationship between a person’s motivation to be involved in VT and their intention to be involved in VT.

Furthermore, new relationships were developed: (a) intention within 1 year and intention within 3 years, (b) intention within 1 year and intention within 5 years, (c) intention within 3 years and intention within 5 years, (d) intention within 1 year and stage of readiness, (f) intention within 3 years and stage of readiness, and (g)
intention within 5 years and stage of readiness. Other new relationships were between (h) attitude and giving motivation and between and (i) subjective norms and giving motivation.

Table 8.11 Hypotheses testings of the second fitted model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Standardised total effects</th>
<th>Effect interpretation</th>
<th>Effect interpretation</th>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ln1 → Stage</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>Moderately strong</td>
<td>H3 (1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln2 → Stage</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>Moderately strong</td>
<td>H3 (2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln3 → Stage</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>Mild</td>
<td>H3 (3)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln1 → ln2</td>
<td></td>
<td>19.97</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>Strong *</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln1 → ln3</td>
<td></td>
<td>-6.37</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>Moderately strong *</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln2 → ln3</td>
<td></td>
<td>25.22</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>Extremely strong *</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATTITUDE → GIVING</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>Moderately strong *</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUB_N → GIVING</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>Moderately strong *</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUB_N → TAKING</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>Mild *</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TAKING → GIVING</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>Moderately strong *</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATTITUDE → TAKING</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>Mild *</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GIVING → ln1</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>Moderately strong</td>
<td>H7a (1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GIVING → ln2</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.07</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>H7a (2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GIVING → ln3</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>H7a (3)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: SUB_N = subjective norms, ATTITUD = attitude, TAKING = taking motivation, GIVING = giving motivation, motivation, ln1 = intention within 1 year, ln2 = intention within 3 years, ln3 = intention within 5 years, and Stage = stage of readiness. *New relations, were not included in hypotheses development

8.5.3. The third fitted model

In an effort to examine the motivation construct further, it was decided to include all factors of motivation (physiological, social interaction, environmental, public service, and religious) in a fully tested model. To obtain a fitted model as suggested by the output of SEM, two of the factors (social interaction and religious motivation) were
eliminated along with other variables, for instance, social class, altruistic lifestyle values, sensation-seeking personality, and constraints because the critical ratio (C.R.) values were lower than 2.00 and standardised residual covariances were mostly greater than 1.96 (Byrne, 2001; Holmes-Smith, 2010).

Referring to the model, the following relationships resulted:

1) Attitude directly linked to motivation.
2) Subjective norms directly linked to motivation.
3) Motivation directly linked to all intentions (within 1 year, 3 years, and 5 years).

This fitted model had a chi-square of 82.01, probability of 0.05, TLI of 0.99, CFI of 1.00, RMSEA of 0.02, and GFI of 0.99 (Bentler, 1990; Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Carmines & McIver, 1981; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) (see Figure 8.20 below).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>GFI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Result</td>
<td>82.01</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut-off</td>
<td>&gt; 0.05</td>
<td>&lt; 3.0</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>≤ 0.05</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: SUB_N = subjective norms, ATTITUD = attitude, SENSAT = sensation seeking, MOTIVE = motivation, PHY_M = physiological motivation, PUB_M = public service motivation, In1 = intention within 1 year, In2 = intention within 3 years, In3 = intention within 5 years, and Stage = stage of readiness.

Figure 8.20 The third fitted model to predict intention and stage of readiness
The third version of fitted model accepted two hypotheses, for instance, H3 and H7a:

- H3 – There is a positive relationship between a person’s intention to be involved in VT and their stage of readiness to be involved in VT.
- H7a – There is a positive relationship between a person’s motivation to be involved in VT and their intention to be involved in VT.

The following relationships were revealed (see Table 8.10): (a) intention within 1 year and intention within 3 years, (b) intention within 1 year and intention within 5 years, (c) intention within 3 years and intention within 5 years. Furthermore, it created relationships between (d) intention within 1 year and stage of readiness, (e) intention 3 and stage of readiness, and (f) intention within 5 years and stage of readiness.

Table 8.12 Hypotheses testing of the third fitted model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Standardised total effects</th>
<th>Effect interpretation</th>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In1 → Stage</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>Moderately strong</td>
<td>H3 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In2 → Stage</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>Moderately strong</td>
<td>H3 (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In3 → Stage</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>Mild</td>
<td>H3 (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In1 → In2</td>
<td></td>
<td>19.66</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In1 → In3</td>
<td></td>
<td>-6.24</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>Moderately strong</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In2 → In3</td>
<td></td>
<td>24.58</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>Extremely strong</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATTITUD → MOTIVE</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.07</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>Moderately strong</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUB_N → MOTIVE</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.95</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>Moderately strong</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOTIVE → In1</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>Moderately strong</td>
<td>H7a (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOTIVE → In2</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.48</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>H7a (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOTIVE → In3</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>H7a (3)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: SUB_N = subjective norms, ATTITUD = attitude, SENSAT = sensation seeking, MOTIVE = motivation, In1 = intention within 1 year, In2 = intention within 3 years, In3 = intention within 5 years, and Stage = stage of readiness. *New relations, were not included in hypotheses development.
Further analysis was conducted, on nested models within the initial large suggested model. These are presented in Appendix 4.

8.6. Summary of chapter eight

This chapter has presented the second part of the quantitative study results. Having 542 cases, the raw data taken from the online survey was analysed using exploratory factor analysis to obtain items with high factor loadings which were then grouped into factors. These factors were then assessed using structural equation modelling to confirm all the indicators to be used for further analysis, followed by a reliability test – items and constructs, extracted variance, and discriminant validity.

The initial model as presented in Chapter Two was not found to fit the data as expected. This model was then modified and resulted in six models being examined, with different composition of factors and variables. The first fitted model included the variables: attitude, subjective norms, sensation seeking, and motivation. The fitted model was addressed to predict intention and stage of readiness to be involved in VT. This model accepted the hypotheses H3 (link between intention and stage of readiness), H5b (link between sensation seeking and motivation), and H7a (link between motivation and intention).

The second fitted model presented the taking/receiving motivation and the giving motivation in a full model; the third model focussed on the combination of all motivation factors without grouping into taking and giving; the implications of these models were discussed and will be further outlined in the following Chapter Nine. A further three models were examined and presented in Appendix 4, these examined religious motivation with other variables; altruistic lifestyle values and other variables, and constraints with other variables, in relations to predicting intention and stage of readiness.

The following chapter (Chapter 9) discusses the results of both the qualitative and quantitative phases, along with the literature. Referring to the research process diagram in chapter 3 (section 3.3) this chapter is the triangulation of all the data.
presented so far. The chapter also provides recommendations for future research and VT providers.
Chapter nine
Discussion and recommendations

9.1. Chapter overview
In the previous chapters, the author has explored and developed the following variables as determinants of intention and stage of readiness to be involved in VT: attitude toward the concept of volunteer tourism (VT), subjective norms, psychographic characteristics (altruistic lifestyle values, sensation-seeking personality, and social class), motivation (taking/receiving and giving), past experience (in tourism, volunteering, and VT), and constraints. The results were presented in Chapter Four and Chapter Five for the qualitative phase of this study and in Chapter Seven and Chapter Eight for the quantitative phase.

The author’s aim in this chapter is to discuss the results of the qualitative and quantitative studies along with the literature in tourism, volunteerism, and VT by triangulating, complementing, developing, initiating, and expanding (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989) all the resources and information. This will be done with reference back to the original objectives and research questions as noted in Chapter One and the hypotheses as developed in Chapter Six. In this chapter, the author also provides recommendations for future researchers and VT providers.

9.2. Discussion and recommendation for future research
In this section the author discusses the research questions presented in the first chapter. The author uses materials from the literature and all the results from the quantitative and qualitative phases for this discussion.

Volunteer tourism: A moment to give, no moment to take. This phrase, which is used for titling this thesis, refers to the first version of the fitted models where the
taking/receiving motivation was eliminated and only the giving motivation (mediated attitude, subjective norms, and sensation seeking) was retained to explain intention to be involved in VT. This idea was also supported by the fifth version of the model where the giving motivation was retained and the taking/receiving motivation was deleted due to fit requirements. In the second version, the taking/receiving motivation survived but it did not connect to intention directly. This variable was mediated by the giving motivation. Through these findings, the author suggested separating the two motivational factors – the taking/receiving motivation and giving motivation. Particularly in the VT setting, the giving motivation was more powerful than the taking/receiving motivation to predict intention of respondents to be involved in VT. These findings were significantly aligned with the qualitative results, which showed that respondents were motivated to be involved in VT for reasons of helping and giving to the needy while participating in tourism activities was just a bonus.

9.2.1. Attitude towards the concept of VT – the first research question

To what extent do the individuals’ attitudes toward the concept of VT influence their motivation, intention, and stage of readiness?

This subsection discusses the exploration of respondents’ attitudes towards the concept of VT and their relationship with motivation, intention, and stage of readiness and answered the research question.

The qualitative study identified a range of attitudes toward the concept of VT, these were: (a) disagree with the concept of VT, (b) partially disagree with the concept, (c) agree with the concept of VT, and (d) partially agree with the concept of VT. This categorisation reminds the author of social distance theory (Bogardus, 1933). This theory discusses how individuals’ attitude towards a concept (like VT), can vary depending on their race, disease, occupation, religion, and shopping behaviour (Angermeyer, Matschinger, & Corrigan, 2004; Bogardus, 1958; Bouma; Dickson & MacLachlan, 1990; Laumann, 1965; Tasci, 2008). Social distance theory has been applied in tourism (for example, Sinkovics & Penz, 2009; Tasci, 2008) and in VT.
The range of attitudes formulated in this study, indicates that VT is not a perfect activity; like everything in the world, VT has positive and negative views.

In the literature, the positive sides of VT included contributions to a conservation, community, and even to a nation visited: economic, labour, community health improvement, education, community development, sustainable tourism, and cultural exchange (Barnard, 2012; Broad & Jenkins, 2008; Campbell & Smith, 2006; Grimm, 2010; Grimm & Needham, 2011; J. Rattan, 2009; J. K. Rattan et al., 2011). The positive sides of VT also obtained by VT participants, such as for holidaying, learning a new thing (skill, language, culture), and meeting new people (A. Benson & Seibert, 2009; S. Brown, 2005; McGehee & Andereck, 2008; McIntosh & Zahra, 2008; Wearing, 2001).

On the other hand, the negative sides of VT have also been identified, such aspects as: crushing ethical boundaries, exploitation of local communities, children pretending to be orphans to get donations, sending unskilled and inexperienced volunteers, inappropriate cultural changes, and allowing participants to leave unfinished and unsatisfactory work at their volunteer destination (Birrel, 2010; Enderle, 2010; Forsythe, 2011; Guiney, 2012; Guttentag, 2009; Kacprzyk, n.d.; Scherbl & Lepore, 2011). Furthermore, while some authors (for example, H. V. Nguyen & Nguyen, 2012) have mentioned that VT supports a sustainable community or tourism, conversely Korkeakoski (2012) argued that VT had nothing to do with sustainable tourism.

The quantitative study examined whether attitude influences intention, motivation, and behaviour (stage of readiness) in a full model. The findings are as follows:

1) Attitude was linked to motivation directly in four of the six fitted models. The strength of the relationships were significant with a regression coefficient of 0.39 (between attitude and giving motivation) in the first model, 0.35 (between attitude and giving motivation and 0.26 (between attitude and taking/receiving motivation) in the second model, the regression coefficient was 0.45 (between attitude and motivation in general), and 0.36 (between attitude and giving
motivation) in the fifth model. This finding corresponded with prior studies (for example, Tsai, 2010a).

2) Attitude was related to motivation and this was linked to intention to engage in VT. It was evident that attitudes were not linked directly with stage of readiness although an additional model examining this relation could be tested as further research.

3) In the fourth model, attitude was directly linked to intentions (within 1 year). The strength of the relationship was mild (regression coefficient = 0.15). This finding corresponded with prior studies in tourism (for example, Han, Hsu, & Sheu, 2010; Hrubes et al., 2001; Kaplanidou & Gibson, 2012; Lam & Hsu, 2004; K.-S. Wu & Teng, 2011).

To understand the attitude of individuals adequately, future researchers could utilise the fit model/s created in this thesis to incorporate other variables. In addition, the Social Distance Theory could be further explored in relation to attitudes toward VT using a qualitative and/or quantitative approach.

9.2.2. Subjective norms – the second research question

To what extent do the individuals’ subjective norms influence their intentions to be involved in VT?

This subsection discusses the exploration of respondents’ subjective norms and the relationships of subjective norms with respondents’ intentions. In the qualitative study, respondents were informed, inspired, and encouraged to be involved in VT by their girlfriend/boyfriend, senior in school, colleague/s in the office, friend, parent, spouse, son, and/or travel mate. This information was presented in Chapter Four under the subsection ‘word of mouth (WOM) referral’. These findings highlighted the power of WOM referrals and the significant influence that positive WOM had on the intention to be involved in VT in the future.
In the quantitative study, the WOM term was included under the ‘subjective norms’ construct and this variable was significant in the model analysis. The subjective norms construct indicated its role by contributing to a fitted model, directly or indirectly. There were three findings relating to subjective norms:

1) In the first, second, third, and the fifth models (see Appendix 4), subjective norms had a direct relation with the giving motivation; in the third version, subjective norms were also related to motivation, but here, all factors of motivation were merged and only two factors retained (physiological and public service motivation).

2) In the fourth model (see Appendix 4), subjective norms related to intentions (within 1 year and within 3 years) directly. This finding corresponded with prior study in VT (S. J. Lee, 2011) and in tourism (for example, Han et al., 2010; Hrubes et al., 2001; Kaplanidou & Gibson, 2012; Lam & Hsu, 2006).

The author used only three items to measure subjective norms in the quantitative phase. In spite of obtaining a fitted model, the author recommends future researchers examine additional items for the subjective norms construct. It was evident from the qualitative results that a role was played by many people around a volunteer tourist before he or she decided to be involved in VT. Future research could examine influences from parents, brothers/sisters, relatives, colleague/s, travel mate, teachers/lecturers, and/or friends.

**Testing the theory of reasoned action (TRA)**

In response to Lee’s (2011) suggestion, the TRA was examined. Subjective norms and attitude are two variables used in the theory of reasoned action (TRA) (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). In his dissertation, Lee exploited the revised Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) which included these variables: attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, past experience in VT, motivation, and self-efficacy. These variables were used to predict the intention of potential
volunteer tourists to be involved in VT. Lee found that the revised TPB failed to measure intention. Therefore, he recommended future researchers test the TRA.

In the five versions of the fitted models found in this study, the revised TRA failed to predict intention and stage of readiness. However, an attempt was made to apply the TRA genuinely using only attitude and subjective norms variables (see Figure 9.1). This fitted model had a chi-square of 34.71 and probability of 0.12 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Other indices showed good values too, such as TLI of 1.00, CFI of 1.00, RMSEA of 0.03, and GFI of 1.00 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1995). Thus, in the model, it was shown that the TRA could predict intention. This finding corresponded with prior studies in tourism (for example, Kaplanidou & Gibson, 2012; Ryu & Jang, 2006).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>GFI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Result</td>
<td>34.71</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cutoff</td>
<td>&gt; 0.05</td>
<td>&lt; 3.0</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>≤ 0.08</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 9.1 The fitted model of theory of reasoned action on volunteer tourism*

However, the relationships between subjective norms and intentions in general were relatively weak: subjective norms and intention within 1 year had a regression coefficient of 0.19 (p≤0.05); subjective norms and intention within 3 years had a regression coefficient of 0.19 (p≤0.05); and subjective norms and intention within 5 years had a regression coefficient of 0.06 (p≤0.05). Indicating that perhaps WOM
was stronger the closer in time the VT activity was considered. In addition, the relationships between attitude and all intentions were relatively weak: attitude and intention within 1 year had a regression coefficient of 0.18 (p≤0.05); attitude and intention within 3 years of 0.15; and attitude and intention within 5 years had a value of 0.06. Moreover, a mild relationship occurred between intention within 1 year and stage of readiness (regression coefficient of 0.25 (p≤0.05)), intention within 3 years and stage of readiness (regression coefficient of 0.22 (p≤0.05)), and intention within 5 years and stage of readiness (regression coefficient of 0.23 (p≤0.05)). Further, a strong relationship occurred between intention within 1 year and intention within 3 years (regression coefficient value of 0.66 (p≤0.05)) and between intention within 3 years and intention within 5 years (regression coefficient value of 0.97 (p≤0.05)).

When evaluating all factors and variables, attitude and subjective norms were the most applicable variable for all versions of the fitted models in this study. However, the relationships as indicated were relatively weak to mild. As previously indicated, the standardised total effects of each variable – attitude to intention and subjective norms to intention – were weak and mild on each version of the fitted model (see Chapter Eight). With respect to the findings of this study, the elements – attitude and subjective norms – of the TRA indeed can be applied as a complementary, but not complete theory. Further research in measuring subjective norms and attitude could be explored to increase the understanding and explanatory power of the model.

9.2.3. Psychographic characteristics – the third research question

To what extent do the individuals’ psychographic characteristics of altruistic lifestyle values and social class influence their stage of readiness?

Three variables – altruistic lifestyle values, sensation-seeking personality, and social class (Gunter & Furnham, 1992; Kotler et al., 2002) – were chosen to symbolise the psychographic characteristics to predict intention and stage of readiness to be involved in VT. To represent the altruistic lifestyle values, the author selected value
and to represent personality, the sensation-seeking construct was selected due to previous literature.

**Altruistic lifestyle values**

In the quantitative phase of the study, altruistic lifestyle values was measured using four items taken from the value dimension of the Volunteering Function Inventory (Clary et al., 1998), an inventory to examine motivation in volunteering. The factor analysis resulted in a single factor to obtain a fitted model but, once this variable was installed in a full model, altruistic lifestyle values was eliminated in the five versions of fitted model because the critical ratio values were lower than were expected (Byrne, 2001; Holmes-Smith, 2010). There are probable two aspects in understanding this finding: (a) VT has nothing to do with one’s altruistic lifestyle values, or (b) the measurement used in this study was not a good representation of altruistic lifestyle values. As this value has been highlighted in volunteer work (Clary et al. 1988), it would be useful for future research to re-examine how to measure the value of altruistic lifestyle for future VT model building.

In the fifth model (see Appendix 4), altruistic lifestyle values remained and contributed to a full fitted model, with new experience seeking, attitude, subjective norms, and giving motivation. In this model, altruistic lifestyle values had a direct relation to giving motivation, as was in line with previous research (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2004). Furthermore, altruistic lifestyle values had no relationship with stage of readiness (behaviour). Again, altruistic lifestyle value measurement and its role as a direct or mediating influence in VT could be further examined.

**Sensation-seeking personality**

Sensation-seeking personalities were explored in the qualitative study by asking individuals whether they were or were not adventurous. Most of the interviewees admitted that they were adventurous to some or a greater extent, particularly those
who had experienced VT. Based on this finding and a suggestion from the expert panel, the word ‘frightening’ used on the item “I like to do frightening things” from the brief of sensation seeking scale was changed to the word ‘adventuring’. This change could have influenced the results of the exploratory factor analysis, with the reduction in items from eight to seven.

Researchers, Ball and Zuckerman, (1990) eliminated the number of items of the original of sensation seeking scale from 64 to eight items; there after they called it the ‘brief sensation seeking scale’. In this study, the author reduced the items even more to only seven items under two dimensions (new experience seeking and excitement seeking), calling it the ‘mini of sensation-seeking scale’.

In the quantitative study, there were three findings relating to sensation seeking:

1) Sensation seeking was linked directly to giving motivation. This finding corresponded with prior studies in tourism (Xu, 2010; Xu et al., 2010).

2) In the second and third models, sensation seeking was deleted because the critical ratio value was less than 2.0 (Byrne, 2001; L. Coote, 2012; Holmes-Smith, 2010).

3) In the fourth model (see Appendix 4), sensation seeking was represented by the new experience seeking factor because items of the excitement seeking factor were deleted due to higher values on standardised residual covariances and regression weights (L. Coote, 2012; Holmes-Smith, 2010). The sensation-seeking personality was linked to intention within 1 year. In the sixth version, sensation seeking with both factors was linked to intention too. This finding was significant in that, it was similar to a prior study (Wymer Jr. et al., 2008) which demonstrated sensation seeking was related to intention to be involved in VT.

4) In the fifth version (see Appendix 4), sensation seeking was just represented by the new experience seeking factor. The excitement seeking factor was deleted because of standardised residuals covariances and regression weights (L. Coote, 2012; Holmes-Smith, 2010). In this version, sensation seeking was linked to the
giving motivation. This finding was partially similar to prior studies (Xu, 2010; Xu et al., 2010) that claimed that sensation seeking was linked to motivation.

5) In the sixth model (see Appendix 4), sensation seeking was directly linked to intention within 1 year and intention within 3 years.

These results indicate strong relationships between the sensation-seeking personality and motivation and intention to be involved in VT. This construct could be further examined both at a qualitative and measurement level to more fully understand the drivers. Future research could use the brief sensation-seeking scale as employed by Ball and Zuckerman (1990), or the mini sensation-seeking scale developed in this study.

**Social class**

Social class was explored in the qualitative study through a discussion of occupation, level of education, and annual income of individuals. Most of the respondents had a full-time job, an education degree, and they had saving to finance the VT cost. This discussion led to the tentative conclusion that social class may have had some influences on stage of readiness to be involved in VT.

In the quantitative study, social class was initially included in every full model but it was not retained in any versions of the fitted model, mainly because its critical ration value was lower than 2.0 and it was eliminated (L. Coote, 2012; Holmes-Smith, 2010). Given that prior research in leisure and tourism indicated a relationship between social class and behaviour (for example, M. Conner & Armitage, 1998; Herbert, 2001; Kraus, 1990), it seemed reasonable to assume that social class would have some influence on intention or stage of readiness to be involved in VT. This was not a finding supported by this research. It is recommended that this variable be further examined in terms of measurement and reviewed for future model development.
9.2.4. Motivation – the fourth research question

To what extent do the individuals’ motivation for taking and giving influence their intentions and stage of readiness to be involved in VT?

The exploration of respondents’ motivation for taking/receiving and giving and their relationship with intention and stage of readiness to be involved in VT is discussed in this subsection. Some previous researchers used a qualitative approach to investigate motivation in VT (for example, Broad & Jenkins, 2008; S. Brown, 2005; L.-j. Chen & Chen, 2010; Lo & Lee, 2010; Soderman & Snead, 2008; Taillon, 2007; Wearing, 2001). Other authors used a quantitative approach to examine motivation in VT (for example, A. Benson & Seibert, 2009; Cheung, Michel, & Miller, 2010a; Coren & Gray, 2011; S. J. Lee, 2011; Leonard & Onyx, 2009; Ooi & Laing, 2010). All of these studies mentioned – altruism and egoism – but did not divide motivation into these categories.

Earlier, the author mentioned that VT is a hybrid of volunteering and tourism. As they came together, it was realised there can be a hybrid of two activities – volunteerism and tourism (an intersection of the two concepts, and in participants’ perspectives, a combination of motivation) – related to volunteering and tourism. The author’s idea was to divide motivation in VT into two categories: taking/receiving motivation to represent egoism, and taking/receiving and giving motivation to represent altruism.

Whereas some researchers have considered VT as an alternative form of tourism (K. D. Lyons & Wearing, 2008, 2011; McGehee & Gard, 2002; Sindiga, 1999; Wearing, 2001), based on the findings, the author offers the new perspective that VT is more of an alternative form of volunteering because VT tends to be dominated by the giving or altruistic motivation, rather than the taking/receiving or egoistic motivation.

**Taking/receiving and giving (TRG) motivation**
Some researchers have used the terms egoism (or selfishness) and altruism (for example, Broad, 2003; Coghlan, 2005; Coghlan & Fennell, 2009; Grimm, 2010). In this study, the author wanted to accommodate these two domains by using ‘taking/receiving motivation’ to represent egoistic motivations (tourism) and ‘giving motivation’ to represent altruism motivations (volunteering). On the other hand, in all literature on motivation in the three fields of tourism, volunteering, and VT motivation of tourists was linked with taking/receiving, whereas the motivation of volunteer and volunteer tourists indicated both taking/receiving and giving. Figure 9.2 below is a refinement of the initial figure illustrated in Chapter Two.

![Diagram](image)

*Figure 9.2 The taking/receiving and giving (TRG) motivation in VT*

Based on the literature review (see Chapter Two), the author has developed a diagram to illustrate the TRG, with two main domains: on the left side is taking/receiving domain, which consists of physiological, protective, social interaction, self-esteem, understanding, and self-actualisation motivations. On the right side is the giving domain, which consists of public service, environmental, religious, and project or organisational motivations. The qualitative study results support the idea of the TRG: respondents’ motivation contained taking/receiving and giving.
Drawing on the quantitative study results, the author further developed these concepts: taking/receiving domain only included physiological, social interaction, and environmental motivations. The giving domain included public service and environmental motivations. The findings also indicated that environmental motivation could belong to both domains; in other words, individuals who are interested in saving the environment are also interested in enjoying it. Furthermore, religious motivation was shown to be independent and not grouped with either the taking/receiving or giving domains. Individuals who are religiously motivated may be singularly driven by that purpose.

**The power of giving**

When the author explored idea of separating the motivations of respondents involved in VT into ‘taking/receiving’ and ‘giving’ within the model analysis (SEM) two relationships emerged:

1) In the second order construct testing factors related to giving (public service motivation and environmental motivation) were separated to factors related to taking/receiving motivation (physiological motivation and social interaction motivation). Religious motivation, which initially was developed under the giving motivation as depicted in Chapter Two, in fact, was aligned with the taking/receiving motivation. This was explained as when someone wants to help someone else based on a religious motive, he or she actually wants to receive God’s blessing.

2) The results of the theoretical proposed model testing suggested that the giving motivation supported a fitted model (the first and fifth models). This finding of a positive relationship between motivation (giving) and intention, corresponded with prior studies (for example, Huang & Hsu, 2009; Konu & Laukkanen, 2009).

The qualitative study revealed that some respondents were motivated to be involved in volunteering (overseas) because of religious reasons; for example, ‘I feel
that I’m being called forward to do it’, ‘motivation is very much related to what we believe’, and ‘it was something that we felt that God was calling us to do’.

However, when analysing the quantitative results, the author developed a second order construct of motivation. Unfortunately, the religious dimension was deleted from the model (L. Coote, 2012; Holmes-Smith, 2010). It was considered that possibly when an individual wants to serve other people based on their religious belief, they actually also receive a blessing or boon from God. Therefore, the action of religious motivation is a combination of the two motivations of taking/receiving and giving.

Regardless of other factors of motivation, the author installed only the religious motivation factor into the fourth version of fitted model. In this version, the religious motivation proved its power in predicting intention, alone. This finding converged with existing literature in VT on the relationship between religious and volunteering (for example, Erdely, 2011; McGehee & Andereck, 2008; Sahabu et al., 2011). This finding also resonated with studies in volunteering that claimed that religiosity linked to volunteering behaviour (for example, Becker & Dhingra, 2001; Brooks, 1980; E. F. Jackson, Bachmeier, Wood, & Craft, 1995; Park & Smith, 2000). However, this finding did not match studies that stated that religiosity had no link to volunteer behaviour (for example, Cnaan, Kasternakis, & Wineburg, 1993; Wymer Jr., 1997).

Future study of the role of religious motivation could examine the fourth version of the fitted model and include the variables: new experience seeking, past experience in VT, attitude, and subjective norms. Furthermore, researchers could address individuals in specific locations, such as religious institutions or projects.

The market segmentation to address

Segmentation is critical in developing marketing strategies (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2004), a poor marketing strategy might fail to attract potential (international) volunteers (J. D. Smith, 1999). Segmentation is used by volunteer managers to consider the type of experiences and benefits of volunteering to be offered to the
volunteers (Randle, Grun, & Dolnicar, 2007). According to Dolnicar (2001, p. 18), segmentation in the tourism industry is a strategy “to strengthen their [tourism industry] competitive advantage by selecting the most suitable sub-group of tourists”.

Based on the findings (predominantly the qualitative phase), the author outlines the segmentation for VT as: (a) People who love people, for those who love helping, sharing, giving, meeting, and interacting with others (types of volunteer works that are suitable for individuals in this segment are, for example, teaching and working with community); (b) people who love nature, for those who love sceneries, enjoy nature, passionate about working with animals, and help the environment; (c) People who love adventuring, for those who love being outdoors and want to satisfy their physiological needs in an adventurous way. On the other hand, these people have a concern for responsible and sustainable tourism/VT; (d) religious people, for those who do things because of religious reasons. Different to segmentation made by prior researchers, in this study, each segment has two domains of motivation: taking/receiving and giving.

By far, fewer studies (for example, Wymer Jr. et al., 2010) in VT focussed on segmentation, therefore future researchers could fill this gap by considering exploring further segmentation discussed above.

9.2.5. Past experience – the fifth research question

To what extent do the individuals’ motivation for taking and giving influence their intentions and stage of readiness to be involved in VT?

This subsection discusses the exploration of the past experience (in tourism, volunteerism, and VT) of individuals and their relationship with stage of readiness to be involved in VT. The author investigated past experience by focussing on the three fields: tourism, volunteering, and VT, but in a different form of question for each of them when he interviewed respondents with VT experience only.
Past experience in tourism

Based on the qualitative study, respondents’ past experience in tourism was linked with their purposes for taking a holiday, such as for holiday, for visiting one’s family and friends, for spiritual nourishment, for volunteering, for business, for visiting home town, and for watching a performance. This finding corresponded with some of the prior research (Davidson, 1989; Dickman, 1994; United Nations, 2010). Of those who volunteered in their holiday, some chose a destination within their country and others preferred going abroad. Because this was a holiday time, most of the respondents who volunteered spent some time engaging in tourism activities. There are two elements to the reason for the name ‘VT’: (a) the participants combined the activities of volunteering and tourism; (b) the participants are tourists – referring to the definition of a tourist and an international tourist created by the OECD (2001, 2006) – who are involved in volunteering.

In the quantitative study, past experience in tourism did not contribute to any version of the fitted models. This could have been by nature of the measurement used for past experience in tourism. Previous research did highlight a relationship between past experience and future intention (for example, Lam & Hsu, 2004; Shen et al., 2009; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998; K.-S. Wu & Teng, 2011; Yuan, Morrison, Cai, & Linton, 2008).

Past experience in volunteering and in VT

The results from the qualitative study on the past experience in volunteering found the aspects of volunteering, included paid/unpaid, formal/informal, mandatory, and domestic/international volunteering. These findings corresponded with past studies (for example, Cnaan et al., 1996; Leeman, n.d.; Reed & Selbee, 2000; Rochester, Paine, & Howlett, 2010).

In the qualitative study, the author explored many aspects of the participants’ past experience in VT, particularly their destinations and originating home country. Table 9.1 summarises this information.
In terms of geography, the author categorised six routes of where participants came and where they went to: (a) from a developed country to another developed country (McIntosh & Zahra, 2008; E. M. Raymond, 2007); (b) from a developed country to a developing country (J. Rattan, 2009; Walsh & Hampton, 2010); (c) within a developed country (Budd, 2012; Yoda, 2010); (d) from a developing country to another developing country; (e) from a developing country to a developed country; (f) within a developing country (Tendean, 2010).

Table 9.1 Country of origin and country of destination of volunteer tourists

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From</th>
<th>To</th>
<th>Respondent of this study</th>
<th>Supported literature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A developed country</td>
<td>Another developed country</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>Cases in New Zealand (McIntosh &amp; Zahra, 2008; E. M. Raymond, 2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A developed country</td>
<td>A developing country</td>
<td>Ally, Lolita, Anita, Jake, Lorna, Lewis, &amp; Sean</td>
<td>Cases in Thailand (Broad, 2003; J. Rattan, 2009; Van der Meer, 2007); Uganda (Stritch, 2011); South Africa (A. Benson &amp; Seibert, 2009; Stoddart &amp; Rogerson, 2004); Malaysia (Chan, 2011b; Daldeniz &amp; Hampton, 2010; Walsh &amp; Hampton, 2010) Cases in Japan (Yoda, 2010), USA (Budd, 2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within a developed country</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ginger, Tina</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A developing country</td>
<td>Another developing country</td>
<td>Anny</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A developing country</td>
<td>A developed country</td>
<td>Jill, Fang, &amp; Leo</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within a developing country</td>
<td></td>
<td>Vida, Eve, &amp; Devi</td>
<td>Cases in Indonesia (Tendean, 2009, 2010)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For future researchers, there is a potential gap in the literature on comparing variables such as attitude, motivation, constraints, and intention among volunteer tourists based on the six routes as explained above. Particularly, this could be integrated with the literature on discussing consequences of and relationships between colonialism and post-colonialism (Palacios, 2010), north and south (Vrasti, 2012), and rich and poor (Crossley, 2012).

In the quantitative study, past experience in volunteering and in VT did not have any role in any fitted models. This was possibly due to measurement issues with the construct or high inter-correlations within the initial model/s. Previous research
indicated a mixed view on whether past experience influences future intention to be involved in volunteering (for example, Lam & Hsu, 2004; Ryu & Jang, 2006).

9.2.6. Constraints and stage of readiness – the sixth research question

To what extent do past experiences (in tourism, volunteerism, and VT) of individuals influence their stage of readiness to be involved in VT?

This subsection discusses the exploration of the constraints of individuals and their relationship with stage of readiness to be involved in VT. In the qualitative study, the question of constraints was addressed for those who were not interested in VT and not involved in another project of VT in the near future. As a result, the constraints for being engaged in VT included disagreeing to the concept of VT – marrying the tourism and volunteering activities, finance, family, and distance with an expected location. A constraint facing individuals might be just a perception or a true factual constraint.

In the focus groups and interviews, respondents were informed about the concept of VT, to which the respondents reacted variously. In Figure 9.3 below, line A is for individuals who disagreed with the concept of VT; line B is for individuals who agreed with the concept of VT but had no interest in VT; line C is for individuals who had an interest but had no intention to be involved in the near future; line D is for individuals who had experienced VT but for various reasons – understanding on the concept, family, finance, and work – they had no intention to be involved in another VT project in the near future; line E is for individuals who had taken an action, but they did not want to undertake another VT project; and line F is for individuals who maintained their interests and passions for being involved in VT more than twice.

In the line A, there was an indication of lack of awareness of the terminology and the concept of VT. Not all international volunteers and volunteer tourists had heard about the term of VT. Respondents mentioned that they were more familiar with the term “volunteer abroad”, “volunteer vacation”, “volunteer international”, and “volunteer global” than VT. Furthermore, they felt more comfortable relating their
activities to “volunteering” than “tourism” because their intention was to participate in volunteering. This finding corresponded with studies conducted by Lasso Communications and VoluntourismGal.com (2009) who found that the term voluntourism as mentioned by participants ranked third among other terms.

There were two other clues that VT was an unfamiliar term for individuals. First, when the author commenced writing this thesis, he asked about a dozen people whether they had heard, understood or experienced VT. No-one had. Second, when the author recruited potential respondents for the qualitative study, all of them contacted and asked the meaning of VT, even those who had experienced VT itself. The author then decided to test respondents’ attitudes toward the concept of VT.

![Figure 9.3 The involvement process in VT based on the qualitative study findings](image)

Figure 9.3 above illustrates the involvement process in VT and this process matches the stage of readiness process (Prochaska & DiClemente, 1992) – precontemplation, contemplation, preparation, action, termination, and maintenance. Further, this diagram is also similar with the classic concept of AIDA (attention/awareness, interest, desire, and action), distinguishing between the involvement process of
international volunteers, individuals who had no experience in VT, and volunteer tourists. All respondents admitted that they were not familiar with the term VT.

In the quantitative study, the constraints variable contained two factors: perceived and factual. In the first, second, third, fourth, and fifth models, the constraints variable was not retained because the critical ratio value was lower than 2.0. In addition, these models had values of standardised residual covariances that were relatively high (Byrne, 2001; L. Coote, 2012; Holmes-Smith, 2010). However, in the sixth model, constraints was represented by perceived constraints variable was linked to all intentions (within 1 year and within 3 years), in a negative form. These findings were somewhat different from prior studies (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998) that showed that constraints variable was positively linked to intention in a positive form.

In future research, constraints might be commenced by measuring awareness on the concept of VT, followed by acceptance on the concept, interest, preparation, action, another preparation, and another action. Constraint items like time and finance did not work in any versions of the fitted model. Although this outcome could be a measurement issue, future research may also include exploring constraints more deeply with individuals with and without VT experience in order to understand the constraints concept.

9.2.7. Intention – the seven research question

To what extent do the individuals’ constraints influence their stage of readiness to be involved in VT?

This subsection discusses the exploration of intention of individuals and their relationship with stage of readiness to be involved in VT. In the qualitative study, respondents who had an intention to be involved in VT were asked the following questions concerning motivation: motivations, where to go, with whom, what project, who would organise, and at which stage of preparation? On the other hand, those who had no intention to be involved in VT were asked about their constraints.
In the quantitative study, one question explored intention but it required three compulsory answers for the time periods: within 1 year, within 3 years, and within 5 years. This periodisation seemingly worked in all six models showing that intention influenced stage of readiness.

There were three findings showing how one period of intention linked to another (partially corresponded with prior studies, for example, Chacon et al., 2007; Vecina, Chacon, & Sueiro, 2010) and intention linked to stage of readiness (supported by prior studies, for example, Hrubes et al., 2001; J. Warburton & Terry, 2000):

1) In the first, second, third, and fifth models, intention within 1 year was linked to intention within 3 years; intention within 1 year was linked intention within 5 years; intention within 3 years was linked to intention within 5 years; and except the fifth model, all intentions were linked to stage of readiness.

2) In the fourth and sixth models, intention within 1 year was linked to intention within 3 years.

In the quantitative study motivation, attitude, and subjective norms were all linked to all intentions (within 1 year, within 3 years, and within 5 years) with mild and weak relationships. In addition, there were strong relationships between intention within 1 year and intention within 3 years; intention within 1 year and intention within 5 years; and intention within 3 years and between intentions within 5 years. Despite the fact that the models only described a small amount of influence to intentions, the relationships between periods of intentions indicated that once respondents had a positive orientation to the concept and positive subjective norm, it was strongly related over time.

The author recommends that future researchers apply this stage of intention, because to be involved in VT clearly relates to period of readiness.
VT as a very serious leisure

Stebbins (1996b) and other researchers (for example, Aral, 1997; Harrington et al., 2000; K. Holmes, 2006; Wearing & Neil, 2001) mentioned that volunteering is considered to be a serious leisure. Other researchers have agreed and called VT a serious leisure activity (Tomazos, 2009; Wearing, 2004).

The author contends that VT without a VT provider should not be considered ‘just’ a serious leisure. In the qualitative study, some respondents contacted to a community or host organisation directly as found by Aalten (2010) in his study.

Typically for respondents who organised the trip alone conducted some activities that were not done by those who went through a sender organisation, for example, as revealed by one of the respondents who had experienced volunteering in Vanuatu:

There were a couple of difficulties: a lot of them around the physical and financial ability to get our equipment across with us. The wheelchairs we were taking and other therapeutic equipment to donate to the people, quite bulky and if you took them on the aeroplane, it’s very costly. If you send them by freight you’re lucky to not get them delivered on time etc. So those were the kind of barriers we had to overcome.

Other than that communication methods were quite slow. We basically have to rely on internet and internet in Vanuatu is very unreliable. So we find when we’re there you can have internet one minute and then next minute it’s dropped out. It’s very unreliable and people don’t live on their internet and email like the Australians do. You might send an email and the person might only read it in a week’s time which means that if you’re needing an answer pretty quickly. You’re probably not going to get it by the time you need it. We learnt from our first experience, the second time round that we have to build in a lot more time to prepare and to make our arrangements.

9.3. Recommendation for VT providers

The author makes some recommendations for VT providers, (a) concerning on the management of VT, and (b) to apply social marketing to attract future participants as VT indicates both characteristics of an alternative tourism and also an alternative volunteering.
9.3.1. Volunteer tourists alert!

Volunteer tourists did not participate in VT in silence. They observed, experienced, and judged. Some of them were more alert, because they cared. Based on their experiences, respondents of the qualitative study reported that they had some concerns relating to VT, for example: (a) lack of financial transparency from the VT providers, (b) poor volunteer placement, (c) lack of immediate response in emergency, (d) negative effects of short-term volunteering, particularly if the project involved children, and (e) lack of respect for local culture and customs by participants. Furthermore, negative propaganda may occur from articles, perceptions, and testimonies on VT by participants, practitioners, researchers, media, and host communities that potentially give VT a bad name.

Based on the findings, the author alerts the VT providers to certain issues that need addressing. The VT providers should:

1) Produce a transparent outlook of their financial report;

2) Question in detail the kind of work a volunteer tourist pursues and place them only in the area they really want to be;

3) Provide advocacy during the program, because a foreign land is a foreign land. VT providers should not leave participants alone to cope with a strange environments – climate, language, culture shock, customs, works, and other personal barriers;

4) Match each kind of volunteer work with the time duration a volunteer tourist might be likely to spend;

5) Provide adequate information about local culture, customs, rule, and habits.

Additionally, the author notes another two aspects to be considered by VT providers:
6) To attract the true volunteers, VT providers should emphasise the term ‘volunteering’ rather than ‘tourism’ or ‘vacation’ to avoid false interpretation and miss expectation. Participants in this research indicated a preference for the term ‘volunteering’.

7) VT provider should combine volunteering with tourism. Even though participants’ motivation to be involved in VT is mainly for giving, they also expect to enjoy nature, interact with locals and other volunteers, and to relax.

9.3.2. Social marketing approach

Based on the quantitative findings, the author found that participants involved in VT were more motivated by the ‘giving’ than the ‘taking’ motivations. The author recommends VT providers use social marketing to promote VT as an altruistic activity and project rather than using conventional commercial marketing. Social marketing is defined by Kotler, Roberto, and Lee (2002, p. 5) as “the use of marketing principles and techniques to influence a target audience to voluntarily accept, reject, modify or abandon behaviour for the benefit of individuals, groups or society as a whole.”

The use of social marketing for VT could include these objectives: firstly, to educate individuals and provide the right information about VT; secondly, to align the information that had already been published by researchers, journalists, bloggers, practitioners, and the participants, in order to avoid false perceptions and unfair judgment because, after all, VT benefits participants, community, and the needy; thirdly, to change and modify travellers’ behaviour – for example, from just travelling to volunteering too – and be more responsible in travelling.

Social marketing campaign

Some articles have recommended applying social marketing to create volunteering programs, management, and promotion (Boehm, 2009; S. Michael, n.d.; Piasecka, 2006; Suhud, 2011). The four Ps in commercial marketing are well known as product,
place, price, and promotion. In social marketing, the same four Ps are also used but with different emphases. Suhud (2011) discussed another two Ps – ‘people’ and ‘period’ when social marketing a volunteer movement. Table 9.2 below provides potential social marketing for VT taken from the VT providers’ website. In the following paragraphs, the author describes the six Ps of the social marketing mix for VT:

Table 9.2 Potential social marketing for VT from three VT providers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Product</td>
<td>“Where Australia goes to work and travel”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place – destination</td>
<td>Africa, India, Nepal, Thailand, Greece, Spain, Morocco, Fiji, Vanuatu, Canada, USA, and South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place – project</td>
<td>Humanitarian aid, wildlife rehabilitation, and land conservation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td>Monetary: not available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-monetary: work unpaid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Period</td>
<td>2 weeks to 1 year</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Provider</th>
<th>International Volunteer HQ (IVHQ) - <a href="http://www.volunteerhq.org">http://www.volunteerhq.org</a></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Product</td>
<td>“IVHQ assists developing countries by providing volunteers to work in a variety of jobs”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place – destination</td>
<td>Kenya, Tanzania, Ghana, Uganda, South Africa, India, Nepal, Vietnam, Cambodia, Guatemala, Ecuador, Costa Rica, Thailand, China, Brazil, Colombia, Peru - Cusco, Peru - Lima, Morocco, Sri Lanka and Mexico.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place – project</td>
<td>Teaching, medical work, HIV/Aids awareness, women empowerment, sports education, construction work, conservation, surf and swim school, agricultural work, and orphanage assistance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td>Monetary: From US $250 (for 1 week) to US $6420 (for 6 months)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-monetary: work unpaid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Period</td>
<td>1 week to 6 months</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Product</td>
<td>“Volunteer during your holidays”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place – project</td>
<td>Sports, healthcare, volunteer with children, teaching, wildlife and terrestrial conservation, construction, and marine conservation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td>Monetary: from AUS $1445 to AUS $11815</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-monetary: work unpaid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Period</td>
<td>1 week to 50 weeks</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


1) Product

In commercial marketing, products of VT are the volunteer projects (Tomazos, 2009), such as community welfare (community development, children, and elderly), teaching, and environmental. According to Kotler and Zaltman (1971) a product in social marketing is a social idea. Furthermore, Kotler and Roberto (1989) included idea (belief, attitude, and value), practice (act and behaviour), and tangible object. The core of an idea is a message that is expected to change individuals’ behaviour, from just holidaying to volunteering during holidaying.

A good message should be accompanied by a good explanation of VT benefits and be communicated adequately to the audience and target market of VT. The benefits of VT as studied by many researchers are in line with individuals’ concerns with the giving motivation, such as helping a community development, an exchange of love, care, curiosity, understanding, and appreciation, an opportunity to develop cross-cultural understanding and a sense of global citizenry among participants, becoming an ambassador for the participant’s country, responsible travelling, making a difference, stimulating local economics, creating conservation awareness, and sustainable tourism (S. Brown, 2005; Chan, 2011a; Fee & Mdee, 2011; Forsythe, 2011; J. Ingram, 2011; Marsh, 2006; J. Rattan, 2009; J. K. Rattan et al., 2011; E. M. Raymond & Hall, 2008; Sinervo, 2011; Wearing, 2001).

2) Place

Place does matter (Keese, 2011). A place may refer to (a) a place as a travel destination to visit and to deliver a service, a location where a volunteer project is available, and (b) the project itself.

A place as a travel destination
Lasso Communications and VoluntourismGal.com (2009) released their survey results on international volunteers based in the US. According to these organisations, the top four of fourteen countries of destinations are Argentina, Brazil, Costa Rica, and Ecuador. Whereas Cheung, Michel, and Miller (2010a) found three of the ten most popular destinations for VT included South America, Central America, Africa, Asia, and Australia/South Pacific. Another survey results on volunteer tourists was released by GeckoGo.com (2009). This organisation stated that the five most wanted countries—predominantly developing countries— to visit for VT, for instance, Peru, Brazil, Australia, India, and South Africa.

Most reports noted the participants of VT commonly flow from developed to developing countries (Cheung et al., 2010a; GeckoGo et al., 2009; Lasso Communications & VoluntourismGal.com, 2009; Tourism Research and Marketing, 2008), where poverty has many faces there: slums, pitiable orphanages, and poor societies those that might attract people from the first world countries. Participants come to help, to donate, to share. They come as a volunteer. On the other hand, the third world countries also have magnificent cultures and sceneries. So, they come as a tourist as well. They want to experience the beauty and squalor at the same time. Therefore, they come as a volunteer tourist.

Indeed, VT projects mainly exist in developing countries. “It’s always third world countries that we go to”, claimed a repeat volunteer tourist, Ally, one of the qualitative study respondents. Ally and more individuals across the world, generally from rich countries, spent some time and money to experience the poverty and other unfortunate circumstances in Africa, Asia, South America or Oceania countries where many voluntary items are held for ‘sale’. Countries like India, Vietnam, Cambodia, Peru and Kenya become popular as destinations, the places where they expressed their passion to help and desire to tour. Orphans, societies from slum areas, and people with a disability sound ‘sexy’ to be an attraction for wealthy people from the first world countries. In the tourism context, for decades ago the third world countries had been known as “new lands” (Britton, 1979, p. 318) to be explored while the tourism industry
advertised them as “paradise, unspoiled, and sensuous” (Britton, 1979, p. 318). Tourism boards of each country promote the nicest things and image their lands better than others’. Taglines, such as Amazing Thailand, Incredible India, Kingdom of Wonder (Cambodia), and Magical Kenya try to converge all the interesting points they have. On the other hand, volunteer and volunteer vacation providers draw on contrast. These differences, a combination of the beauty of nature and culture and unfortunate societies are mixed as a magical ingredient for VT marketing.

A project as a place

Peru, India, Brazil, and other developing countries might be a preferable place of VT to be chosen by volunteer tourists for certain reasons, for example, because those countries provide the type of volunteer projects they are looking for. A volunteer project can be a considered as a ‘place’ too, another type of destination to visit. Below are listed the types of VT projects (Cheung et al., 2010a; Lasso Communications & VoluntourismGal.com, 2009; Tourism Research and Marketing, 2008):

- Environmental conservation
- Animal support
- Community tourism projects
- Community development
- Wildlife
- Teaching/educational
- Cooperatives
- Building projects
- Historical conservation
- Agricultural/farming
- Child care
- Health care
- Sport
- Scientific research
- Cultural
3) Price of VT

Kotler and Zaltman (1971) said, that price may include money costs, opportunity costs, energy costs, and psychic costs. To participate in a VT project, a participant needs to spent money for a package of service and it commonly includes donation to the project offered, meals, accommodation, and administration fee. He or she is also required to pay transport to a destination that is usually excluded from a bundled price offered by an agent. Non-monetary contributions of time, efforts, physical discomfort, stress, and psychological costs are also considered as costs (Donovan & Henley, 2003; Kotler & Roberto, 1989) and working unpaid is one form of non-monetary costs spends by a participant.

4) Promotion of VT

VT providers might choose one or more promotional tools as outlined by Smith (1993) to promote VT projects, for instance, selling, advertising, sales promotion, direct marketing, publicity (and public relations), sponsorship, exhibitions, corporate identity, packaging, Point-of-Sale and merchandising, and word of mouth. But as most providers claimed that they are a non-profit organisation (Tomazos, 2009), they would prefer to promote a volunteer project in an inexpensive way, for example, via printed posters and brochures, Point-of-Sales (POS) (where individuals may come and consult with a staff), and direct marketing (coming to colleges, inviting students, and making a presentation). The VT providers also optimise the internet to communicate with future participants: they set up a website and develop an account on social media, such as Facebook and Twitter.

5) Period of VT

Period of VT refers to (a) when the message is delivered; (b) when the volunteer project is held; and (c) how long a volunteer project is offered. One of the
respondents of the qualitative study revealed that she was involved in one day VT program. Lau (2012) reported that one of her respondents was engaged in a two-days VT program.

VT providers offer a range of volunteer period. However, participants know better for how long they wish to dedicate their time, for example, over 30% of individuals wished to spend time between one to two weeks, over 30% wished to spend between three to four weeks, and again, over 30% wish to spend over a month (Cheung et al., 2010a).

6) People

The people in social marketing to be applied in VT, for instance:

a. VT providers (sender and host organisations). Tomazos (2009) classified these organisations into: not for profit, operated by or working for non-profit, ethical NGO, special tour operator, and charity;

b. The needy, for example, orphans, children, AIDS patients, a community, conservation, animals, and disaster victims;

c. Researchers, who study, publish, and contribute to the development and improvement of VT;

d. Government. A VT project may be regulated and limited by the government; for example, as quoted from the Bali Animal Welfare Association’s (bawabali.com) website: “The Indonesian Government has strict regulations that restrict international veterinarians from practising in this country. Volunteer Veterinarians are not permitted to perform surgery or to provide hands-on treatment to the animals”.

e. Media and social media;

f. Suppliers (transport, restaurants, accommodations); and

g. Participants (future, current, and past). Some researchers identified particular individuals and groups of participants, such as retirees and baby boomers, generation Xs, generation Ys, gappers, family, philanthropy
travellers, corporate travellers and team builders, and scientific and academic volunteers (Bakker & Lamoureux, 2008). Potential volunteer tourists may also come from general tourists (Bly, 2010), backpackers (Ooi & Laing, 2010), extreme sport enthusiasts (Galloway, 2002), grey nomads (Leonard & Onyx, 2009; Maher, Hayward-Brown, Leonard, & Onyx, 2010; McClelland, 2000) and (h) general public, as a future target market for VT.

9.4. Summary of chapter nine

In this chapter, the author has discussed the research questions concerning: exploration of attitude on the concept of volunteer tourism (VT), subjective norms, psychographic characteristics (altruistic lifestyle value, sensation-seeking personality, and social class), motivation (taking/receiving and giving), and constraints (perceived and factual). A link has also been made between each of those factors/variables and intention and/or stage of readiness.

Further, in this chapter the author also provided recommendations both for future research and VT providers. For future researchers, the recommendation included:

1) To further explore the range of attitudes toward the concept of VT. This study identified a range of attitudes including: disagree with the concept of VT, partially disagree with the concept of VT, agree with the concept of VT, and partially agree with the concept of VT. There seems to be a continuum of attitudes and these could be further explored along with examining social distance theory’s applicability to underpinning this range of attitudes.

2) Further explore the impact of WOM and the role of parents, brothers/sisters, relatives, colleague/s, travel mate, teachers/lectures, and friends to likelihood to engage in VT.

3) Revising and testing the TRA (attitude and subjective norms) with and without adding additional variables (taking/receiving motivation, giving motivation, and sensation-seeking personality) to understand how this theory could explain intentions to be involved in VT.
4) Examining psychographic characteristics separately – altruistic lifestyle values, sensation-seeking personality, and social class. Sensation-seeking personality has proven to be the one with the most impact at the moment. However, it is recommended that the other psychographic variables be further explored along with other variables (attitude, subjective norms, sensation-seeking personality, taking/receiving motivation, and giving motivation). Another recommendation was to apply the brief sensation-seeking scale or the mini sensation-seeking scale as demonstrated in this study;

5) Testing the taking/receiving and giving (TRG) motivations in a volunteering setting to understand if this separation is relevant to volunteering as well as a volunteer tourism context.

6) Assessing religious motivation without the TRG.

This study found that the key driver to be involved in VT was for volunteering. The author recommends VT providers to emphasise volunteering works and its benefits for participants and community assisted than highlighting the tourism activities. Therefore, the VT providers were encouraged to use social marketing to sale VT. In this thesis, social marketing for VT contained six Ps: product, place, price, promotion, period, and people.

The final chapter of this thesis, Chapter Ten follows. This chapter completes the thesis by summarising the conclusion, contribution and limitations of the work.
Chapter ten
Conclusion, contribution, and limitation

10.1. Chapter overview
This chapter concludes the content of this thesis and it includes a review of the conclusion (methodology, purpose, a discussion of the key findings, and a development of a new definition of volunteer tourism). The key findings relate to the contribution of the following construct to volunteer tourism (VT): attitude towards the concept of VT, subjective norms, altruistic lifestyle values, sensation-seeking personality, social class, past experience (in tourism, volunteering, and VT), intention, motivation, constraints (perceived and factual), and stage of readiness. In addition, a table consisting of a summary of the fitted indices of all versions of the fitted models as presented in Chapter Eight is presented and discussed.

Furthermore, a new definition of VT is presented; being a result of both the findings from the qualitative and quantitative phases of this thesis. The contribution of this study and its limitation complete this chapter.

10.2. Conclusion
The author concludes the entire thesis by focussing on research methodology, purpose of the study and key findings, and a new definition of volunteer tourism.

10.2.1. Methodology
In this thesis, the author applied a mixed methodology a qualitative approach in the first stage, followed by a quantitative approach in the second stage. For the qualitative data collections, focus groups, in-depth interviews, and email interviews methods were used. In total, there were 33 cases, involving individuals with VT
(national and international) experience and individuals with international volunteering experience. The data were analysed using NVivo (Welsh, 2002a) version 10.

For the quantitative data collection, a Qualtrics online survey was conducted and attracted 542 respondents. Data were analysed using SPSS (version 20) for descriptive and exploratory factor analysis. Structural equation modelling (Byrne, 2001; Hair Jr. et al., 2006; Holmes-Smith, 2010) (Amos version 20) was used for confirming the first and the second constructs of factors and variables, and the full models.

10.2.2. Purpose of the study and key findings

The purpose of this study was to develop a model to determine variables and factors relating VT. As a result, the author developed six fitted models dependent on the mix of variables and context. As a large number of variables were examined, in this study (including attitude, subjective norms, altruistic lifestyle values, sensation-seeking personality, social class, taking motivation, giving motivation, religious motivation, past experience in tourism, past experience in volunteering, past experience in VT, perceived constraints, factual constraints, intention, and stage of readiness), more than one model was examined and presented for discussion.

By applying 15 variables (identified completely by confirmatory factor analysis) in this study, the author could create and modify each model based on each hypothesis. As a result, on each model, there were different compositions of variables and factors as seen on the table (Table 10.1). The conclusion for all versions of the fitted models was presented in Chapter Eight.

Table 10.1 List of variables used in all versions of fitted models
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor/variable</th>
<th>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; version</th>
<th>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; version</th>
<th>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; version</th>
<th>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; version</th>
<th>5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; version</th>
<th>6&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; version</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective norms</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruistic lifestyle values</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensation-seeking personality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exciting seeking</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New experience seeking</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social class</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Taking motivation</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Physiological motivation</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Social interaction motivation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving motivation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public service motivation</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental motivation</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious motivation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past experience in tourism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past experience in volunteering</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past experience in VT</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived constraints</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factual constraints</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage of readiness</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square (CMIN)</td>
<td>119.65</td>
<td>113.34</td>
<td>208.16</td>
<td>48.12</td>
<td>142/75</td>
<td>19.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DF</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probability</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.036</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.64</td>
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<tr>
<td>CMIN/DF</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>1.288</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>0.87</td>
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<td>TLI</td>
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<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
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<td>1.00</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>0.02</td>
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<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: x = exist

The following paragraphs provide a summary overview of findings on the following variables: attitude, subjective norms, altruistic lifestyle values, sensation-seeking personality, social class, past experience, motivation, constraints, and stage of readiness.

**Attitude toward the concept of volunteer tourism**

In the qualitative study, results of respondents’ attitudes toward the concept of VT were grouped into four categories: disagree with the concept, partially disagree, agree, and partially agree. These findings show that attitude can be understood as a
gradation of opinion from refusing to accepting. Therefore in the quantitative study, attitudes were measured using a bipolar or semantic differential scale as applied by prior researchers (for example, Bamberg, Ajzen, & Schmidt, 2003; Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006; Ryu & Jang, 2006; Trafimow & Borrie, 1999; K.-S. Wu & Teng, 2011).

In the quantitative study, seven items were applied to measure respondents’ attitudes on the concept of VT. All items were retained in the exploratory factor analysis and formed one factor loading. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) reduced the attitude items from seven to four.

Attitude contributed in five versions of the fitted models (Table 10.1): directly linked to giving motivation (first and fifth versions); directly linked to taking/receiving and giving motivations (second version); directly linked to motivation (without dividing it into taking/receiving and giving) (third version); and directly linked to intention within 1 year and intention within 3 years (fourth version). In the sixth version, attitude was deleted due to its critical ratio value of less than 2.0 (Holmes-Smith, 2010).

As discussed in Chapter Nine, attitude was linked to motivation from previous research and this was confirmed in this study. It is not surprising that attitude towards the concept of VT was closely linked towards the intention to be involved in VT; understanding the range of attitudes and the underlying dimensions is still a challenge for researchers.

Subjective norms

Subjective norms in the qualitative study were explored by gleaning the role of important people (for example, colleague/s, friend, husband/wife, parent, son, and boyfriend/girlfriend) around respondents. Those people claimed that they had experienced in VT and influenced respondents to be involved in VT.

In the quantitative study, as there were only three items to measure subjective norms, all the items were retained in the EFA as well as in the CFA. The role of
subjective norms was similar with attitude, and contributed in five versions of the
fitted models (see Table 10.1 above). This variable directly linked to giving
motivation (first version); directly linked to taking/receiving and giving motivations
(second version); directly linked to motivation (after merging the taking/receiving
and giving motivations), intention within 3 years, and intention within 5 years (fourth
version); and directly linked to giving motivation, intention within 1 year, and
intention within 3 years. In the fitted models, subjective norms had no contribution
due to a critical ratio value of less than 2.0 (Holmes-Smith, 2010).

Altruistic lifestyle values

The altruistic lifestyle values was measured by five items taken from the value factor
of the volunteer function inventory (Clary et al., 1998; Gage & Thapa, 2011; M. Kim,
Zhang, & Connaughton, 2010b; Vocino & Polonsky, 2011). In the exploratory factor
analysis, only four items were retained. Further, in the CFA, these four items were
still retained by correlating between the item Ls3 (I feel compassion toward people
in need) and Ls4 (I feel it is important to help others) to obtain a fitted congeneric
model.

The altruistic lifestyle values contributed in the fifth version of the fitted models and
this variable directly linked to the giving motivation. In other fitted models, the
altruistic lifestyle values variable did not have any role because it was eliminated due
to its critical ratio value of less than 2.0 (Holmes-Smith, 2010).

Sensation-seeking personality

Sensation seeking was assessed with eight items under four dimensions (experience
seeking, boredom susceptibility, thrill and adventure seeking, and disinhibition),
adapted from the brief sensation seeking scales (Wymer Jr. et al., 2010). Measured
by exploratory factor analysis, these four dimensions were reduced to two
dimensions (excitement seeking and new experience seeking) with seven items in total.

Sensation seeking contributed in four versions of the fitted models. In the first and sixth versions, both of the dimensions were retained and directly linked to giving motivation but in the fourth and fifth versions, only the new experience-seeking dimension was retained. In the fourth version, the new experience-seeking dimension directly linked to intention within 1 year whereas in the fifth version, this dimension directly linked to the giving motivation.

There were two interesting findings relating to the sensation-seeking personality: firstly, in the first and sixth models, the two dimensions of this variable were retained whereas in the fourth and fifth models were only the new experience-seeking was retained. The second finding can be understood that those who were motivated by religious motivation (the fourth model) and their altruistic lifestyle values to be involved in VT were likely treating their VT journeys as a new experience. On the other hand, in general respondents were motivated by giving motivation and their sensation-seeking personality (the first model) or sensation seeking was the only driver to be involved in VT (the sixth version). Nevertheless, for respondents in this category, would face their own perceived constraints. This is another evidence that there was a group of people who would join VT predominantly because their adventurous and curious personality more than of their motivation to give.

**Social class**

Social class was only explored in the quantitative study, measured using scales introduced by Warner, Meeker, and Eells (1960) and then applied by many researchers (for example, Claxton, 2010; Krauss, 2011; Lareau & Calarco, 2012; Markus & Fiske, 2012). In the descriptive analysis, predominantly respondents claimed that they were in the middle (higher-middle, middle-middle, and lower-
middle) class: 347 respondents claimed for educational level, 397 respondents claimed it for current occupation, and 394 respondents claimed it for annual income. However, the SEM proved that the social class variable contributed to no version of the fitted models. Respondents’ intention to be involved in VT might not be influenced by their social class or social class may need to be measured by different means.

**Past experience**

One of the purposes of taking a holiday was for volunteering as revealed by the qualitative study. As in holidaying, those who were involved in VT enjoyed volunteering as well as touring, such as sightseeing and learning local culture. For this study, past experience in tourism, volunteering, and VT were included. In the descriptive analysis, 512 respondents (about 95%) had experienced in tourism, 378 respondents (about 70%) had experienced in volunteering, and 113 respondents (about 21%) had experienced in VT in the last three years. Questions for past experience also included frequency, destination or location, and method for being involved. In the SEM, these three experiences (in tourism, volunteering, and VT) in fact were independent from one and another so that they could not be placed as dimensions of past experience.

Past experience in tourism did not contribute to any versions of a fitted model. These findings were different from the qualitative findings that respondents who had experienced in VT previously tended to have another experience in VT in the future. As previously indicated there could be a measurement issue with past experience as it seems likely that past experience has some role in forming attitudes or motivations toward future involvement in VT.
**Intention**

Respondents were asked whether they had any intention to be involved in a (another) VT project. For those who intended, they were asked to mention their motivations and for those who had no intention, questions pertaining to the barriers of volunteering again were asked. This part presents conclusions for three themes relating to intention: the stage of indication scale, intention as a dependent variable, and intention as an independent variable.

First, in the quantitative study, one intention question was delivered using scales adapted from Juster’s scale (1966). Respondents were expected to answer questions about three stages of intention (within 1 year, 3 years, and 5 years). The use of stage of intention in this study leads to this explanation: the descriptive analysis indicated that for intention within 1 year, the frequency and percentage of respondents who answered ‘no chance’ was 153 (about 28%). This number decreased to 51 (about 9%) for within 3 years and decreased further to 32 (about 6%) for within 5 years. On the other hand, respondents who answered that they were ‘certain’ to be involved within 1 year was 29 (about 5%), and this increased to 33 (about 6%) for within 3 years, and increased again to 55 (about 10%) for within 5 years. Respondents tend to consider being involved in VT predominantly within 5 years. These findings were from the qualitative study results were significant, showing that those who had never experienced VT said that they might become involved in VT but some time later in their lives, after dealing with finances, family, and time constraints.

Second, intention as a dependent variable was influenced by the giving motivation (the first, second, and fifth versions of the fitted models), motivation in general (the third version), new experience seeking (the fourth version), religious motivation (the fourth version), attitude (the fourth version), subjective norms (the fourth and fifth versions), and sensation seeking (the sixth version). However, intention was negatively influenced by perceived constraints (the sixth version).

Third, intention as an independent variable influenced stage of readiness in all versions of the fitted model: (a) intention within 1 year linked to the stage of readiness (the first, second, third, fourth, and fifth versions); (b) intention within 3
years linked to the stage of readiness (the first, second, third, fourth, and sixth versions); and (c) intention within 5 years linked to the stage of readiness (the first, second, and third versions).

Motivation

In the literature review chapter (Chapter Two), motivation items in each field – tourism, volunteering, and VT – were related to Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Theory, which contains: physiological, safety and security, belongingness and love/social interaction, self-esteem, aesthetic and cognitive/understanding, and self-actualisation motivations (Maslow, 1943, 1970). Combining this theory with other works (for example, Batson, Oleson, Weeks, Healy, & Reeves, 1989; Coghlan & Fennell, 2009; Godfrey & Wearing, 2012; Rehberg, 2005; Unger, 1991), the author divided the needs pyramid into two domains: (a) the taking/receiving domain, for all motivation items under Maslow’s categories as mentioned above; (b) giving domain, for all motivation items that did not correspond with the first domain. The author then clustered the motivations into religious, environmental, public service, and project/organisation motivations (see section 2.5).

In the exploratory factor analysis, five factor loadings resulted: physiological, public service, religious, social interaction, and environmental motivations. In the first order construct development, some items of each factor were eliminated due to lower values of the critical ratios (Byrne, 2001). Further, in the second order construct, all factors formed two independent variables: taking/receiving motivation for physiological, social, and religious motivations; and giving motivation for public service and environmental motivation.

The giving motivation contributed in the first, second, and fifth versions of the fitted model, whereas the taking/receiving motivation existed in the second version. Further, when all factors were merged without using a higher order construct, physiological and public service motivation factors were retained (see the third version). By retaining the giving motivation and/or the taking/receiving motivation in
a model, caused the religious motivation factor was deleted; unless in the fourth version when it was dedicated to retain and examined it.

**Constraints**

In the qualitative study, constraints variable was explored after some respondents stated that they had no intention to be involved in VT. According to these respondents, the constraints included family, time, finance, distance, and the idea that VT was an unacceptable concept.

In the quantitative study, the constraints were measured using eight items, adapted from prior studies (Kerstetter et al., 2002; Taillon, 2007). Two factor loadings were resulted by exploratory factor analysis and were labelled as perceived and factual constraints with three items on each factor. The perceived constraints factor contributed to one of the six versions of the fitted model, whereas the factual constraints factor was eliminated in all versions. Perceived constraints linked to intention within 1 year and intention within 3 years, but in a negative form. Therefore, hypothesis H9b was accepted.

**Stage of readiness**

In the qualitative study, stage of readiness was not obviously explored, but from observing of respondents’ answers from the beginning of the interview to the end, it could be deduced that stage of readiness contained ‘awareness’, ‘acceptance of the concept of VT’, ‘interest’, ‘desire’, ‘action’, and back to ‘interest’, ‘desire’, and ‘action’. This finding matched with that of the stage of readiness in the quantitative study: precontemplation, contemplation, preparation, action, termination, and maintenance (Prochaska & DiClemente, 1986, 1992; Prochaska & Norcross, 2001).

In the first, second, and third models, stage of readiness was influenced by intentions whereas in the fourth, fifth, and sixth models, stage of readiness was
eliminated. This is an evident that intention does not always lead to behaviour, or in this case, stage of readiness.

10.2.3. Redefining volunteer tourism

Based on the literature on VT and the findings of both the qualitative and quantitative studies, the author defines VT as an intersection of volunteer and tourism concepts and a combination of volunteer and tourism activities in a travel destination (nationally or internationally), which requires motivated (to give) participants to spend a day or more and pay their own costs (such as transport, accommodation, and meals) and financially contribute to the project itself (for instance through humanitarian aid, education, health, construction, religion, and conservation), through a sender/host organisation or directly to the needy.

10.3. Contributions of this study

In general, this study carries out some innovations which distinguish with existing studies. These innovations are considered as the contributions.

(a) First innovation is in using the motivation variable. Even though Coghlan (2005) and Helle (2012) categorised motivation in VT into hedonism and altruism, they studies did not examine their categorisation in a quantitative approach. The author by using structural equation modelling confirmed that motivation in VT is not just a variable, but two different variables: taking/receiving (hedonism) motivation and giving (altruistic) motivation with some dimensions on each variable.

(b) Second innovation is in applying the taking/receiving and giving (TRG) motivation in a full model. S. J. Lee (2011) predicted intention in VT by employing predictor variables: attitude, subjective norm, self-efficacy, and motivation. This researcher also tested past experience as the intervening variable for all predictor variables. As a result, only attitude and subjective norms significantly linked to intention whereas other variables insignificantly linked to intention. Even though past
experience variable was not retained and self-efficacy was not used in this current study, however, this study indicates that motivation variables along with other variables – for example, attitude, subjective norms, sensation seeking personality – sustained in fitted models.

(c) Third innovation is in using the stage of intention within one, three, and five years. This results show optional timing whether participants have intention within certain timeframe. There is no study in VT using such approach.

(d) Fourth innovation is testing the stage of readiness. This study carries out a fact that VT is a complex tourism product that requires a high involvement. Another fact that participants were on different stages relating to VT: some were on the precontemplation, contemplation, and preparation stages and some other on the action and the maintenance stages. These stages would advise VT providers how to approach future participants on each different stage. There is no study in VT using the stage of readiness.

10.4. Limitations of this study
This thesis has the following limitations:

1) Lack of items on certain variables/factors. The author provided only three items for variables/factors, such as subjective norms, self-actualisation motivation, environmental motivation, and project/organisation motivation. When conducting the structural equation model, this meant the author had no option but to eliminate any item even though a fitted model for each construct had been developed;

2) As, predominantly, participants of VT are from developed countries, in the literature researchers have had a focus on colonialism issues, or relationships between developed and developing countries, rich and poor countries, north and south, west and east, and first and third countries (Helle, 2012; McGehee & Andereck, 2008; Palacios, 2010; Vrasti, 2012). The study might have produced a different result if the participants of the quantitative study only came from a
developed country rather than mixing them with those who came from a developing country. This could be further examined in future research.

10.5. Summary of chapter ten

This chapter has provided a summary and conclusion of these study findings, including a revisit of the methodology, purpose, and objectives of this study. It has also provided a conclusion for the research objectives, and listed the contributions and limitations of the study.

In general, this study was successful in achieving its purpose, to develop a model to predict intention and stage of readiness to be involved in VT. The purpose was over and above expectation because the author successfully created not just one version but up to six versions of the fitted model. Each model was formed by a different composition of factors and variables, and each model was addressed to answering each research question.

Furthermore, through qualitative and quantitative approaches, this study also achieved its objectives: to explore and confirm attitudes on the concept of VT, subjective norms, social class, altruistic lifestyle values, sensation-seeking personality, past experience in tourism, past experience in volunteering, past experience in VT, perceived constraints, factual constraints, intention, and stage of readiness.

This study generates many for future research. The VT field is one that is popular now with researchers and there is argument that the volunteer has been well researched. This research shows that the volunteer is still a source for further research with the potential to be further understood and reflected upon.

For further research, the author has a plan. It was started early March 2013 when one of the traveller club members who was engaged in VT mentioned earlier in the Chapter One, initiated to a discourse for another VT project to be conducted this year. That traveller and others gather and interact with one another in a mailing list which is followed by the author. Responses from other members buzzed
concurrently, delivered and discussed ideas about destinations and type of projects. Most of them have been involved in previous VT; some of them had experienced once, some others had done twice and more.

Looking back to the VT projects they have organised, the author noted that since 2005, the club has conducted six VT projects within Indonesia. This year, the destination could be another isolated place somewhere in Sumatera, Kalimantan, or other place in Eastern archipelago of Indonesia. Wherever the destination, whatever the projects they will organise, the author has convinced himself to join the club. So, the plan is, he would be engaged in the project, not just as a participant, but also as a researcher. By conducting a research on VT, he wishes to enhance his knowledge on VT and seek other new insights on VT. He has confidence to do so, especially after completing his PhD thesis. So, under the moon of March, silently he prays; the malaria parasites lay in his blood sleep for ever.

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Appendix 1 - INFORMATION LETTER TO PARTICIPANTS

INFORMATION LETTER TO PARTICIPANTS

PhD research project:

A MODEL TO DETERMINE THE INTENTIONS, MOTIVATIONS, CONSTRAINTS, AND BEHAVIOURS RELATING TO VOLUNTEER TOURISM

Your experiences in volunteer tourism can be valuable for my research project. For this reason, you are invited to participate in a focus group/in-depth interview/online interview to share your volunteer tourism experiences. This research will assist my PhD research project conducted with the School of Marketing, Tourism, and Leisure at Edith Cowan University. This research has been approved by the HRCC (Human Research Ethics Committee).

The aim of the interview is to gather information to assist in developing an online survey instrument to determine the intentions, motivations, constraints, and behaviour relating to volunteer tourism.

You will be asked about your past experience in tourism activities, voluntary work, and volunteer tourism projects as well as your intention, motivation, and constraints to be involved in volunteer tourism in the future. The interview will be conducted through email or social media network messages.

All information provided in the interview will be treated confidentially and will be used for the purposes of this project. Only the research team will have access to the information. You will not be identified in any written report or presentation that results from this research. Any presentations, reports, journal papers or the thesis that result from this research will be made available to you at your request.

Participation in this project is voluntary. You are free to withdraw from further participation at any time without giving a reason and with no negative consequences.

If you agree to be involved in this research project would you please sign and return the attached consent document to Usep Suhud. This can be returned at the time of the interview or emailed to: Usep Suhud, Faculty of Business and Law, School of Marketing, Tourism & Leisure, Edith Cowan University, 270 Joondalup Drive, Joondalup, Western Australia, 6027.
If you have any questions or require any further information about this research project, please contact:

**Researcher:**

Usep Suhud  
School of Marketing, Tourism & Leisure  
Edith Cowan University  
Phone: (08) 6304 2183  
usuhud@our.ecu.edu.au

**Principal Supervisor:**

Dr. Marie Ryan  
School of Marketing, Tourism & Leisure  
Edith Cowan University  
Phone: (08) 6304 5784  
m.ryan@ecu.edu.au

Usep Suhud is responsible for the ethical conduct of this project. However, if you have any concerns or complaints about the project and wish to talk to an independent person, you may contact:

**Research Ethics Officer:**

ECU Research Ethics  
Edith Cowan University  
Phone: (08) 6304 2170  
research.ethics@ecu.edu.au

*Thank you for your participation.*
Appendix 2 - Guidance for focus groups/in-depth interview/online interview

Guidance for focus groups/in-depth interview/online interview

1) What was your most recent holiday you have? Where? What sort of activities you did? What was your main motivation to have this holiday? Solo or with a group? Who did organise?

2) Do you have any experiences in volunteering-domestic or international- before the last volunteer tourism project? Tell me. What were your motivations to do?

3) What do you think about: “Combining both of volunteering and touring away from home by self-funding all the costs, such as, transport, meal, accommodation, and even financially contribute to the project”? Why do you say so?

4) [For those who had experienced in volunteer tourism] Please tell me about your involvement in the previous volunteer tourism project:

   Where? When? How long? Who organised? What was your role?
   Why did you join (your motivation)?
   What was the constraint you face during preparation/in the event/after the event?
   What did you feel by joining the project?
   What kind of volunteer activities were conducted?
   What kind of leisure activities you did in the destination?

5) Do you have an intention to be involved in a (another) volunteer tourism project in the near future?

   Where? When? How long? Who will organise? What is your role? Why do you join?
   What is the constraint you face during preparation?
   What kind of volunteer activities are you planning to conduct?
   What kind of leisure activities you are planning to do?
   What have you done to be engaged in this future project?

6) Do you consider yourself as an adventurous? Yes/No. Why do you say this?
Appendix 3 - The online questionnaire

AN INVESTIGATION TO DETERMINE THE MOTIVATIONS RELATING TO VOLUNTEER TOURISM

Greetings,

Your experiences in travel, volunteerism or volunteer tourism can be valuable for my research project. For this reason, you are invited to participate in an online survey. This research will assist my PhD research project conducted with the School of Marketing, Tourism and Leisure at Edith Cowan University, Perth, Western Australia. This research has been approved by the ECU Human Research Ethics Committee.

The aim of the survey is to develop a model for determining the intentions, motivations, constraints, and behaviour relating to volunteer tourism.

The survey will last about 15 minutes. You will be asked about your past experience in tourism activities, voluntary works, and volunteer tourism projects as well as your intention, motivation, and constraints to be involved in volunteer tourism in the future.

All information provided in the survey will be treated confidentially and will be used for the purposes of this project. Only the research team will have access to the information. You will not be identified in any written report or presentation that results from this research. Any presentations, reports, journal papers or the thesis that result from this research will be made available to you at your request.

Participation in this project is voluntary. You are free to withdraw from further participation at any time without giving a reason and with no negative consequences.

If you agree to be involved in this research project would you please respond to this message or send an email to usuhud@our.ecu.edu.au.

If you have any questions or require any further information about this research project, please email me or contact my research supervisor, Dr. Maria Ryan, m.ryan@ecu.edu.au (+61) (08) 6304 5784. However, if you have any concerns or complaints about the project and wish to talk to an independent person, you may contact the Research Ethics Officer at Edith Cowan University, email research.ethics@ecu.edu.au or phone (+61) (08) 6304 2170.

Thank you.
Kind regards,

Usep Suhud
PhD Scholar,
Edith Cowan University
Perth - Western Australia
You have to be 18 years old or older to participate in this survey.

- I am 18 years old/older. (1)
- I am under 18 years old. (2)

If ‘I am 18 years old or older’ is selected, then skip to past experience in tourism. If ‘I am under 18 years old’ is selected, then skip To END OF QUESTIONNAIRE.

1a. In the last three years, have you taken a holiday?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

If ‘No’ (2) is selected, then skip to personality

1b. In the last three years, how many times have you taken holidays?

- Once (1)
- 2 times (2)
- 3 times (3)
- More than 3 times (4)

1c. In the last three years, which destination(s) have you chosen for your holiday? (Please indicate one only)

- Domestic (1)
- International (2)
- Both, domestic and international (3)

1d. In the last three years, how did you organise your holidays? Please indicate one only.

- (1) Through an agent
- (2) With a group of friends/family
- (3) Solo/alone
- (4) Combination of (1), (2) or (3)
2. The following questions relate to your sense of adventure. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements using a scale of 1 – 7, where 1 represents "Strongly disagree" and 7 represents “Strongly agree”.

Please use the number between 1 and 7 to represent your strength of agreement or disagreement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree (1)</th>
<th>(2)</th>
<th>(3)</th>
<th>(4)</th>
<th>(5)</th>
<th>(6)</th>
<th>Strongly agree (7)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I like exploring strange places.</td>
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<td>I get restless when I spend too much time at home.</td>
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<td>I like to do challenging things.</td>
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<td>I like wild parties.</td>
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<td>I would like to take off on a trip with no pre-planned routes or timetables.</td>
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<tr>
<td>I prefer friends who are excitingly unpredictable.</td>
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<tr>
<td>I would love to have new and exciting experiences, even if they are illegal.</td>
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<td>I would like to try bungee jumping.</td>
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</table>

3a. In the last three years, have you been involved in volunteering (any sort of voluntary work, paid/unpaid, local or overseas)?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

If ‘No’ (2) is selected, then skip to ‘lifestyle’
3b. In the last three years, how many times have you been involved in volunteering?

- Once (1)
- 2 times (2)
- 3 times (3)
- More than 3 times (4)

3c. In the last three years, which location(s) did you choose for volunteering?

- Domestic/local (1)
- International (2)
- Both, domestic/local and international (3)

3d. In the last three years, how did you organise your volunteering? Please select one only.

- (1) Through an agent
- (2) With a group of friends/family
- (3) Solo/alone
- (4) Combination of (1), (2) or (3)

4. The following questions relate to your general opinions toward helping others. Please indicate the level of accuracy or inaccuracy with the following statements using a scale of 1 – 7, where 1 represents “Extremely inaccurate” and 7 represents “Extremely accurate”.

Please use the number between 1 and 7 to represent the accuracy or inaccuracy of each statement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself. (1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>I feel compassion toward people in need. (2)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>I feel it is important to help others. (3)</td>
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<td>I am motivated to do something for a cause that is important to me. (4)</td>
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</table>

5. “Volunteer tourism is a combination of volunteer and tourism activities at a travel destination. This often requires a participant to pay some or all costs involved - transport, accommodation, meals, and possibly some financial contribution to the actual project. A volunteer tourism project
can be a short (1 day) or a longer period of time.” Even if you haven’t participated in volunteer tourism previously, PLEASE indicate your feelings on the following statements using a scale of 1 – 7:

"All things considered, I think being involved in volunteer tourism would be... "

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1 (1)</th>
<th>2 (2)</th>
<th>3 (3)</th>
<th>4 (4)</th>
<th>5 (5)</th>
<th>6 (6)</th>
<th>7 (7)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Enjoyable experience - Unenjoyable experience (1)</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>Valuable experience - Not valuable experience (2)</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>Uninteresting experience - Interesting experience (3)</td>
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<td>☐</td>
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<td>Unpleasant experience - Pleasant experience (4)</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>Memorable experience - Forgettable experience (5)</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>An unreasonable idea - A reasonable idea (6)</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>At a reasonable financial cost - At an unreasonable financial cost (7)</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6a. In the last three years, have you been involved in volunteer tourism?

☒ Yes (1)
☒ No (2)

If ‘No’ (2) is selected, then skip to ‘subjective norms’

6b. In the last three years, how many times have you been involved in volunteer tourism?

☒ Once (1)
☒ 2 times (2)
☒ 3 times (3)
☒ More than 3 times (4)

6c. In the last three years, which location(s) have you chosen for volunteer tourism?

☒ Domestic (1)
☒ International (2)
☒ Both, domestic and international (3)

6d. In the last three years, how did you organise your volunteer tourism project(s)?

☒ (1) Through an agent/organisation
☒ (2) With a group or friends/family
☒ (3) Solo/alone
☒ (4) Combination of (1), (2), and (3)
7. The following questions relate to people's general opinions toward volunteer tourism. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements using a scale of 1 – 7, where 1 represents “Strongly disagree” and 7 represents “Strongly agree”.

Please use the number between 1 and 7 to represent your strength of agreement or disagreement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree (1)</th>
<th>(2)</th>
<th>(3)</th>
<th>(4)</th>
<th>(5)</th>
<th>(6)</th>
<th>Strongly agree (7)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Most people who are important to me would NOT want me to be involved in volunteer tourism. (1)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most people who are important to me would approve of me being involved in volunteer tourism. (2)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most people who are important to me would think it was desirable for me to be involved in volunteer tourism. (3)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8. Please indicate your future intention to be involved in volunteer tourism.

“Taking everything into account, what is the likelihood that you will be involved in volunteer tourism between now and in the next ...?”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interval</th>
<th>No chance (1)</th>
<th>Very slight possibility (2)</th>
<th>Slight possibility (3)</th>
<th>Some possibility (4)</th>
<th>Fair possibility (5)</th>
<th>Fairly good possibility (6)</th>
<th>Good possibility (7)</th>
<th>Probable (8)</th>
<th>Very probable (9)</th>
<th>Almost sure (10)</th>
<th>Certain (11)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 year (1)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 years (2)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 years (3)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9. Please indicate how you would best describe your readiness to participate in volunteer tourism.

“If an opportunity to participate in volunteer tourism comes up, would you say you have/are...” Please select one only.

☐ Never given volunteer tourism much thought. (1)
☐ Actively considered being involved in volunteer tourism recently. (2)
☐ Planned to do volunteer tourism in the next year. (3)
☐ Participated in volunteer tourism in the last three years. (4)
☐ Currently involved in volunteer tourism. (5)
☐ Been involved in volunteer tourism previously and plan to be involved in another volunteer tourism project in the future. (6)
10. Please indicate the level of importance or unimportance with the following statements using a scale of 1 – 7, where 1 represents “Extremely unimportant” and 7 represents “Extremely important”. Please use the number between 1 and 7 to represent the importance or unimportance.

“If I had an opportunity, I would become involved in volunteer tourism because…”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Extremely unimportant (1)</th>
<th>(2)</th>
<th>(3)</th>
<th>(4)</th>
<th>(5)</th>
<th>(6)</th>
<th>Extremely important (7)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to fulfil a moral obligation to a community. (1)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would make me feel like a good person. (2)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to give my mind a rest. (3)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would keep me busy. (4)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to get away from everyday physical stress/pressure (5)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to get away from the usual demands of life. (6)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would provide a way for me to make new friends. (7)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No matter how bad I’ve been feeling, volunteer tourism would help me forget about it. (8)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me not to worry about time. (9)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By involving myself in volunteer tourism, I would feel less lonely. (10)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being involved in volunteer tourism would relieve me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others. (11)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would make me feel important. (12)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism is a good escape from my own troubles. (13)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to be away from my daily routine. (14)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The social opportunities provided by volunteer tourism are important to me. (15)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would be independent. (16)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement</td>
<td>Option 1</td>
<td>Option 2</td>
<td>Option 3</td>
<td>Option 4</td>
<td>Option 5</td>
<td>Option 6</td>
<td>Option 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would be a way to build my social networks.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would be a feel-good experience for me.</td>
<td>○</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would make me feel useful.</td>
<td>○</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to gain a new perspective on things.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to explore my own strengths.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to develop something sustainable.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to do something for an environmental cause that is important to me.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to fulfil my religious obligation.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would help me work through my own personal problems.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would be obligated to no one.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>I look forward to the social contacts that volunteer tourism affords me.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would be doing things my own way.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have a concern for the environment.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to learn how to deal with a variety of people.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to support an organisation that has a similar mission to me.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to help a project.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to help the environment.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have a desire to share my religious values.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to help a community.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It’s God’s expectation of me.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to learn things through direct, hands on experience.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to rest and relax.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to make a difference.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to help an organisation.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer tourism would allow me to give something</td>
<td>○</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
11. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements that would stop you from being involved in volunteer tourism, using a scale of 1 – 7, where 1 represents “Strongly disagree” and 7 represents “Strongly agree”.

“I would not become involved in volunteer tourism between now and the end of next year because…”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree (1)</th>
<th>(2)</th>
<th>(3)</th>
<th>(4)</th>
<th>(5)</th>
<th>(6)</th>
<th>Strongly agree (7)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I don’t have enough time because my family/work requires my time. (1)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know enough about volunteer tourism. (2)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I, or someone I would want to travel with, is physically unable to be involved. (3)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’ve done volunteer tourism before and I don’t want to be involved any more. (4)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am concerned about my safety and/or security. (5)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m not interested in volunteer tourism. (6)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t believe that volunteer tourism can help people effectively. (7)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financially, I can’t afford it. (8)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
12. DEMOGRAPHICS

What is your nationality?

In which country do you currently live?

What is your gender?

1. Male (1)
2. Female (2)

Please identify your age group based on your last birthday:

1. 18 - 23 (1)
2. 24 - 29 (2)
3. 30 - 35 (3)
4. 36 - 41 (4)
5. 42 - 47 (5)
6. 48 - 53 (6)
7. 54 - 59 (7)
8. 60 - 65 (8)
9. 66 - 71 (9)
10. 72 and older (10)

What was the highest level of education you have completed?

1. Post graduate (1)
2. Bachelor (2)
3. Some college, no degree (3)
4. High school graduate (4)
5. Less than high school (5)
What is your marital status?

- Single (1)
- Married/de facto (2)
- Divorced (3)
- Separated (4)
- Widowed (5)

What is your current employment status? (M)

- Employed for wages (1)
- Self-employed (2)
- Out of work and looking for work (3)
- Out of work but not currently looking for work (4)
- A student (5)
- In a gap year (before starting a class in a university or a new job in an office) (6)
- Unable to work (7)
- Retired (8)

13 According to your estimate, please assign yourself into specific social class as follow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational level you have completed. (1)</th>
<th>Higher-upper class (1)</th>
<th>Lower-upper class (2)</th>
<th>Higher-middle class (3)</th>
<th>Middle-middle class (4)</th>
<th>Lower-middle class (5)</th>
<th>Higher-lower class (6)</th>
<th>Lower-lower class (7)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Your current occupation. (2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your annual income. (3)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.
Appendix 4 – The last three of the six fitted models

Appendix 4 continues discussing three of the six fitted models. The first three fitted model were described in Chapter Eight.

The fourth fitted model

To what extent do the individuals’ motivation for taking and giving influence their intentions and stage of readiness to be involved in VT?

Five models (the first, second, third, fifth, and sixth) resulted in this study did not include the religious motivation factor because it was deleted due to its critical value (C.R) being less than 2.00 and standardised residual covariances being greater than 1.96 (Byrne, 2001; Holmes-Smith, 2010). The fourth version kept this factor and was an attempt to assess the religious motivation to predict intention and stage of readiness, as shown in Appendix Figure 1 below. This version – extended the third model answering the fifth research question – had a fitted model by retaining other variables/factors, for instance, new experience seeking, attitude, and subjective norms.

1) Attitude was directly linked to intention within 3 years.
2) Subjective norms was directly linked to intention within 1 years and intention within 3 years.
3) New experience seeking was directly linked to intention within 1 year.
4) Religious motivation was directly linked to intention within 1 year.
Overall, this fitted model had a chi-square of 48.12, probability of 0.31, TLI of 1.00, CFI of 1.00, RMSEA of 0.13, and GFI of 0.99 (Bentler, 1990; Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Carmines & McIver, 1981; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

This fourth model confirmed four hypotheses, for instance, H1a, H2, H5a, and H7a:

- **H1a** – There is a positive relationship between a person’s attitude towards the concept of VT and their intention to be involved in VT.
- **H2** – There is a positive relationship between a person’s subjective norms and their intention to be involved in VT.
- **H5a** – There is a positive relationship between a person’s sensation-seeking personality and their intention to be involved in VT.
- **H7a** – There is a positive relationship between a person’s motivation to be involved in VT and their intention to be involved in VT.
Additionally, this model developed new relationships (see Appendix Table 4 below): intention within 1 year and intention within 3 years.

**Appendix Table 4 Hypotheses testings of the fourth version of fitted model**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Standardised total effects</th>
<th>Effect interpretation</th>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$In_1$ → $In_2$</td>
<td>23.33</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATTITUD → $In_2$</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>H1 (2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUB_N → $In_1$</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>H2 (1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUB_N → $In_2$</td>
<td>5.34</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>Mild</td>
<td>H2 (2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REL_M → $In_1$</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>H7a (1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEW_EXP → $In_1$</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>H5a (1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: SUB_N = subjective norms, ATTITUD = attitude, SENSAT = sensation seeking, NEW_EXP = new experience seeking, REL_M = religious motivation, $In_1$ = intention within 1 year, and $In_2$ = intention within 3 years. *New relations, were not included in hypotheses development

**The fifth model**

To what extent do the individuals’ psychographic characteristics of a sensation-seeking personality and motivation influence their intentions and stage of readiness to be involved in VT?

This part continues the third model presented in Chapter 8 section 8.5.3. The fifth model was dedicated to measure past experiences in tourism, volunteering, and VT. Unfortunately, these three variables were eliminated due to low significance of the critical ratio and standardised residual covariances values (Holmes-Smith, 2010). This model, however, had a fitted model with a chi-square value of 142.75, probability of 120, TLI of 0.99, RMSEA of 0.02, and GFI of 0.97 (Bentler, 1990; Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Carmines & McIver, 1981; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). This version retained attitude, subjective norms, altruistic lifestyle values, new experience seeking, and giving motivation.
Other variables were left out as they had CR values less that 2.00 and standardised residual covariances greater than 1.96 (Byrne, 2001; Holmes-Smith, 2010).

However, as a consequence, social class was eliminated along with taking motivation, constraints, and excitement seeking because these variables/factors had critical ratio (C.R.) value less than 2.00 (Holmes-Smith, 2010). Further, this fifth model created other links between one variable to another as follows:

1) Attitude was directly linked to giving motivation.
2) Subjective norm was directly linked to giving motivation.
3) Altruistic lifestyle value was directly linked to giving motivation.
4) New experience seeking was directly linked to giving motivation.
5) Giving motivation was directly linked to intention within 1 year and intention within 3 years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>GFI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Result</td>
<td>142.75</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>1.190</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut-off</td>
<td>&gt; 0.05</td>
<td>&lt; 3.0</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>≤ 0.05</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: SUB_N = subjective norms, ATTITUD = attitude, NEW_EXP = new experience seeking, GIVING = giving motivation, PUB_M = public service motivation, ENV_M = environmental motivation, In1 = intention within 1 year, and In2 = intention within 3 years.

**Appendix Figure 2 - The fifth model to predict intention and stage of readiness**
The fifth model accepted two hypotheses, H5b and H7a:

- **H5b** – There is a positive relationship between a person’s sensation-seeking personality and their motivation to be involved in VT.
- **H7a** – There is a positive relationship between a person’s motivation to be involved in VT and their intention to be involved in VT.

Also, the model developed new relations: (a) intention within 1 year and intention within 3 years, (b) intention within 1 year and intention within 5 years, (c) intention within 3 years and intention within 5 years. Further, there were also found new relations between (d) attitude and giving motivation, (e) subjective norms and giving motivation, and (f) altruistic lifestyle values and giving motivation.

### Appendix Table 1 Hypotheses testings of the fifth version of fitted model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Standardised total effects</th>
<th>Effect interpretation</th>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In1 → In2</td>
<td></td>
<td>20.90</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In1 → In3</td>
<td></td>
<td>-6.23</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>Moderately strong</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In2 → In3</td>
<td></td>
<td>25.76</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>Extremely strong</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATTITUD → GIVING</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.13</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>Moderately strong</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUB_N → GIVING</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.12</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>Moderately strong</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUB_N → In2</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>Mild</td>
<td>H2 (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIFE_ST → GIVING</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEW_EXP → GIVING</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>H5b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GIVING → In1</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.12</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>Moderately strong</td>
<td>H7a (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GIVING → In2</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.23</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>H7a (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GIVING → In3</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.05</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>H7a (3)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: SUB_N = subjective norms, ATTITUD = attitude, NEW_EXP = new experience seeking, GIVING = giving motivation, In1 = intention within 1 year, In2 = intention within 3 years, and In3 = intention within 5 years. *New relations, were not included in hypotheses development.
The sixth model

To what extent do the individuals’ constraints influence their stage of readiness to be involved in VT?

The previous five fitted model did not retain the constraints variable or one of its factors (perceived and factual constraints) and therefore it was intended that the sixth version keep this variable and examined whether it made a contribution to a fitted model in predicting intention and stage of readiness. This version retained sensation-seeking personality and perceived constraints (see Appendix Figure 3 below). Other variables/factors were eliminated because of one or more reasons, such as the critical ratio values being less than 2.00 and the standardised residual covariances over 1.96 (Byrne, 2001; Holmes-Smith, 2010).

The sixth model created some relations between one variable and another:

1) Sensation seeking was directly linked to intention within 1 year and intention within 3 years.

2) Perceived constraints was directly linked to intentions within 1 year and intention within 3 years, but in a negative form.

This fitted model had a chi-square of 19.11, probability of 0.64, TLI of 1.00, CFI of 1.00, RMSEA of 0.00, and GFI of 0.99 (Bentler, 1990; Bentler & Bonett, 1980; M. W. Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Carmines & McIver, 1981; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>GFI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Result</td>
<td>19.11</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut-off</td>
<td>&gt; 0.05</td>
<td>&lt; 3.0</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>≤ 0.05</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: SENSAT = sensation seeking, EX_SEEK = exciting seeking, NEW_EXP = new experience seeking, PER_C = perceived constraints, ln1 = intention within 1 year, and ln2 = intention within 3 years.

Appendix Figure 3 – The sixth model to predict intention and stage of readiness

The sixth model accepted two hypotheses, for instance, H5a, and H8b:

- **H5a** – There is a positive relationship between a person’s sensation-seeking personality and their intention to be involved in VT.
- **H9b** – There is a negative relationship between a person’s constraints to be involved in VT and their intention to be involved in VT.

This model also developed new relationships: intention within 1 year and intention within 3 years.
### Appendix Table 2 Hypotheses testing of the sixth version of fitted model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Standardised total effects</th>
<th>Effect interpretation</th>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$ln1$ → $ln2$</td>
<td></td>
<td>19.58</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$SENSAT \rightarrow ln1$</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>H5a (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$SENSAT \rightarrow ln2$</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>H5a (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$PER_C \rightarrow ln1$</td>
<td></td>
<td>-7.37</td>
<td>-0.36</td>
<td>Moderately strong</td>
<td>H9a (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$PER_C \rightarrow ln2$</td>
<td></td>
<td>-8.80</td>
<td>-0.54</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>H9a (2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: $SENSAT$ = sensation seeking, $EX\_SEEK$ = exciting seeking, $NEW\_EXP$ = new experience seeking, $PER\_C$ = perceived constraints, $ln1$ = intention within 1 year, and $ln2$ = intention within 3 years. *New relations were not included in hypotheses development.