# TOWARDS GLOBAL CITIZENS:

# HARNESSING THE EXPECTATIONS OF VOLUNTEER TOURISTS

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# Abstract

In the growing field of volunteer tourism research, the motivations, benefits and criticisms of this activity have been widely explored. An area that has received less attention has been the post-experience domain and particularly its impact on volunteer tourist contributions to their own communities. In the spirit of exploring effective altruism through the maximisation of social good, this study explores the impact of the volunteer tourism experience on the propensity of volunteer tourists to undertake other volunteering variants post-trip, indicative of a potential conduit for volunteer recruitment. To achieve this, the study is underpinned by the Expectation-Disconfirmation Paradigm ('EDP'). The researcher measured the expectations, disconfirmation and satisfaction of volunteer tourists over the course of their trip. By doing so, she was able to examine the effects of these constructs on behavioural intentions relating to repeat purchase, overseas travel, domestic travel volunteering and local volunteering. Initial interviews were conducted with past volunteer tourists and with volunteer sending organisations to determine volunteer tourist expectations. The ensuing list of items was supplemented by the literature on tourism and volunteering. The expectations that were identified formed the basis of a two-round questionnaire that was designed to measure expectations, disconfirmation, satisfaction and behavioural intentions prior to volunteer tourists' departure and upon their return. The results revealed that disconfirmation had more influence on behavioural intentions than the other variables measured. The disconfirmation of expectations was related primarily to personal growth and learning. These factors yielded statistically significant relationships in relation to volunteering behavioural intentions. This study found tentative associations between the transformative experience of volunteer tourism and decisions to start or continue volunteering in the

future, but did not find strong evidence that could confirm the role of volunteer tourism as a conduit for volunteer recruitment. While contributing to the research on volunteer tourism using the lens of EDP, recommendations for future research include the implementation of alternative data analyses, and the utilisation of multiple theories to develop more holistic frameworks of comparison.

# Student Declaration

I, Faith Ong, declare that the PhD thesis entitled *Towards global citizens: Harnessing the expectations of volunteer tourists* is no more than 100,000 words in length including quotes and exclusive of tables, figures, appendices, bibliography, references and footnotes. This thesis contains no material that has been submitted previously, in whole or in part, for the award of any other academic degree or diploma. Except where otherwise indicated, this thesis is my own work.

Signature:

Date: 24 March 2016

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# List of Publications

The research undertaken as part of this thesis has resulted in the following publications:

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# Glossary

**Domestic travel volunteering:** Unremunerated activities that travellers undertake outside of their local community, but still within the confines of their home country. This form of volunteering typically involves an upfront payment, usually related to travel and accommodation expenses.

**EDP**: Expectancy-Disconfirmation Paradigm, a paradigm developed from Expectancy Theory which postulates that expectations form a baseline for the measurement of satisfaction through disconfirmation.

**Host community:** The community in which the act of volunteer tourism takes place.

**Local volunteering:** Unpaid activities which contribute to local communities.

**NGO**: Non-governmental organisation.

**Overseas travel:** Trips involving travel outside one's home country.

**Overseas volunteering:** An alternative name for volunteer tourism, used in the questionnaire for this study instead of the original term due to respondents' possible rejection of being labelled as 'volunteer tourists' or 'voluntourists'.

**Sending organisation:** The intermediary that matches and places potential volunteer tourists with volunteer tourism programs.

**Volunteer tourists:** Those who seek a tourism experience that is mutually beneficial and will contribute not only to their individual development, but also positively and directly to the social, natural and economic context in which they are involved. This

form of volunteering typically involves an upfront payment to sending organisations to cover administration, travel, accommodation, and other program expenses.

# Abbreviations used for categories of expectations

**Acc**: Accommodation

**Act**: Activities

**Des**: Destination exploration

**IntL**: Interaction with locals

**IntP**: Interaction with other participants

**Saf**: Safety

**Ski**: Skills

**Sup**: Support from staff

# Chapter 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Prologue

I was 14 years old when I joined my mother on a trip from my home in Singapore to a rural area in the Philippines. Prior to meeting the rest of our group at Manila International Airport, I was unaware that I had been co-opted as a volunteer with a mission to provide medical services to needy communities. Not knowing what to expect, I was surrounded by trained medical personnel, including surgeons, doctors and nurses, and doubted my ability to contribute. By the end of it, I had spent two weeks distributing medical supplies in a makeshift concrete gymnasium-turned-clinic and seen what a lack of access to medical services could do to the human body. I was proud that I had contributed to the well-being of these villagers. This was my first taste of volunteer tourism, and it left me with a feeling of accomplishment that was unparalleled in my young life. Soon, I started seeking other opportunities to continue helping underserved communities.

A few years later, I jumped at the chance to volunteer in Maldives. Despite its reputation as an expensive resort destination, economic growth is unequal amongst islands, and our goal was to build a kindergarten and set up a computer lab with internet connection on one of the islands that was not open to tourism. Years later, I would hear rumours about how the project provoked jealousy amongst the other islands that had not been chosen, as their lack of internet access and kindergarten facilities was now in sharp contrast to the island we had visited. Still more years later, I joined a conservation biology expedition at the end of my undergraduate studies, ostensibly to study the effect of climate change on Himalayan farmers, interviewing

them and understanding the changes they had endured. To my knowledge, there was little more than a written group report emanating from the 16 day expedition.

The feel-good effects of my first volunteer tourism trip eluded my subsequent trips, and it became apparent that despite my altruistic intentions to make a positive contribution to those who may have needed a helping hand, these were ultimately hedonistic undertakings. Instead of returning with triumphant stories of how others' lives were supposedly improved by our participation, we traded photographs and memories, with nary a thought about the impact left by our volunteer tourism undertakings. Reflecting on these experiences, it disturbs me that my participation was without critique, and the outcomes were always assumed to be good. The lack of continuity and accountability in each project gradually became deterrents, and I questioned the worth of these volunteer tourism experiences, wondering if such expensive pursuits of altruism were best served with overseas trips. Given the amount of time, effort and other resources invested in these experiences, I grew doubtful about the effectiveness of their outcomes. These experiences provided the impetus for this research study, underscoring its importance both as a contributor to volunteer tourism research, as well as a matter of personal interest.

This chapter will proceed by providing the reader with background to the volunteer tourism phenomenon, including the factors which have contributed to its popularity. The existing research has also revealed some knowledge gaps, which will be discussed in order to underpin the problem statement. The researcher will then state the identified research questions. This is followed by a description of the thesis structure as a guide for the reader.

## 1.2 Background

Surrounded by a culture of consumption where a combination of social pressure and marketing encourages us to define ourselves through the objects that we purchase and through our accumulated experiences (Lunt & Livingstone 1992), there is a growing undercurrent of resistance (Micheletti & Stolle 2008). The materialism of the previous century has been replaced by growing recognition of the privileges that are enjoyed by residents of the developed world (Micheletti & Stolle 2008). This has encouraged those who enjoy such privileges to consider extensions beyond their immediate selves. Correspondingly, the concept of social responsibility – the duty of each individual to act for the benefit of society, rather than their own interests (Mears & Smith 1977) – has become an increasingly common sentiment. Technological developments have enabled such intentions to be disseminated globally. The concept of Corporate Social Responsibility ('CSR') which considers the triple bottom line of financial, social and environmental accountability (Wells 2011) has also encouraged consumers to hold organisations to the ideal of contributing more than just money to the operating environment. The tendrils of social responsibility have reached many aspects of our modern life, and unsurprisingly, travel and tourism have not been immune. Beyond the examination of touristic practices put in place by the industry in relation to host community engagement and destination development (Boonkaew, Polonsky & Pearlman 2006; Camilleri 2014), this increasing emphasis on social responsibility has stimulated the growth and popularity of a type of tourism known as volunteer tourism (Butcher & Smith 2010; Callanan & Thomas 2005).

The prospect of volunteer tourism is enticing for potential participants – explore the world and all it has to offer, and along the way, give back by helping host communities and contributing to community and research projects. Volunteer tourism commonly

involves individuals, known as ‘volunteer tourists’, paying to travel to communities with the aim of developing capabilities and improving their environment, commonly known as ‘volunteer tourists’. The communities to which they travel are commonly known as ‘host communities’, while the organisations that organise these trips are referred to as ‘sending organisations’. These three form the key stakeholders of volunteer tourism, a form of travel that typically involves a myriad of activities from the education of host community members and assistance in the construction of shelter, to the restoration of structures of cultural significance and undertaking research work (Wearing 2001).

The act of enjoying tourism as a form of relaxation, exploration and learning is balanced by the act of giving and in making positive changes to the lives of communities who are perceived to be in need. Primarily motivated by altruism (Coghlan & Fennell 2009), other volunteer tourism key motivations include the opportunity to visit exotic locales (Lyons & Wearing 2008; Sin 2010), cross-cultural learning (McIntosh & Zahra 2007), social capital acquisition (Brown 2005), and building skills (Stoddart & Rogerson 2004). The debate on motivations continues to be centred on whether participation is primarily about altruism or about self-interest. Despite this, the popularity of volunteer tourism has been enhanced by the co-opting of travel as a form of self-expression, a type of consumption that expresses personal social responsibility in response to the increasing visibility of inequality and social injustices that pervade the capitalist system (Ger & Belk 1999). As online social networks develop and encourage information dissemination, the response to social injustice is often ‘one click away’ in the form of online activism such as signing petitions or participating in online transactions to support microloans (Black 2009; Rotman et al. 2011). However, such forms of activism, while offering a finite commitment that suits ‘time-poor’ modern lifestyles, have been criticised for their passivity and excessive

ease of action (Rotman et al. 2011). In lieu of online activism, volunteer tourism potentially circumvents such criticism by providing an opportunity to perform an active role in response to such social injustices (Walsh 2012).

This dualism creates a divide between experiencing the pleasures associated with seeing the world and making a contribution. It may offer a convenient way of assuaging the guilt of privilege and post-colonial remnants of historical power imbalances (Sin 2010). However, the study of volunteer tourism should not focus exclusively on benefits, but also on its disadvantages. After the initial laudatory wave of literature examining volunteer tourism, the tide has turned towards identifying negative impacts (Wearing & McGehee 2013). Negative impacts highlighted in the academic literature and from anecdotal accounts include neglecting locals' desires, impeding work progress, interfering with local economies, exploiting vulnerable members of the community, poverty rationalisation and demonstration effects (Biddle 2014; Guttentag 2009; Palacios 2010; Sin 2010; Tourism Concern 2014). These cautionary tales have fuelled negative sentiments against volunteer tourism, prompting criticism that its idealistic vision of mutual benefits is unrealistic, and that the benefits accrue more to the tourist than to the host community, as is the case with other forms of tourism. The discussion of its myriad impacts mirrors that of volunteer tourists' motivations, with a dichotomous split that proposes a near categorisation of impacts into positive and negative.

### 1.2.1 Problem statement

While they are relevant to the broad study of volunteer tourism, the motivations, benefits and criticisms associated with volunteer tourism and which relate to the pre-conditions and outcomes of participation are not central to this study. Instead, it is timely to move the conversation beyond the temporal confines of the volunteer tourism

trip and to examine its impact on behaviour post experience. When compared to other aspects of volunteer tourism, the post-experience realm has not been widely explored (Wearing & McGehee 2013). An exploration of the post-experience impact of volunteer tourism on the individual is timely to address the prevalent criticism that volunteer tourism is primarily self-centred with the benefits being temporally confined to the trip itself (Biddle 2014). Any experience has the potential to affect participants, and volunteer tourism is no exception. The effectiveness of recruiting local volunteers may be influenced by the different types of altruism that are evident amongst prospective participants (Dolnicar & Randle 2007; Randle & Dolnicar 2009). On this basis volunteer tourists may potentially act as a conduit for local volunteering recruitment. However, because a primary goal of volunteer tourism is to contribute positively to host communities, its ideals are intertwined with the concept of social responsibility (Coghlan & Noakes 2012). This relationship with social responsibility increases the importance of the influence the trip has on participants following their return, translating one form of social responsibility (volunteer tourism) into another (other forms of volunteerism). In contrasting the various alternative approaches to enacting social responsibility, the issue of effectiveness is also raised in relation to the help that is rendered.

The concept of effective altruism is behind the social movement of mindful philanthropy that seeks to maximise social good, encourages individuals to pursue avenues that have the potential to reach the greatest number of beneficiaries with the available resources (Singer 2015). Though it is primarily a financial movement in its current form, the thinking behind effective altruism has provided the researcher with a guiding philosophy in conducting this study, albeit interpreted in the context of a non-financial, volunteer-focused manner. Effective altruism is predicated on impartial

assessments of the expected benefits brought about by altruistic activities, maximising the choice of an ethical lifestyle by engaging in non-trivial amounts of charitable activity (Singer 2015). In addressing the criticism that volunteer tourists could do more harm than good for host communities (Guttentag 2009), the importance of encouraging ongoing volunteering behaviours in a more sustainable, longer term manner, is underscored by its effectiveness relative to volunteer tourism.

The merit of providing support for one's own community has a long historical pedigree. From an evolutionary perspective, tribes in less technologically advanced societies have benefitted more from contributions to their own community than those provided to more distant locales, with reciprocal altruism used as a form of social exchange (Trivers 2006). Such contributions foster cohesion within local tribes and communities, and enhance their collective survival (Penner et al. 2005; Trivers 2006). The same underlying principle may apply to volunteering. Local approaches provide contributions to social cohesion, by encouraging members of a single community to provide and receive help (Penner et al. 2005). This applies to acts of service such as helping behaviours. However when the increasing mobility of financial aid is considered, notably through the medium of charitable donations, there is a potential to reverse the effectiveness of altruism between local and global recipients (Singer 2015). When the relative costs of labour and other resources in developing countries are considered, the same monetary donation, such as the monetary cost of funding a volunteer tourism trip, could benefit more individuals in developing countries than their developed country counterparts (Singer 2015). The application of effective altruism to volunteer tourism challenges the altruistic effectiveness of taking expensive, temporally limited volunteer tourism trips when the donation of those trip expenses could conceivably be used more effectively by local non-governmental organisations

('NGO'). By examining volunteer tourism experiences and their associated expectations, this study concerns the impact of such experiences on the continued contributions of volunteer tourists to their own communities.

The study of post-volunteer tourism experience can be viewed from two primary perspectives – its impact on volunteer tourists and on host community members (Wearing & McGehee 2013). Since the researcher had previous experience as a volunteer tourist, the question of continued altruistic behaviour beyond the volunteer tourism trip was central to her initial motivation to conduct the study. Furthermore, the impact of volunteer tourism on the volunteering and travel behaviour of its returned participants presented a research opportunity that could draw upon the researcher's previous volunteer tourism experiences. This study therefore chose to approach the post-volunteer experience from the volunteer tourist perspective. The strength of the proposed study lies in its contribution to debate about the perceived benefits of volunteer tourism, extending the discussion of its impacts beyond host communities and volunteer tourists to the local communities that are more readily accessible to returned volunteer tourists. In this area, there has been limited study of the impact of volunteer tourism on returned participants. Alexander (2009) and Grabowski and Wearing (2011) investigated the impact of volunteer tourism on the trust, artistic interests and assertiveness of participants. Others have explored the 'deculturation' experienced by returning volunteer tourists as a discomforting description of being trapped between the culture of their host destination and their home country (Grabowski & Wearing 2011; McGehee & Santos 2005).

While there are a small number of studies on the repeat intentions of returned volunteer tourists to participate in other volunteer tourism experiences, there have been few examinations of the impact on participant contributions on their own

communities (McGehee 2002; McGehee & Norman 2002). Despite the social and psychological benefits of volunteering, which include enhanced mental and physical health (Wilson 2012), there is an ongoing need to encourage local volunteer participation. Furthermore, increased community involvement may facilitate social bonds that can have positive effects for the wider population. Volunteer recruitment remains highly competitive for volunteer organisations (Dolnicar & Randle 2007), and volunteer tourism presents a potential conduit for the recruitment of new volunteers. It is worthwhile to leverage off the altruism displayed by volunteer tourists and encourage altruistic behaviours in returned participants' local communities. Therefore, in order to explore the role of volunteer tourism as a conduit for other forms of volunteering beyond the trip, this study will concentrate on the key objective of exploring the effects of the volunteer tourism experience on behavioural intentions related to local volunteering and travelling.

### 1.2.2 Development of research questions

Several alternative approaches could be used to explore the research problem. Notably, McGehee (2002) examined the impact of volunteer tourism on participation in social movements by participants of Earthwatch Institute expeditions, using social psychological and resource-mobilisation theories to develop a framework studying the effects of volunteer tourism trips on self-efficacy and networks respectively. The study found that the networks established during an Earthwatch volunteer expedition encouraged participation in social movement activities such as civil rights movements, without impacting participants' self-efficacy. Similarly, McGehee and Santos (2005) found that participants had their consciousness about activism and social movements raised after returning from volunteer tourism trips, though this enhanced consciousness did not necessarily translate into sustained action beyond their trips. In

their study on motivation changes associated with volunteer tourism and the effects on intentions to participate in the future, Lee and Yen (2015) found that the motivations relating to the volunteer relationship, self-development, autonomy, and self-fulfilment had the most significant influence on repeat volunteer tourism participation intentions.

An aim of the present study is to examine how the volunteer tourism experience influences future behavioural intentions in the related to travel and volunteering. On this basis, it is prudent to focus on research that relates to experiences and to behavioural intentions. This literature is primarily represented by the customer satisfaction field, where research generally refers to measurement, antecedents and effects. The relevant studies have prompted the use of Expectancy Theory in commercial settings, which tests the influence of expectations on behavioural outcomes. The Expectancy-Disconfirmation Paradigm ('EDP') was developed from this theory. It postulates that expectations form a baseline for the measurement of satisfaction through disconfirmation (Oliver 2010). Past studies showing that expectations influence behavioural intentions (Oliver 2010) enhance the suitability of using expectations as the guiding theory underpinning this study, providing the lens through which the study seeks to examine behavioural intentions relating to continued volunteering beyond the volunteer tourism experience.

A literature review on EDP, volunteerism and tourism has revealed several gaps in the existing research on volunteer tourism. While research has been conducted on expectations relating to tourism experiences (del Bosque et al. 2009; Gnoth 1997) and volunteerism (Clary, Snyder & Stukas 1996; Liao-Troth & Dunn 1999), and studies have explored the motivations of volunteer tourists (Benson & Seibert 2009; Chen & Chen 2011; Lee & Yen 2015; Leonard & Onyx 2009; Lo & Lee 2011; Reas 2015), there has been minimal focus on the expectations of volunteer tourism. While various

motivation studies have elicited the reasons that drive people to participate in volunteer tourism, the use of EDP in this study necessitates an in-depth exploration of the expectations held by participants in anticipation of their experiences. It is by understanding the range of expectations held by volunteer tourists that its effects can be ascertained. As such the study starts with a fundamental research question:

RQ1. What do volunteer tourists expect from their volunteer tourism experience?

Insights into the trip-related expectations of volunteer tourist, will allow researchers to examine its relationship with and impact on future behavioural intentions. It has previously been shown that satisfaction with experiences is a significant contributor to future positive expectations about the same services (Zeithaml, Berry & Parasuraman 1993), thus contributing to continued participation in volunteer tourism experiences. Existing studies on repeat purchase intentions relating to volunteer tourism examine them in the context of motivational factors (Lee & Yen 2015), while this study is concerned with expectations and their influence on these intentions. On this basis the second research question is posed:

RQ2. How do the expectations, disconfirmation and overall satisfaction of volunteer tourists affect their repeat purchase intentions?

Central to this study is the effect of expectations on volunteer tourist behavioural intentions to continue volunteering in their local communities. The effect of expectations will be measured from two perspectives: the level of respondent expectations as well as their level of disconfirmation (Oliver 2010). Some studies have examined this in the context of encouraging local visitors to volunteer in national parks they have visited (Weaver 2015) or sustaining student volunteerism beyond mega

event volunteering (Wang & Yu 2014). However, the function of volunteer tourism as a conduit for sustained local volunteering has been relatively unexplored. On this basis, in examining the effect of expectations on the related activities of domestic travel volunteering and local volunteering, the third research question asks:

RQ3. How do the expectations, disconfirmation and overall satisfaction of volunteer tourists affect their intentions to travel overseas, to undertake volunteer travel domestically and to volunteer locally?

While this study concentrates on the effects of expectations and disconfirmation on future behavioural intentions, volunteer tourists may embark on their trips with an intention to volunteer when they return. In such circumstances positive behavioural intentions may not result from the initial expectation or disconfirmation experienced. The present study proposes that behavioural intentions are measured pre-departure and post-return with a view to providing the data that is needed to answer the fourth research question as follows:

RQ4. Do disconfirmation and satisfaction alter behavioural intentions pre- and post-travel?

As past experience is an antecedent of expectations (Kalamas, Laroche & Cézard 2002; Zeithaml, Berry & Parasuraman 1993), its influence on behavioural intentions will also be explored in this study. The significance of its influence on behavioural intentions should be discussed in tandem with those of disconfirmation and satisfaction, so as to develop an understanding of the influence of each on changing intentions. This relates to research question five:

RQ5. Do past experiences of travelling overseas and volunteering overseas and locally have an effect on changes in behavioural intentions?

Beyond understanding the relationship between behavioural intentions and expectations, disconfirmation, and satisfaction, the reasons behind volunteer tourist decisions to continue volunteering in other forms, such as local volunteering or domestic travel volunteering, are also important to this study. As pointed out in the problem statement above, aside from repeat purchase intentions related to further volunteer tourism experiences, the intentions of returned volunteer tourists to participate in volunteering in other capacities has not been explored. Central to understanding their intentions is their reasoning for these intentions, which forms the basis for research question six:

RQ6. What factors encourage or discourage returning volunteer tourists from participation in different forms of volunteering?

A variety of sources can inform volunteer tourists' expectations (Oliver 2010). In order to harness the effect of expectations to positively influence returned volunteer tourist intentions to volunteer, it is important to understand the key sources that inform these expectations. Identifying the key sources of information will ensure that if expectations are to be influenced in order to generate an enhanced intention to volunteer, targeted efforts via these sources of information may contribute to their efficacy.

RQ7. What are the main sources informing volunteer tourist expectations?

These seven research questions will be the primary focus of the current study. The ultimate aim is to determine the expectations and associated disconfirmation which most influence participation in local and domestic travel volunteering, thereby

providing a better understanding of volunteer tourism as a conduit for volunteer recruitment.

Most applications of EDP in the tourism field have been applied in the context of destination marketing or management (Suvantola 2002), with a prevalence of one-off data collection about individual destinations at a single point in time. The absence of longitudinal studies relating to the evolution of behavioural intentions over the course of an experience supports the theoretical contribution of this research study. This study also aims to contribute to the field of volunteer tourism by understanding the post-trip outcomes that can encourage community contributions beyond the temporal confines of volunteer tourism trips. It is intended that the study will provide insights that can assist sending organisations to address the expectations of volunteer tourists, thereby responding to the critical backlash that has accompanied the growth of volunteer tourism (McIntosh & Zahra 2007).

## 1.3 Structure of the thesis

In order to build the foundations for understanding the expectations of volunteer tourists, it is imperative to understand the research base in related fields. In this first chapter, a brief introduction to the study was provided. This overview discussed the study background and introduced the research problem. It summarised the factors which have contributed to the identification of the research problem. These factors will be further elaborated in the literature review (Chapter 2).

The review will first cast the spotlight on the parent fields of volunteer tourism - tourism and volunteerism respectively. This insight will provide a historical context for their development, and an environmental scan which will highlight the characteristics and trends of each in leading to the development of volunteer tourism. This will be followed

by an introduction to the volunteer tourism concept, and how its status as a newer area of study has inspired a myriad of definitions that attempt to draw boundaries around this class of activity. Aside from the contributions of the parent fields to its popularity, other factors which have made it an attractive proposition are also discussed. Beyond its description, the negative impacts and tensions inherent in volunteer tourism have prompted some to call for greater accountability or for a discontinuation in its current form (Tourism Concern 2014). These views provide some balance for the earlier and overwhelmingly positive, volunteer tourism literature. Finally, the post-experience dimension is explored, with particular emphasis on the paucity of related research and the relevance of this study in addressing that gap. Chapter 3 will provide the theoretical framework which guides the thesis. The choice of Expectancy Theory, and subsequently EDP will be discussed in detail. Since the EDP is not without its critics, the strengths and weaknesses of the EDP are discussed, along with considerations that will guide the eventual data collection. To direct the literature review towards the discussion on data collection, a brief review of expectations in tourism and volunteerism is included in this chapter.

This is followed by Chapter 4, which will discuss the various research questions. It will include a deeper discussion of the research problem, and the contributions of this study to the EDP and volunteer tourism literatures. The chapter will also go on to discuss the methodology that guides this study, and is divided into two key sections – qualitative and quantitative. The rationale behind the exploratory mixed method will be discussed, and the two phases of data collection will be explained. For both qualitative and quantitative phases of the data collection, the ontology and epistemology guiding each will be examined, leading on to discussion about the most appropriate form of data collection given each paradigm. Sampling techniques are also discussed, along

with suitable methods of analysis given the eventual sample size and composition of respondents at each phase of data collection.

On concluding the chapter on theoretical discussions of methodology, the focus will then turn to Chapter 5, which begins with the results of Phase 1. The results of this phase are used to inform the questionnaire design for Phase 2, contributing to the discussion of the types of expectations held by volunteer tourists. The analyses in this chapter will answer the research questions outlined in Chapter 4, using quantitative data analysis to assess associations between expectations, disconfirmation, satisfaction, and various travel and volunteering behavioural intentions. Based on the results of these two phases, Chapter 6 will demonstrate the theoretical and methodological contributions of this study, alongside the contributions it makes to volunteer tourism and its parent fields of volunteerism and tourism. Furthermore, suggestions will be made as the study's contribution to practice by encouraging different forms of volunteering. Chapter 7, the concluding chapter, will discuss the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research. Chapter 7 will conclude the study.

# Chapter 2 Literature review

Chapter 2 provides a platform for the subsequent empirical investigation by exploring the dimensions of volunteer tourism as an area of study. As a relatively new field that is attracting increasing attention from practitioners and academics, it is also important to understand the development of its component activities – tourism and volunteerism. These provide a basis for understanding the impetus to participate in volunteer tourism and why it is an attractive proposition. This chapter begins with an exploration of how the development of tourism has shaped the volunteer tourism phenomenon and the major factors guiding its evolution. Volunteerism will then be discussed with an emphasis on the motivations and trends that have prompted the growth of volunteer tourism. Finally, volunteer tourism itself will be scrutinised, particularly as an affective experience in the lives of volunteer tourists.

## 2.1 Tourism

Contemporary international tourism draws upon the legacy of the Grand Tours of Eighteenth and Nineteenth Century when aristocratic young men journeyed around the European continent in the name of learning (Chard 1997; Wearing 2001). The Grand Tour has been described as existing within an imaginary topography that was generally assumed to move from Northern to Southern Europe (Chard 1997), exposing young men to different and unfamiliar sights, cultures and experiences. This provided a stimulus for thought and learning particularly in the areas of literacy, philosophy, scientific studies and moral concerns (Chard 1997; Franklin 2003). As a mechanism for experiencing the 'foreign', young travellers commonly approached the Grand Tour as a source of pleasure as well as personal improvement. The guiding principles of the Grand Tour viewed travel as a component of education and particularly of art and

literature (Chard 1997). It emphasised a broadening of the mind through an exploration of the unfamiliar. Learning and self-discovery were also extended to incorporate other dimensions such as relaxation and escaping from the everyday, which suggests parallels with the mindset of the Twenty First Century tourist. Since participation in the Grand Tour was largely determined by the ability of one's family to afford such luxury, it remained exclusive to the wealthy over the forthcoming centuries (Chard 1997).

The advent of the industrial revolution served to diminish this gap between the 'high culture' of those who could afford the Grand Tour and the less literate 'low' cultures (Franklin 2003). This narrowing was accelerated by the extension of state control over transport and communications, which facilitated access to institutions of learning and culture for those who had previously lacked the means to attend, thereby homogenising 'high' culture (Franklin 2003). One of the first instances of capitalising on the homogenisation of this phenomenon can be attributed to Thomas Cook, who established his travel agency in mid-Nineteenth Century Britain and contributed to the popularisation of tourism (Hamilton & Brandon 2005). As technological developments such as the invention of the combustion and jet engines accelerated travel, greater numbers could travel on vacation (Butler 2008). The idea of access to tourism progressively shifted from ability to affordability, with cost assuming a greater role in tourism decision making (Butler 2008). The idea of tourism as a form of escape and fulfilment became increasingly commonplace as incomes and living standards rose. This prompted closer examination of tourism as a multi-faceted phenomenon with differential effects on many stakeholders. Its many factors are evident in the myriad definitions proposed for tourism, which attempt to encompass its multiple functions and dimensions. These will be explored in the following section, along with themes

emerging from the tourism literature, and the application of these research perspectives to the current study.

### 2.1.1 Defining tourism

The attempt to identify a single definition of tourism has been challenged by debates over the global North-South divide and its distinctiveness from related phenomena such as leisure and recreation (Rao 2008). The literature on tourism presents two consistent threads that distinguish it from other leisure or recreation activities: that of travelling away from one's familiar home environment, and the exposure of individuals to activities and places that are different and unusual (Franklin 2003). In combination, these key characteristics define the uniqueness of tourism within the academic context. With these characteristics in mind, it is pertinent to note that the United Nations World Tourism Organisation ('UNWTO') has defined tourism as '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' (UNWTO 2008). While this definition leaves many grey areas, it does encompass most forms of tourism to be measured, quantifying its contribution to the global economy. There are numerous other tourism classifications, each possessing their own defining and unique characteristics, some of which will be discussed in detail later in this section, particularly those that pertain to volunteer tourism.

Aside from the diversity of definitions, tourism writing has also been criticised for its excessive focus on Western, English-speaking audiences and on its 'Orientalism' (Smith 1989). Orientalism – a portrayal of unchanging cultural essences as being polar opposites of the West – reinforces patronising perceptions that are inaccurate and more representative of Western thought than true cultural understanding (Said 2003).

This form of portrayal is seen as outdated for its adherence to exoticism and its ignorance of heterogeneity and richness in cultures (Mitchell 1992; Said 2003). Despite such criticisms, some consistent themes appear repeatedly in the study of travel and tourism - tourism as the ‘non-ordinary’, its costs and benefits, classifications and typologies, and the psychology of travel. Of particular relevance to volunteer tourism, tourism has been described as dichotomous, and as displaying the contrasts between the ordinary and the extra-ordinary (Urry 1990). This approach explores the psychological impacts and motivations of tourism. Graburn (1978) and Urry (1990) have explored tourism beyond its physical dimensions describing it ‘more by what it is not than by what it is – it is *not* home and it is *not* work; it is a change of scenery and lifestyle, an inversion of the normal’ (as quoted in O’Reilly, 2000, p. 43). Creating such difference between the everyday and the extraordinary is seen not just a matter of physical change; it was also a means of psychological distance from the drudgery of the everyday.

In its role as a contrast with everyday life, tourism has a variety of meanings for tourists. It is a world into which tourists are able to escape from their familiar 'work’ environment, thereby ‘providing an alternate atmosphere’ (Ryan 2002b). By removing oneself from a familiar environment, the tourist reinforces this dichotomy by physically segregating the tourism experience from the everyday. This shift in environment functions as both a push and a pull factor. It is a push factor when the tourist tires of his familiar environment or feels the need for change, however temporary, and the tourism experience provides contrast as the ‘non-ordinary’. This holds true even as tourists seek activities that can provide meaning in their travels, such as addressing an altruistic inclination, as in the case of volunteer tourism or the pursuit of other passions such as in the case of sports tourism (Gibson 1998). In contrast, it may function as a

pull factor when a combination of intrinsic factors is attractive to the prospective tourist, such as the promise of pristine, natural environments or the experience of an attraction not available in their usual environment (Pearce & Packer 2013). These allow a reordering of social and psychological structures for individuals, challenging the perspectives through which tourists view their environments, thus potentially changing their individual world view (Ryan 2002b). It is this potential for change, along with the allure of escape, which attracts many tourists to invest financially in an activity which does not promise ownership of physical assets or familiar environments. This potential also informs tourist expectations about upcoming experiences, along with the images that are projected by the tourism industry. It may be argued that allure of tourism is about anticipation, affecting tourists by comparing expectations with the trip itself, with possible effects on their future behavioural intentions. This is of particular interest to the present investigation which examines the expectations of volunteer tourists across their experiences, from pre-trip to post-return.

### 2.1.2 The effects of tourism

There has been considerable attention devoted to the effects of tourism in the relevant literature. These have largely been examined in the context of its effects on economies, host societies and the environment. Economically, tourism is recognised as an avenue of development and modernisation that developing countries can adopt (Pearce, Filep & Ross 2011; Smith 1989). However, such economic benefits have raised questions in regard to the non-economic costs which can be incurred as a result (Pearce, Filep & Ross 2011; Franklin 2003; Weaver 2006). In particular, the societal and ecological costs have been highlighted in tourism literature.

The purported societal benefits of tourism extend to cultural reinforcement in the host society, with the commodification of cultural reproduction cited as a means to

strengthening community pride and host cultural identity (Franklin 2003; McIntosh & Zahra 2007). However, its negative effects also been highlighted, including the demonstration effects, whereby host community members adopt behaviours from foreign tourists which are deemed contrary to the host community's values (Pearce, Filep & Ross 2011). In destinations with developing economies, the threat of property inflation, uneven wealth benefits and blights on moral well-being have been cited as potential negative effects of tourism (Franklin 2003). In view of such potential negative effects, there has been increasing rejection of popular mass tourism as a model of unsustainability (Weaver 2006), instead fuelling the push for alternative systems which minimise tourist footprints in host communities.

Increasingly, the ecological costs of tourism have shone the spotlight on destination longevity and sustainability, particularly in the context of carrying capacities and the romanticisation of nature as a pull factor, leading to its over-exploration and ultimately leading to its destruction (Franklin 2003). This focus on destination sustainability has given rise to a body of literature that explores resource sustainability and destination management. One such proposed tourism typology developed by Weaver (2006) differentiates between the mass and alternative systems which exist within tourism. While conventional mass tourism brings to mind unregulated tourism development and unacceptably high economic, environmental and socio-cultural costs to the local community at destinations, alternative systems have been proposed to counteract such ill effects. A key criticism of conventional mass tourism is associated with its commodification, where the environmental, cultural and cultural aspects of tourism are displaced from their natural settings, carved out, valuated and privatised for monetary gain (Castree 2003). Even as Weaver (2006) outlines the ideals of alternative tourism, coining the term 'deliberate alternative tourism ideal' (p. 41) to denote the shift away

from uncontrolled and unsustainable mass tourism models, he cautions that it would be prudent to assess destinations and tourism products as exhibiting propensities toward certain models rather than conforming fully to any ideal type.

Alternative tourism has also been referred to as ‘special interest tourism’, involving tourists who are typically motivated by the development of an existing or new interest in a novel or familiar location (Swarbrooke & Horner 2007). Examples of special interest tourism include sports tourism, wherein people travel to other destinations as participants or spectators of their chosen sport (Gibson 1998), religious tourism – which involves visiting destinations that have religious significance for the participant (Rinschede 1992), and wine tourism which encompasses visits to wine regions for recreational purposes (Sparks 2007). Alternative tourism is typically characterised by markets that seek authentic cultural, historical and natural attractions, small scale accommodation facilities, minimal economic leakages and carefully regulated development in collaboration with community stakeholders (Weaver 2006). Its offering of authenticity, in contrast to commodification, is a key pull factor in a time when tourists are increasingly undertaking activities which are congruent with their self-expression. Furthermore, the coupling of other activities with tourism opens up diverse niches that potentially serve to reinforce such tourists’ interests in both future travel and areas of special interest, thereby contributing to further segmentation of alternative tourism types (Weaver 2006).

Within the alternative tourism spectrum, Weaver (2006) also proposed a preliminary categorisation of different alternative tourism choices on the basis of attraction, accommodation and motivation orientation. This proposed model is shown in Figure 1. One of the more motivation-oriented forms of alternative tourism is volunteer tourism, which is logical as most volunteer tourists possess a strong desire to contribute to the

host community (Lo & Lee 2011). It may be argued that volunteer tourism could be resituated closer to the attraction orientation, as it has been shown that the destinations themselves have a strong allure for potential volunteer tourists (Sin 2009). However, the purpose of including the typology here is to provide an initial impression of the tourism types included in alternative tourism.

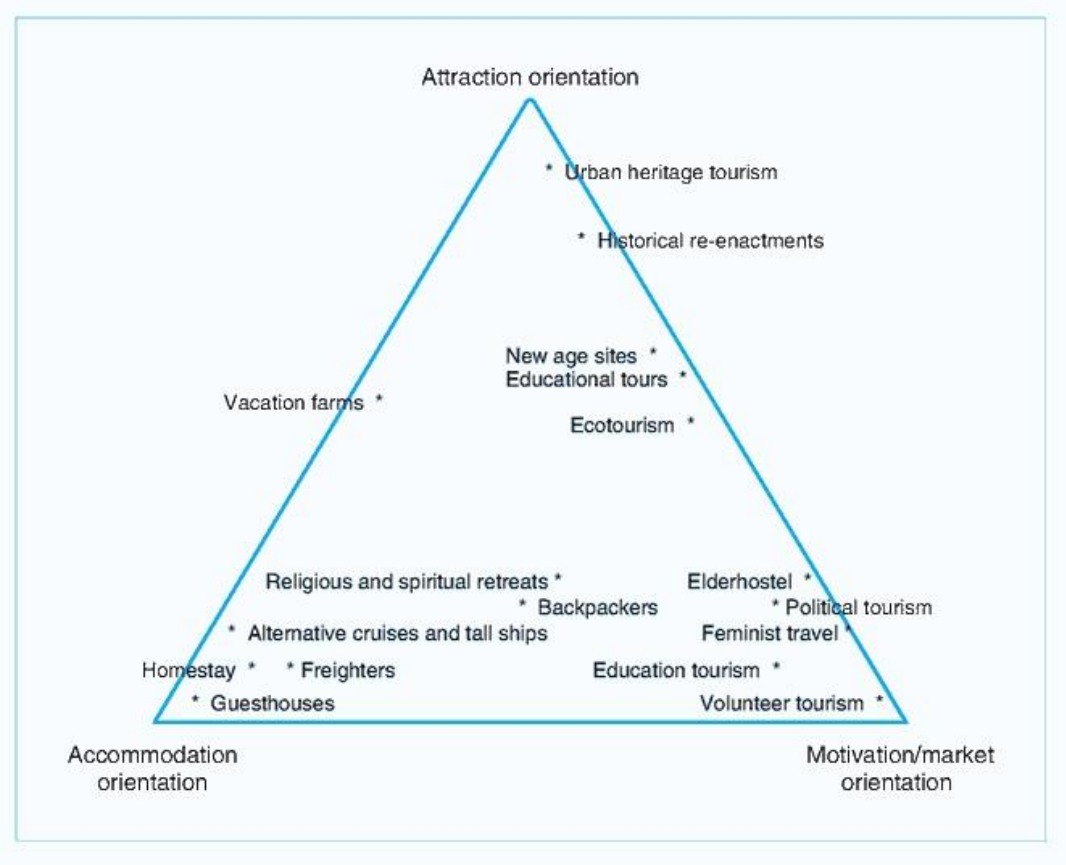


**Figure 1: Types of alternative tourism**

While it is tempting to pare tourism down to the very basis of leisure and entertainment, this focus on activities neglects the psychological component which is also considered to be intrinsic to the tourism experience (Franklin 2003). These aspects are also congruent with what Leiper (2000) considers to be a distinctive feature of tourist experiences, which is the behaviour that revolves around leisure as derived from the places visited. In this view, tourists are not only solving the problem of mundane,

ordinary lives that lead to boredom, but also seeking goals in attempting to provoke feelings and emotions such as a sense of adventure, self-improvement or altruism (Crouch et al. 2004).

Tourist psychology has attracted a variety of researcher perspectives, commonly concentrated on motivations, decision-making, attitudes and satisfaction (Pearce & Packer 2013). The discussion of motivations has ranged from sensory pleasures to desired goals such as respect, altruism, enhanced relationships and other eudaimonic outcomes (Park, Peterson & Seligman 2006). Motivational research has been approached via three main avenues – descriptive, quantitative and psychological (Smith 2001). The descriptive method has yielded models such as the 12-point travel appeals and Plog's allocentric-psychocentric tourist motivations (Plog 1973; Smith 2001), mainly describing the possible motivators that spur tourists into action. The quantitative view employs the social characteristics of travellers in order to infer their motivations (Smith 2001). The psychological motivation perspective is perhaps most relevant to this thesis, as it provides a framework which translates the needs of tourists into their motivations, thereby enabling potential insight into what informs their expectations, which in turn affects satisfaction with their tourism experiences.

### 2.1.3 Psychological motivations in tourism

A notable model related to psychological motivations in tourism is the 'Travel Career Pattern', a later iteration of the 'Travel Career Ladder' that de-emphasises the latter's linear, hierarchical nature. In developing the original 'Travel Career Ladder', Pearce (1988) proposed five hierarchical motivational levels based on Maslow's 'Hierarchy of Needs' (1943), namely (from the bottom): relaxation, stimulation, relationship, self-esteem and development, and fulfilment needs. The upper levels of this model are representative of the factors that drive the choices of tourists who view their trips as

biographical expressions of their selves, maintaining congruence between their self-image and actions. However, the developmental nature of the ladder concept implies a linear progression along which tourists are expected to climb uni-directionally to reach the top rungs of self-esteem and fulfilment with each subsequent travel experience. Its key criticism lies in its neglect of a possible dynamism in psychology that may result in tourists advancing and reversing between rungs (Ryan 1998). The 'Travel Career Pattern' was developed in response to this criticism, emphasising a more egalitarian pattern of motivations and their structure over a more hierarchical approach. There are studies supporting the view that tourists with positive experiences pertaining to the higher rungs tend to be more satisfied with their overall experience than those with positive experiences pertaining to the lower rungs (Kim 1994; Pearce 1988). This amplification of satisfaction by the more experienced, and potentially more self-actualised tourist, has been shown to impact their revisitation intentions (Pearce 1988), and as will be explored in this thesis, may have implications for the behavioural intentions of volunteer tourists. Further, Pearce and Lee (2005) found that those who were more experienced tourists were more likely to declare host-site involvement as a motivation, while less experienced tourists were more likely to emphasise the higher order motivations as expressed in the Travel Career Ladder such as self-actualisation and self-development (Pearce 1988). These findings contradict the original Travel Career Ladder approach as the hierarchical model does not explain the dynamism of tourist motivations across a career of travel.

Aside from this focus on motivation, decision-making in destination choice and activity selection has been developed as a topic of research, particularly in the areas of logic and emotion (Goldstein 2011), while attitudes and satisfaction research continues to revolve around tourism products and experiences. Even within the field of satisfaction

and experiential research, satisfaction can be examined from the tourist's quality of experience perspective or the quality of service providers perspective (Ryan 2002a). This study attempts to examine expectations in the context of the tourist's experience, combining disconfirmation assessments in the experiential, and not service provision, aspects of volunteer tourism.

The concept of travelling to a foreign environment is useful for understanding the implications of physical travel on the psychological examinations of travel. This short-term movement of individuals from a geographic area of familiarity into other regions is central to the concept of travel (Burkart & Medlik 1981). The physical aspect contributes to the host-guest perspective, particularly the interactions between hosts and guests in the foreign environment (Smith 1989). Host-guest interaction is central to the tourism experience, and may be favourable or unfavourable depending on the nature of the interaction. This has led to its exploration in the context of customer experience, such as in the psychographic matching of guests with hosts in the pursuit of customer service improvement (Tucker & Lynch 2005), mutual learning and understanding (Sin 2010) as well as the evolving dynamic of changing tourist demographics (Chan 2006). Just as the social psychology of leisure is inextricably linked to the social environment that is a part of its production, inevitably, this theme has been widely explored, particularly in relation to the gazes of the tourist and the host as regard to this shared activity (Smith 1989). In addition, research on attitudes has also taken on an added dimension in the exploration of residents' attitudes towards the development of tourism, particularly because of the growing focus on community-based initiatives as a way of implementing sustainable tourism (Okazaki 2008; Pearce & Packer 2013). This evolution of perspectives in decision-making, attitudes and satisfaction towards compatibility and sustainability echoes the industry's

practices, which have shifted towards an emphasis on alternative tourism options (Weaver 2006; Trauer 2006; Yeoman, Munro & McMahon-Beattie 2006).

In examining tourism as a non-ordinary set of events and raising the consciousness of its deleterious effects over time, some of the context contributing to the growth of volunteer tourism has been discussed. While technological advances have contributed to the ability to travel, it is its subsequent affordability that has extended travel to the masses. The desire to escape from the everyday, explore the unknown, or pursue deeper interests has been the key to the growth of modern travel behaviour and choices (Weaver 2006). In the face of this growth, the push to minimise the negative effects of tourism has spawned a host of alternative tourism types, necessitating the exploration of consumer psychology to understand the motivations that affect tourists' expectations, and consequently, their satisfaction and future intentions. In addition, the use of volunteer tourism as a means of self-expression used by those higher up the rungs of the Travel Career Ladder has also contributed to the popularity of volunteer tourism programs (Ong et al. 2014). Beyond the tourism trends which fuel this movement, volunteerism and its developments has also played a significant part in promoting participation in volunteer tourism. This will be explored in the next section.

## 2.2 Volunteering

The concept of volunteering is fundamental to any examination of volunteer tourism. Project-based or local volunteering has provided the platform for the development of international volunteering activities. It has also stimulated the growth of volunteer tourism as a familiar activity for those who volunteer frequently, supplementing it with travel, just as in the case of alternative tourism types as an extension of other activities. In this section, the characteristics of volunteerism are examined, along with discussion

of what distinguishes it from other ‘pro-social’ activities. The perspectives which are typically employed in discussions about volunteering are also explored, as are the motivations which drive volunteers to give of their time to their chosen cause or community. The section concludes with a discussion about trends which are likely to shape the future of volunteer tourism.

### 2.2.1 Defining volunteering

Various definitions of volunteerism have emphasised its different characteristics. The range of characteristics is in turn a result of the diversity of public perceptions when considering what constitutes volunteering (Handy et al. 2000). The constituents of volunteering range from the simple (e.g., donation of blood) to heavier involvements related to political causes or acting as buddy volunteers to AIDS sufferers. Its heterogeneous nature contributes to the difficulty of creating a definition which encompasses the dynamism of volunteering (Gallarza, Arteaga & Gil-Saura 2013). Within this diversity, four core characteristics appear to characterise volunteerism (Davis Smith 2000) and provide a basic framework. These core characteristics were recognised in the seminal United Nations Volunteers paper on Volunteering and Social Development (Davis Smith 1999). They are the notions of reward and free will, the nature of the benefit and the organisational setting (Davis Smith 2000). These will be discussed further, including debates about the extent to which each characteristic is accepted as being within the scope of volunteerism. There will also be an exploration of other characteristics that may constitute forms of volunteering.

It is widely accepted that the provision of monetary or material rewards preclude an activity from the scope of volunteering (Musick & Wilson 2008; Wilson 2012). The distinction between volunteering and paid employment is generally regarded as occurring where volunteers do not undertake the activity primarily for financial motives

or receive financial reimbursement that is remunerated to the value of the work provided (Davis Smith 2000). When financial rewards are eliminated it removes one of the more common and tangible rewards that motivate people in paid work settings. Therefore it is appropriate to focus on the intangible rewards that offer a potential motivation for volunteers. The most apparent of these is altruism. Altruism is frequently cited as a factor which prompts people to volunteer, through a desire to help and do good for others (Rehberg 2005). It would be simplistic to restrict volunteering to activities that are exclusively driven by altruism, thereby eliminating the wide range of volunteering activities which involve self-interest (Bussell & Forbes 2002; Rehberg 2005). Given the diverse functions of volunteering, the instance of pure altruism in volunteering, to the exclusion of other personal or social rewards, is rare (Clary et al. 1998). As motivations alongside altruism, self-interested functions may include those that offer ego protection and enhancement, the acquisition of skills that are advantageous to the volunteer's academic or career advancement of the volunteer (Clary, Snyder & Stukas 1996).

Most definitions view volunteering and compulsion as mutually exclusive (Clary, Snyder & Stukas 1996). Exempting free will from a volunteering activity transforms it into a form of forced labour, with mandatory fulfilment as a criterion to avoid further sanction. Such mandatory 'volunteering' can include community activities that are imposed by institutions or organisations as a condition of acceptance or continued employment, or obligatory activities for some members of society as recompense for legal problems (Snyder & Omoto 2008). The key distinction between mandatory volunteering and organisational volunteering – particularly taking the forms of service learning or corporate volunteering – is the notion of free will. There are two categories of service learning and corporate volunteering – individual-led and organisation-led.

The former is more likely to involve free will and an absence of compulsion, while the latter may involve obligations arising from one's association with the organisation (Bussell & Forbes 2002). This illustrates a grey area in the debate about the recognition of particular activities within volunteering. A range of motivations that draw upon subtle social or relational social obligations drive people to volunteer - social pressure is a main driver of actualising volunteering intentions (Grube & Piliavin 2000; Lee & Brudney 2012; Penner 2004). This emphasis on free will excludes overt coercive activities from typical perceptions of volunteering (Davis Smith 2000), and is important as it provides a stronger valuation of the contribution of such activities (Handy et al. 2000), particularly in the absence of financial remuneration.

The volunteering activity must benefit someone other than the volunteer if it is to be differentiated from other leisure-focused voluntary activities such as hobbies (Davis Smith 2000). Where individuals pursue a hobby with an institution that is without coercion or remuneration, it can only be considered as volunteering if the benefits extend further than the individual (Handy et al. 2000). The debate regarding this characteristic centres around those people who qualify as further beneficiaries of volunteering and their free will. It is generally accepted that volunteers and their beneficiaries should not have an existing relationship prior to the commencement of the volunteering; such relationships would lead to qualification as care-giving, arguably a very different concept from volunteering, even if it is pro-social in nature (Kinney & Stephens 1989; Omoto & Snyder 1995; Revenson & Majerowtiz 1990). Furthermore, the acceptance of help from potential beneficiaries is an important characteristic brought up by Snyder and Omoto (2008). Recipients of volunteer services tend to be social movements seeking to expand awareness and action, or people who have approached service organisations in search of help and assistance. This aspect of

volunteerism precludes those who perform activities that satisfy the other three characteristics, but towards *harmful* ends. In this case there is a focus on those who provide services with good intentions for *positive* consequences.

The need for organisational involvement in volunteering has been widely debated in defining the act of volunteering. While there are few objections to the inclusion of volunteerism that occurs through formal volunteer organisations such as animal shelters, helping activities carried out on a one-to-one basis may also be considered as simplistic forms of volunteerism (Snyder & Omoto 2008). Although volunteers may choose to undertake volunteering activities as individuals, there are also instances in which the public, corporate or educational sectors may organise volunteering activities (Davis Smith 2000; Hustinx, Handy & Cnaan 2010; Wilson 2012). The nature of organisational involvement in volunteering should not affect whether the relevant activities are classified as volunteering, except in the case of organisations which compel participation, thereby violating the principle of free will that should apply to volunteering. Such activities should be precluded from consideration.

Even though these four characteristics are generally regarded as being a core of volunteering, others have also entered the debate, particularly when volunteerism is differentiated from other pro-social actions. In particular, it has been argued that the deliberation behind acts of volunteering is integral to whether they fit under the auspices of volunteerism (Snyder & Omoto 2008). Snyder and Omoto (2008) assert that volunteering is a conscious decision, in contrast to ‘emergency helping’, a reflexive act of helping that fulfils some of the other characteristics mentioned above. Such deliberation, assumed to be absent or negligible in emergency helping, is associated with the costs that a volunteer may incur when carrying out volunteering

duties, thereby emphasising the act of volunteering as a cost to volunteers instead of one from which they can profit.

The issues of duration and commitment fit within the debate on deliberation and were identified as a defining feature of volunteerism by Snyder and Omoto (2008). The authors contended that volunteer activities must be delivered over a period of time – extending over weeks, months and years – thereby signifying deliberation through commitment. This is also supported by Stebbins (2001) in describing volunteerism as a form of serious leisure, in which the commitment to serious leisure activities is characterised by the time costs and effort required over a period of time. In contrast to this view, more recent studies have recognised participant commitment to volunteering as an evolving relationship that is affected by the life stage of the volunteer, as well as the volunteer career of the individual (Musick & Wilson 2008). Life and volunteer experiences are factors which affect the individual's intention to start and continue volunteering. Young volunteers are more receptive to high-risk volunteer activities such as political activism, which require more time, a commodity which becomes scarce later in the adult life (Musick & Wilson 2008). They are also moved to volunteer by the prospect of interpersonal relationships which can often result from participating in activities with like-minded peers (Omoto, Snyder & Martino 2000). Older volunteers are less motivated by the need for interpersonal relationships, and more by service or community obligation concerns (Omoto, Snyder & Martino 2000).

The assertion that only sustained volunteer activity should be recognised under the umbrella of volunteerism is challenged by the rising popularity of episodic volunteering. This form of volunteering is a by-product of the increasing demands on daily life, which have served to reduce the amount of discretionary time (Dunn, Chambers & Hyde 2015; Handy, Brodeur & Cnaan 2006; Lockstone et al. 2009). Episodic volunteering

can involve short-term projects that take place over a day or a few days, or take the form of project-based volunteering, defined by Stebbins (2005) as short-term, moderately complicated, one-off or occasional involvements. Examples of project-based volunteering include volunteer tourism, volunteering at a sport competition or for disaster relief (Stebbins 2005). Therefore the period of time over which volunteer activities are conducted should not affect their inclusion as a form of volunteerism.

In a set of explanatory notes that define volunteering, Volunteering Australia includes another important criterion for volunteering – it should neither be exploitative nor a substitute for a paid position (Volunteering Australia 2015). In situations where an unpaid person performs the job functions of a renumerated employee, it can be considered cannibalisation or a form of forced labour (Davis Smith 1999). In this regard, volunteering as a measure to plug the service gaps left by the public and private sectors becomes distorted, as its role should not be one of replacement but of augmentation.

Despite providing these defining characteristics, volunteering is a complex phenomenon and a challenge to measure by virtue of the wide varieties of activities it encompasses (Hustinx, Handy & Cnaan 2010). This is acknowledged by Snyder and Omoto (2008), Wilson (2012) and Cnaan, Handy and Wadsworth (1996), in addition to other authors, who point out that the imprecise definitions of volunteering reflect 'real world' realities, where qualification as a volunteer is affected by the degree of help rendered. Aside from the difficulties of defining its activities, the diversity in what it means to each volunteer also contributes to its complexity (Handy et al. 2000). Thus in psychological and sociological terms, the exact definition of volunteering can seem fluid and difficult to grasp, even for those who study it. The activity of volunteering can appear confounding to those who value economic activities, as it does not appear to

fit into a typical incentive structure that encourages activity through financial remuneration (Hustinx, Handy & Cnaan 2010). However, Salamon, Sokolowski and Haddock (2011) have attempted to quantify the economic contribution volunteering makes globally, estimating its valuation at over US$100 billion in 2005. This indicates the value of its contribution to modern society in general, particularly if volunteering is to be seen as a third sector – as differentiated from the public and for-profit sectors – providing essential services that would be otherwise neglected by the other two sectors (Davis Smith 1999; Lyons 2001).

### 2.2.2 The multi-disciplinary nature of volunteering

The phenomenon of volunteering has been examined by researchers emanating from a wide range of disciplines, particularly in the case of psychology, sociology and economics (Wilson 2012). The emphasis from a psychological perspective tends towards intra-psychic phenomenon associated with motivation and personality traits. Sociological perspectives, however, tend to be split into the individual, socio-demographic characteristics that are prevalent across volunteer populations, as well as the ecological variables such as social networks and community characteristics that define them. While the psychological perspective concentrates on the internal motivation and the sociological perspective examines the meaning of volunteering activities in relation to the environment external to the volunteer, these are not conflicting perspectives as it has been shown that motivation alone may not be sufficient to spur people to volunteer (Musick & Wilson 2008). It is usually pressure or persuasion from others which transforms motivation to action (Barraket et al. 2013). Lastly, economic theories tend to view the volunteer force as a form of unpaid labour which consumes resources as a paid labour force would, but is motivated by the promise of non-monetary rewards (Salamon, Sokolowski and Haddock 2011).

In a social or political context, volunteering is commonly viewed as an expression of solidarity, social cohesion and democracy – principles considered to be fundamental to society (Putnam 2000; Wuthnow 1998). Organised volunteer activity participation is an indicator of volunteers' pro-social personality types, particularly in contrast to non-volunteers (Musick & Wilson 2008), and is generally undertaken by those of higher social and economic status (Riecken, Babakus & Yavas 1994). One of the theories proposed in relation to this trend is Attachment Theory, which predicts that people will be more likely to invest time and energy in dealing with others' needs when they feel reasonably secure themselves (Salamon, Sokolowski & Haddock 2011; Wilson 2000, 2012). Their motivations tend towards a biographical and self-expressive notion of identity-creation in the broader process of human development, at the expense of collective frames of reference (Inglehart & Welzel 2005). The use of such activities and interactions to express one's identity is generally referred to as Identity Theory (McCall & Simmons 1966; Stryker 1968), and can be an important motivator in achieving congruence between one's self perception and actions.

As a result of this self-expressive approach towards volunteering, many volunteers seek experiences and conditions that are in line with the motivation, occasion and opportunity of their particular biographical stage or situation, resulting in a mix of motivations and willingness to volunteer at different life stages (Hustinx, Handy & Cnaan 2010). Despite the prevalence of volunteering with formal organisations, informal volunteering is undertaken more frequently in developing countries such as South Africa and Mexico, where it is less likely to be led by established organisations and associations (Butcher 2010). In volunteering and giving, they are generally influenced by a mix of solidarity and friendship – which is more evident in rural areas

than industrialised ones – and obligation born of religious beliefs and family ties, as well as political push factors such as authoritarian rule (Butcher 2010).

Regardless of population, cultural background or the forms of volunteering that are adopted, there are motivations common across volunteers. Primarily, volunteers are motivated by altruism (Bussell & Forbes 2002), where the reward is intrinsic to the act. Altruism has been shown to exist across a variety of volunteer activity and volunteer life stages (Okun 1994; Unger 1991). Aside from this, social and psychological goals also play an important role in motivating volunteers (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen 1991). These include community benefits, fulfilment of affiliation needs, the possibility of prestige from perceived advantages as a result of volunteering, as well as skills development (Bussell & Forbes 2002; Caldwell & Andereck 1994). A more comprehensive list of these motivations is provided in Table 1.

**Table 1: Reasons for volunteering**

| Reasons for volunteering | Sources |
|---|---|
| For a cause that I am interested in serving | Batson, Ahmad & Tsang 2002; Clary et al. 1998; Dolnicar & Randle 2007; Flanagan & Levine 2010 |
| As an opportunity to interact with like-minded individuals (other volunteers) | Bussell & Forbes 2002; Caldwell & Andereck 1994; Prestby et al. 1990; Wymer, Riecken & Yavas 1997 |
| As an opportunity to get to know those I volunteer for | Wharton 1991; Wymer, Riecken & Yavas 1997 |
| As an opportunity to contribute to my local community | Batson, Ahmad & Tsang 2002; Bussell & Forbes 2002; Warburton & Gooch 2007 |
| If it is a convenient commitment that fits easily into my schedule | Bussell & Forbes 2002; Wymer, Riecken & Yavas 1997 |
| If it requires a skill or area of knowledge that I already possess | Bussell & Forbes 2002; Lee & Brudney 2012; Wymer, Riecken & Yavas 1997 |
| If it allows me to develop a skill I am keen on | Batson, Ahmad & Tsang 2002; Bussell & Forbes 2002; Clary et al. 1998 |
| If it allows me to see the direct impact of my volunteering efforts on the beneficiary | Batson, Ahmad & Tsang 2002; Wymer, Riecken & Yavas 1997 |
| If it is an opportunity to volunteer with a reputable community organisation | Bussell & Forbes 2002 |
| To model the behaviours I would like to see in those around me (for children, siblings etc.) | Lee & Brudney 2012 |
| If I am invited by relatives, friends or organisations to volunteer | Clary et al. 1998; Okun & Eisenberg 1992; Wymer, Riecken & Yavas 1997 |
| If it helps me find employment | Clary et al. 1998; Lee & Brudney 2012 |
| If it earns me academic credits | Lee & Brudney 2012 |

Several theories and models have been proposed as frameworks to help understand the role that volunteer values and motives play in determining their pro-social attitudes and participation in volunteering. These include Batson, Ahmad and Tsang's (2002) four motives involving egoism, altruism, collectivism and principalism, the Volunteer Process Model (Omoto & Snyder 1995), the Theory of Unified Responsibility (Dutta-Bergman 2004) and the Volunteer Functions Inventory ('VFI') (Clary et al. 1998; Clary, Snyder & Stukas 1996). The most commonly utilised amongst these theories and models is the VFI, which goes beyond describing motivations to ascribing the functionality behind them.

The VFI was developed by applying functionalist theory to the study of motivations related to volunteerism, with the authors positing that people maintain their volunteer behaviours if one or more individual needs are fulfilled (Clary et al. 1998). The fundamental assumption underpinning the VFI is that all persons have the same basic psychological needs, even though they may not necessarily choose the same means for satisfying them (Musick & Wilson 2008). The VFI proposes six motivational functions of volunteering that fulfil such needs – Values, Understanding, Career, Social, Protective and Esteem – some of which were discussed earlier (Clary et al. 1998). These are useful in providing insight into the functions which volunteerism plays in the lives of volunteers. The Values function provides an opportunity for individuals to express values related to altruism and humanitarian concern for others, while the understanding function is served by the interactions and opportunities to exercise knowledge, skills and abilities that might otherwise go unpractised (Clary et al. 1998). Volunteering offers the chance to connect with friends and the like-minded, thereby serving the Social function, or the chance to develop skills that could advance the professional aspects of volunteers' lives, fulfilling the Career function. The last two

functions are complementary functions which serve to protect and enhance the ego. While the Protective function concerns itself with ego defensiveness (Katz 1960) – protecting the ego from negative aspects of the self – the Enhancement function develops positive strivings of the ego (Clary et al. 1998).

Although the VFI provides a unifying framework for understanding and studying motivations, a major criticism of its practicality is that these functions may not be easily separable or identifiable to volunteers. Furthermore, it stands to reason that if motivations change over a volunteer's life course (Musick & Wilson 2008; Omoto, Snyder & Martino 2000), it could also be symptomatic of a shift in the functions that volunteerism fulfils over time and age. Thus far, there has been no long term longitudinal study tracking the individual changes in VFI over different life stages, though a shorter longitudinal study (two and a half years) has shown that the fulfilment of motivations is a strong predictor of longer active service (Omoto & Snyder 1995). Despite these criticisms, the VFI has been widely tested and validated in areas such as tourism (Anderson & Cairncross 2005), sports organisations (Kim, Zhang & Connaughton 2010) and online market research volunteer participation (Vocino & Polonsky 2011). Many of these motivations are applicable to the volunteer the phenomenon's popularity.

Regardless of the theoretical frameworks through which volunteer motivations may be viewed, a number of studies have shown that temporal, social and economic capital are important factors affecting volunteer recruitment (Sundeen, Raskoff & Garcia 2007). The availability of time has often been cited as a barrier to volunteering that is inextricably linked to other competing activities such as work, study and socialising (Wilson 2000). The perception of time as a scarce resource in modern lifestyles leads volunteering to be viewed as yet another item to be wedged in between other less-

optional activities, with convenient volunteering opportunities becoming more welcome than longer-term commitments (Davidhizar & Bowen 1995).

Social capital encompasses relationships with family, friends and co-workers formed through networks of trust and common values (Putnam 2000). The costs of volunteering are typically borne by the individual, thereby rendering volunteering an unsound choice for utilitarians in that the benefits are overwhelmingly enjoyed by others instead of the volunteer. However, the benefit of volunteers' contribution to their networks and social relationships tend to outweigh the costs to the individual (Freeman 1997; Lee & Brudney 2012; Putnam 2000). Augmenting this social capital perspective is the importance of being asked to volunteer, particularly by people within one's social networks, as it increases the social acceptability of undertaking volunteer work, thereby increasing the probability of volunteering significantly (Davidhizar & Bowen 1995; Freeman 1997; Pearce 1993; Sundeen, Raskoff & Garcia 2007; Sundeen & Raskoff 2003). Economic resources, encompassing the ability to bear costs associated with volunteering such as transportation or out of pocket expenses, are also viewed as key barriers to participating in volunteering (Musick, Wilson & Bynum 2000; Sundeen, Raskoff & Garcia 2007; Wuthnow 2004)

Aside from the macro perspective of the abovementioned forms of capital, the trifecta of desire, opportunity and suitability are significant when examining volunteer recruitment. In order to invoke the desire to volunteer, individuals must identify benefits that are important to them. These could include the accumulation of social capital (Lee & Brudney 2012), contributing to extended relationship networks through familial obligations (Putnam 2000) or a sense of identity and purpose (Musick & Wilson 2008). The latter, an extension of the earlier mentioned Identity Theory (McCall & Simmons 1966; Stryker 1968), motivates people to volunteer through the alignment of volunteer

activities with the expression of their self and values (Davidhizar & Bowen 1995). The availability of volunteer opportunities that are aligned with personal identities is therefore important to stimulate successful recruitment of volunteers. The suitability of volunteer positions and tasks to the volunteer has been shown to not only aid recruitment of volunteers, but also contribute to volunteer retention (Davidhizar & Bowen 1995; Sundeen, Raskoff & Garcia 2007). The role of management has been emphasised in this area, particularly in clearly defining volunteer roles, thereby increasing the probability of volunteers remaining in service with an organisation (Finkelstein 2008; Souza & Dhami 2008; Stukas et al. 2009).

### 2.2.3 Trends in volunteer participation

While motivations may change over time, as an activity, volunteering has endured but continues to evolve. These trends reflect the lifestyle and structural changes which have re-framed the way in which volunteering is viewed by existing volunteers, potential volunteers and the public. One major factor that has affected volunteer participation is the rising popularity and visibility of CSR practices, which are now accepted in the private sector. Be it participating in company-supported projects or the company providing support for employees to participate in community projects, employer-supported volunteering has contributed as a direct channel through which people can volunteer (Meinhard, Handy & Greenspan 2009). This has widened the avenues through which people can volunteer and provided more opportunities to build volunteering into one's life.

The way in which volunteers commit to volunteering has also changed as time pressures reduce the amount of time potential volunteers have to commit to volunteering (Hustinx, Handy & Cnaan 2010; Stebbins 2001) and reduce the attachments volunteers once had to organisations volunteered for. Episodic

volunteering has become more popular (Cnaan & Handy 2005). It is characterised by volunteering commitments that are short term or specific in nature, thereby relieving volunteers of the perceived burden that long term, committed volunteering may evoke. There has been a progressive shift away from collective volunteering through third-sector organisations, which contributed to the sense of community that was experienced by the volunteers (Cnaan & Handy 2005). The shift is reflected in a commensurate increase in more individualistic and reflexive forms of volunteering (Hustinx & Lammertyn 2003).

These shifts are indicative of the overall trend towards co-opting external activities that represent the inner interests and needs of the individual. This shift has prompted participation in alternative forms of volunteering that may not fit the mould of more traditional forms of volunteering which require a physical presence. These forms include virtual volunteering and volunteer tourism (Cnaan & Handy 2005). Virtual volunteering, which is undertaken online and can include tasks such as translating, managing online website content and online mentoring, is primarily embraced by technologically savvy youths (Hustinx, Handy & Cnaan 2010). It has afforded those previously less likely to leave their comfort zone to volunteer, such as introverts and those who are housebound, a chance to contribute to causes which matter to them. The trend of episodic volunteering has also directly contributed to the popularity of volunteer tourism (Sherraden, Lough & McBride 2008) in that it is a finite commitment and therefore boosting its attractiveness to potential volunteers.

In light of the evolving involvement in volunteering and the positive effects which accrue to both the individual and society, it is important to examine how volunteers can be encouraged to start or continue volunteering. Instead of attempting to attract volunteers indiscriminately from the population at large, a more targeted approach

may yield better results (Randle & Dolnicar 2009). Forming a connection with related activities that are prompted by similar motivations may offer one method. Such a study was undertaken on spontaneous volunteering in disaster situations that examined the organisation and policy responses encouraging volunteering beyond singular disasters (Barraket et al. 2013). The study found that issuing a request was a powerful tool to stimulate participation in both spontaneous volunteering and sustainable volunteering beyond the crisis period (Barraket et al. 2013). This was particularly powerful when initiated by people who were close to volunteers, leaders and institutions that were recognised as being 'in charge' of a particular situation, and established associations that encouraged connections that kept people updated. It also found that past experience encouraged volunteers to get involved, but that sustained civic engagement required conscientious volunteer engagement based on the individual needs of the volunteer beyond the crisis. While spontaneous volunteering may have therapeutic effects on volunteers, strategies which provide more consistent therapy may be required to ensure more effective engagement.

Lastly, the power of story-telling through personal relationships and media emerged as an important motivator for future volunteering and as an essential component of the healing process associated with collective volunteering (Barraket et al. 2013). Aside from strategies to attract new volunteers, targeting existing related activities to build upon existing propensities to volunteer may also present an opportunity for volunteer organisations. In the context of this thesis, volunteer tourism, which encompasses many of the motivations driving volunteerism, is viewed as a niche form of volunteerism. Volunteer tourism, as a planned rather than spontaneous activity, may similarly function as a conduit for more sustained civic engagement through local volunteering.

### 2.2.4 The effects of volunteering on the volunteer

Volunteering, whether spontaneous or planned, is one of a number of prosocial behaviours performed for the benefit of others (Penner et al. 2005). These have been shown to have a positive effect on volunteers' worldviews (Haski-Leventhal & Bargal 2008) and human resilience to stress (Hein 2013). It has been shown that the volunteer experience is subtly transformational, with individual perceptions on social gaps altered through their volunteer experiences (Haski-Leventhal & Bargal 2008; Wilson & Musick 1999). This suggests that experience tempers and limits the idealism that may drive people to volunteer, providing a more complete picture of how access to resources and social status may impact the formation of normative models of living (Haski-Leventhal & Bargal 2008). This complete picture and contribution to societal well-being, in turn, stimulates further volunteer participation as a form of social belonging (Clary & Snyder 1999).

The longer term psychological benefits of prosocial behaviours have been regarded as part of the arsenal against the health-threatening effects of stress. The negative demands the modern lifestyle, ranging from work obligations to financial worries, may be mitigated by the oxytocin that is released in response to the social interactions arising from volunteering. Oxytocin is a neuropeptide popularly referred to as the 'cuddle hormone' for its role in enhancing social behaviour (Baber 2011). In turn, it is associated with reducing drug abuse and chronic stress (Tops et al. 2014). It is particularly evident in the case of older volunteers exhibiting other-oriented motivations to volunteer (Greenfield & Marks 2004; Konrath et al. 2012; Okun, Yeung & Brown 2013). While stress resilience is negatively impacted by chronic stress and a lack of physical activity – both classic descriptors of the modern lifestyles of many – prosocial behaviours such as volunteering have been proposed as counteractive measures. Not

only does the building of stress resilience reduce the risk of early death (Krueger & Chang 2008), it also improves the prospective quality of life (Lawford & Eiser 2001; Wilson & Musick 1999). Thus it is worthwhile to encourage volunteering, not just as a form of social capital, but also as an individual measure to improve one's quality of life.

To understand the volunteer tourism experience and the expectations which volunteer tourists levy on it, it is imperative that the tourism and volunteerism context are explored. The above discussion on tourism and volunteerism has provided this context. The following section will discuss volunteer tourism in detail, exploring its allure and existential tensions to provide a comprehensive picture of what is understood by volunteer tourism in its contemporary form, relating it to the current research focused on volunteer tourist expectations.

## 2.3 Volunteer tourism

The proposition seems attractive enough: travel overseas, contribute to the host community and feel good about doing it. In modern times when multi-tasking is seen to be a virtue, the ability to kill two birds with one stone is highly prized. Thus the main value propositions of volunteer tourism – helping others while exploring a new region – can be easily seen as attractive to the modern traveller. Trends in research and practice provide support for this, with an increase in the academic literature examining this phenomenon (McGehee 2014; McGehee & Andereck 2009) and a market that is estimated to include more than 1.6 million volunteer tourists a year (Tourism Research and Marketing Group 2008).

While the motives which spur volunteer tourists into participating in such programs include altruism and a genuine desire to contribute to the economy of the destination, they also include self-interested goals such as personal growth and professional

development (Wearing 2001). Seeming to be contradictory on the surface, these motivations can in fact produce an additive effect in motivating volunteer tourists, as will be discussed later in this section.

### 2.3.1 The key stakeholders in volunteer tourism

To develop a better understanding of the main protagonists involved in the volunteer tourism phenomenon, it is helpful to compare the key players in tourism, volunteering and volunteer tourism. The main players in volunteer tourism are commonly referred to as volunteer tourists, just as the main tourism agencies describe visitors as tourists when examining the tourism phenomenon (UNWTO 2008). The recipient party of the act of volunteer tourism is commonly referred to as the 'host community' (Zahra & McGehee 2013). While the same term is used in the case of tourism (Ashworth 2003), the corollary in volunteerism is 'beneficiary' or 'client' (Omoto & Snyder 2002). The other key stakeholder of volunteer tourism programs, aside from volunteer tourists and host communities, is the sending organisation. 'Volunteer tourism organisations' (Benson & Henderson 2010) or 'sending organisations' (Raymond 2008) are intermediaries that perform a matching and placement role that resembles the roles that travel agencies and volunteer organisations play in tourism volunteerism respectively (Omoto & Snyder 2002). Examples of sending organisations include NGOs, educational institutions and for-profit operators. For the purposes of the discussion on volunteer tourism, there will be frequent reference to the terms 'volunteer tourists', 'host community' and 'sending organisations'.

Just as there are a range of stakeholders involved, the definitions of volunteer tourism are similarly diverse, variously shining the spotlight on the effects volunteer tourism programs have on the tourist, the host community members, and the activities involved. This section firstly provides a discussion on the diverse definitions of volunteer tourism

in relation to their applicability to this study on expectations and behavioural intentions. The motivations of volunteer tourists, the benefits received and negative impacts that may inadvertently result will be elaborated upon. With the understanding of these aspects, a critical analysis will be undertaken to throw light on the conflicting perceptions and realities surrounding this form of tourism and volunteering, contributing to the debate associated with it.

Weaver's (2006) work on mass and alternative tourism, as discussed earlier in this chapter, supports the shift away from the packaged tours and contrived environments of mass travel to alternative forms, such as ecotourism, adventure travel and volunteer tourism. These alternatives are considered preferable to the mass tourism model because they purport to take into account the carrying capacities and social impacts of travel on the destination as a part of their execution. As a part of the global citizenry that has come to the forefront of consciousness in recent times, tourists are increasingly attracted to forms of travel which promise to entertain while minimising negative impact on the destination. It is on the back of this mindset that the phenomenon of volunteer tourism continues to prosper, having developed from preceding international volunteering programs such as the Peace Corps (VolunTourism.org 2012a). It is also seen to be contributing to the host community while operating as a feel-good mission for the tourist. Arising from this idealistic notion is a myriad of expectations which volunteer tourists hold on to in evaluating their experiences. In holding on to such expectations, volunteer tourists may be inspired or inhibited by their trip experiences to participate in further activities that contribute to the betterment of their environment or global citizenry.

While exploring the subject of changing expectations of volunteer tourists, the researcher is aware that the volunteer tourism experience is a dynamic and evolving

one. Although it is tempting to portray volunteer tourism as an ideal form of travel, this is certainly simplistic and idealistic. As much of the literature on volunteer tourism demonstrates, there are areas which require improvement in the volunteer tourism sector. The definitions of volunteer tourism will be scrutinised in the first instance, with a debate on the suitability of each definition for the purposes of this study.

### 2.3.2 Defining volunteer tourism

The academic definitions of volunteer tourism have hitherto been viewed predominantly through the eyes of the volunteer tourist. One possible explanation for this could be the unique experience of volunteer tourism as a form of travel and volunteering amongst others. Travel has long been viewed as an attempt to escape the physical and mental pressures of a post-industrial society (Cohen & Taylor 1976) and has been centred on the self. Cohen and Taylor (1976) claimed that holiday travel was a tourist's attempt at manipulating his well-being, thereby putting the self as foremost in all considerations.

In shifting towards alternatives to mass tourism such as adventure tourism, ecotourism and volunteer tourism, academic analysis began to adjust its gaze away from the selves of tourists towards the destination, transforming specific geographic sites into attractions judged on the authenticity of their offerings (Urry 1990). Applying these perspectives to volunteer tourism, volunteer tourists could be said to be seeking escape from their everyday pressures while ostensibly playing an important role as meaningful co-creators of their experiences in a foreign land (Wearing 2002). Furthermore, the process of volunteering overseas affords the volunteer tourist a chance to enrich a community and not just themselves, creating two beneficiaries in its consumption beyond the economic transactions that characterise other forms of tourism. While some have examined volunteer tourism through the lens of

conservation-based activities (Coghlan 2008; Ellis 2003; Pegg, Patterson & Matsumoto 2012), others have taken a broader perspective, including those with a socio-cultural or economic emphasis (Alexander 2012; Corti, Marola & Castro 2010; Kennedy & Dornan 2009).

It is unsurprising then, that the exploration of volunteer tourism has the potential to encompass more personal meanings from the tourist's point of view than it would from the host community's or sending organisation's perspective. As will become evident in the following discussion, the definitions of volunteer tourism have generally explored it from the tourism perspective. This bias in definitions ignores the contribution that volunteering as a parent field can make. Attempts to define volunteer tourism run the risk of being too specific, which could be detrimental in limiting the richness of study in the area if the overlaps between volunteer tourism and other areas such as service learning and cultural exchange programs are ignored. Hence a balance between specificity and generality needs to be achieved in critically analysing the definitions of volunteer tourism.

One of the earliest definitions of volunteer tourists comes from Wearing (2001) in his seminal book on volunteer tourism, wherein they are described as those who volunteer in an organised way to undertake holidays that may involve aiding or alleviating the material poverty of some groups in society, the restoration of certain environments or research into aspects of society or the environment. This is an early attempt to narrow the activities of volunteer tourism into three classifications that are easy to understand, namely social, economic and environmental. It also implies specific notions associated with each of these categories, such as associating 'aid' with the economic, while 'research' is used for both social and environmental, and 'restoration' is only associated with the environmental category. While alleviation of material poverty and

research can be easily understood, the ‘restoration of certain environments’ invites questions about its vague nature. It is not apparent whether the phrase refers to social or natural environments, and offers no guide as to which ‘certain environments’ are considered valid for restoration in this definition of volunteer tourism. While it is a popular definition as utilised by various researchers including Coghlan (2008), Gray and Campbell (2007), and Lyons and Wearing (2008), it does not appear to be a definition that can be easily applied.

Proposing a different perspective, McGehee and Santos (2005) used a definition that simply refers to volunteer tourists as those who utilise discretionary time and income to go out of the regular sphere of activity to assist others in need. In broadening this definition, the focus on specific activities is diminished and is instead replaced by the general notion of helping others. This more relaxed definition encompasses a much wider range of activities than the versions discussed previously, while retaining the notion of removing the self from regular circumstances in order to assist others. It also emphasises that there is an upfront and conscious choice that volunteer tourists make in committing personal resources to the activity of helping those who are in need. However, this also contributes ambiguity of the definition, because this qualifies other forms of international aid providers, such as disaster personnel, as volunteer tourists when they are seldom regarded as leisure travellers.

Using grounded theory, based on questionnaire responses from volunteer tourists and supplemented by academic literature, testimonials and various media outlets, Alexander and Bakir (2010) used ‘engagement in volunteer work as a tourist’ (p.11) to explain the purposeful connection to particular peoples and places involved in volunteer tourism. This is a simple and straightforward explanation of volunteer tourism that is not weighed down by attempts to classify the activities included therein.

But this definition could be seen to put tourism and travel activities at its centre while relegating volunteer work to a supplementary function. This takes a predominantly touristic point of view, placing volunteer tourism as one of many activities that can be chosen as a subset of tourism. The reverse, that the international travel component could be a secondary consideration to the volunteer focus, is then neglected in this definition. Furthermore, it does not clarify the activities of volunteerism or tourism, choosing to use its constituent words in the definition, thereby providing no illumination for an audience that may not be familiar with either phenomenon. However, for the purposes of explaining volunteer tourism to those unfamiliar with it, this may be a clear and succinct summary of the phenomenon.

In examining Mexican communities, McGehee and Andereck (2009) utilised a more industry-focused definition of volunteer tourism, proposed originally by the website VolunTourism.org and seemingly more idealistic in its expression. It is defined as ‘an integrated combination of voluntary service to a destination and the best, traditional elements of travel – arts, culture, geography, history and recreation – in that destination’ (VolunTourism.org 2012b). While the earlier academic definitions discussed in this section were based on practice and mostly descriptive in nature, the VolunTourism.org definition is an ideal vision of how volunteer tourism programs ought to be organised. This can be inferred from its use of words such as ‘seamlessly’ and ‘best’, which are not realistically always present in volunteer tourism experiences. This definition places emphasis on the deliberation that should be present in combining both volunteering and travel, and accepts that both these aspects may not be discrete in the way such programs are experienced. While it does not attempt to classify the activities which fall under volunteer tourism, it does identify the travel elements which fall under the area of travel. Perhaps this is an indication that the travel industry

recognises that each component of tourism or volunteering is just as important as the other in the case of volunteer tourism.

The definitions as critiqued each have strengths in defining volunteer tourism, while presenting particular ambiguities that may affect their application. This thesis will be primarily refer to the Wearing (2001) definition of volunteer tourists. As this study will examine the changing expectations of volunteer tourists over the course of their participation in volunteer tourism programs, this definition is most relevant in emphasising the expectations of volunteer tourists in regard to the experiences and activities they hope to undertake in their volunteer tourism programs. The duality associated with the motivations of volunteer tourists is especially pertinent to the forming of their expectations when embarking on a volunteer tourism program, which will be discussed later when scrutinising the tensions that arise from this form of tourism.

Academic definitions are not the only parameters which can be applied to volunteer tourism; it can also be examined in relation to its individual components. Typically, as its name suggests, volunteer tourism involves some form of travel, be it overseas or to a region not usually frequented by the tourist. While volunteer tourism typically evokes images of traveling overseas to exotic locations to carry out volunteer work, domestic travel volunteering is also receiving some attention. This phenomenon is particularly applicable to countries which have a large landmass, such as Australia, and encompasses a myriad of volunteer activities. Some examples include volunteering for major events (Holmes et al. 2010; Nichols & Ralston 2014; Smith, Wolf & Lockstone-Binney 2014) or organic farm volunteering such as in the case of World Wide Opportunities on Organic Farms (WWOOF), which provide food and accommodation in exchange for farm labour (McIntosh & Bonnemann 2006; Miller &

Mair 2015). Others, such as ‘grey nomads’, may choose to give back to communities they have interacted with along their self-drive journeys (Leonard & Onyx 2009) or contribute to the continued preservation of landscapes they have enjoyed in their domestic travels (Weaver 2015). The age of domestic volunteers is usually associated with the types of volunteer activity in which they engage. Younger demographics may, for example, travel to volunteer by WWOOFing or at music festivals whilst older domestic travel volunteers prefer to undertake community-enhancing projects such as assisting historical preservation, sharing their personal histories with younger children and helping Aboriginal community projects (Leonard & Onyx 2009). Though not remunerated, such activities requires relocation and for the volunteer to cover the associated travel expenses. This emphasis on travel as an integral part of volunteer tourism is crucial to its examination, as it is not immune to the issues affecting other forms of tourism. Such issues include the tourist’s perception of the host community, an important point of debate that is examined later in this chapter. Further, the volunteering component plays a major role in defining this sector.

While there is general consensus that some formal activity of help is included in the travel itinerary, there is much debate about what level and duration of help qualifies a program as volunteer tourism. The attempts of Callanan and Thomas (2005) have been integral to initiate the debate on classifying volunteer tourism programs, with recommendations to view such programs on a continuum of shallow to deep depending on factors such as the level of involvement expected of participants, the inclusion of hosts in program planning and various other criteria, which signal the commitment and abilities required of participants. Based on the interactions between commitments required of volunteer tourists and the benefits to host communities, Ong et al. (2014) also proposed a stakeholder matrix. This matrix proposed four types of

volunteer tourism program classifications based on these interactions, and was applicable to sending organisations and volunteer tourists alike in aiding evaluation and positioning efforts within the sector. Beyond these proposed forms of classification to aid understanding of the sector, volunteer tourism's popularity continues to develop for reasons beyond the explanations purportedly covered in these frameworks. These reasons are explored in the following section.

### 2.3.3 The rising popularity of volunteer tourism

When analysing the experiences of volunteer tourists, one could start from the tourist's psychological perspective. In borrowing the concept of a Travel Career Pattern from Pearce and Lee (2005), which was discussed earlier in this chapter, there are needs that are variously fulfilled by different forms of travel. Examining volunteer tourists using this concept, it can be argued that the higher order needs such as self-esteem and fulfilment figure highly on the list of motivations for volunteer tourists (Poon 1993; Urry & Larsen 2011). These are particularly relevant to the rising trend of co-opting resources as a form of self-expression, such as the purchase of particular goods that are congruent with one's actual or aspirational self-image (Schau 2000). The trend is particularly evident in the case of special interest tourism, where the mix of travel with another important aspect of the self (interest or beliefs) generates a form of tourism that focuses on activities that fulfil the traveller's special interest aims. This trend of mixing other interests with travel is reflected in the rise of co-creation between tourists and locals in the tourism experience, leading to the customisation of authentic and local-led activities in tourism experiences (Binkhorst 2009). The need to differentiate the self from the masses manifests itself in market offerings such as bespoke services and provides an insight into the consumer mindset which influences a portion of modern tourists (Schau 2000). It strengthens the position taken in this study that self-

expression takes precedence in volunteer tourism by tracking the behavioural intentions which result from experience in volunteer tourism, a form of global citizen action.

Consciousness of materialism as a criticism of modern consumer behaviour could also be an explanation for the changing patterns of consumption in tourism. Studies have shown that materialism is associated with buying products which confer a specific status on the consumer (Goldsmith & Clark 2012). It creates an urge within consumers to be status conscious such as to stimulate buying behaviour associated with such statuses. The heavy criticism materialism has attracted has affected the way in which consumers view their personal consumption (Ger & Belk 1999), with some consumers seeking to distance themselves from materialism by consciously avoiding choices that lead to heightened statuses. Such independence from materialism in volunteer tourism can trigger a further expectation of continuity and tangible, quantifiable benefits for the intended beneficiaries in place of the objects conspicuously consumed. Such conscious change in consumer behaviour could be interpreted as a form of enlightenment, though it is still argued that enlightened self-interest is still predominantly self-centred (Getty 2007).

Other consumer trends have also contributed to the increasing popularity of volunteer tourism. In this age of social responsibility, the high visibility of the disadvantaged has come to induce guilt in the affluent consumer. This juxtaposition of haves and have-nots in volunteer tourism has prompted a number of authors to comment on its propriety (Mustonen 2007; Sin 2010), the debate of which is relevant but not central to this thesis. Without arguing whether this guilt is justified or appropriate, the existence of it has prompted consumers to seek out methods of consumption that assuage their guilt (Cherrier 2007; Micheletti & Stolle 2008), a form of cosmopolitan

empathy emanating as a response to the plight of the poor (Mostafanezhad 2014). Surrounded by often-repeated phrases such as ‘social responsibility’ and ‘social enterprise’, this emphasis on making consumption ethical can be seen as a comment on the capitalist nature of most economies around the world (Gindin 2002). The rise of social responsibility in general consumer behaviour can be linked to highly publicised campaigns for manufacturing employees in less developed countries to be paid a living wage. There has also been a surge in awareness of the concept of Fair Trade and the disadvantages of capitalism for workers in developing countries, embroiling everyday goods such as clothing and chocolate in the debate about fairness (Jaffee 2008).

Volunteer tourism, and indeed tourism more generally, has not been spared scrutiny, with some authors asserting that the demands placed on host communities in catering to the needs of volunteer tourists are not as far removed from the demands colonialists placed on their colonies (Mostafanezhad 2014; Palacios 2010). This post-colonialist view stimulates guilt amongst those in developed countries, helping to drive the demand for ways to ‘give back’ to those who are less fortunate. However, in the absence of such post-colonial guilt, the phenomenon of volunteer tourism may not enjoy the popularity it now does (Mostafanezhad 2014). The efficacy of marketing using socially responsible business practices has been shown to boost sales, and as pointed out by Tomazos and Bulter (2010) as well as Tomazos and Cooper (2012), the function is similar in volunteer tourism experiences, often conferring a halo of good deeds upon volunteer tourists.

Aside from social responsibility, the concept of social justice is also pertinent to the discussion of volunteer tourist motivations. One of the consequences of advancement in technology is the widespread availability of the internet and social media tools,

which have introduced the opportunity for mass social participation in online activism (Rotman et al. 2011). Be it signing an online petition in backing a political cause or changing profile pictures on social media to signify support for worthy social causes, the accessibility of online activism has greatly widened the activist base. The audience that makes up this wider activist base has arguably also had its consciousness of international causes raised as a result (Micheletti & Stolle 2008). Online activism can also take the form of financial help, such as the use of crowd-sourced funds to support community projects or microloans which can provide the initial capital required to assist those in need. However, the ease with which one can participate in such causes has cast doubt on the effectiveness of these campaigns, given the passive involvement of participants (Walsh 2012). This critical stance has, in turn, spawned a new pejorative term, 'slacktivism'. This term reflects the contempt felt towards the online generation in taking a word rooted in activity – 'activism' – and adapting it to suit a passive medium that is not commonly associated with direct involvement (Aitamurto 2011; Rotman et al. 2011; Tatarchevskiy 2011). Positioned in relation to slacktivism, one could almost say volunteer tourism is more palatable in that it is active participation which harbours as much idealism and good intentions as online petitions (Ong et al. 2014). In contrast to online activism, which only requires a few clicks of the mouse, volunteer tourism requires one to take part in activities which are, ideally, designed to benefit those who are in need. Furthermore, active participation in overseas volunteering activities allows participants to acquire a stronger sense of their role as global citizens.

As a consequence of the growing consciousness of global citizenship and the increasing connectivity that has arisen because of technological advances, there is an opportunity to reassess the role of international development programs in community

development (Diprose 2012; Mostafanezhad 2014). Heightened awareness offers the prospect of positive contributions to development at both local and international levels (Diprose 2012; McGehee & Santos 2005). Ideally, a positive volunteer tourism experience that fulfils their expectations can spur these tourists on to other forms of activism, be it to benefit their local communities or to further contribute to global causes, a central assumption that informs this study.

Technological advances, which have contributed to the shrinking of physical and metaphorical distance between communities, could be said to provoke action amongst potential volunteer tourists. Increased accessibility to many parts of the world through air and sea travel have made overseas travel more common, driving the impetus of travel and adventure into more exotic and unusual destinations (Reinhardt 2011). Metaphorically, the distance between communities has been narrowed by the vast body of knowledge that is accessible at the click of a mouse on the internet, through popular resources such as search engine Google and internet encyclopaedia, Wikipedia. Furthermore, news outlets are no longer restricted to the daily or weekly printing cycles associated with traditional media, but can take advantage of the real-time updates expected from the internet to push breaking news to the forefront of media outlets (Atton 2003). This ability to bring issues of social justice to the attention of the general public has contributed to the increased attention to such issues. Access to projects which appeal to the potential volunteer tourist has also improved with access to the internet. With a deeper understanding of the help required, this shrinking of metaphorical distance also contributes to the general sense that the human race exists as neighbours in a shrinking community, and is therefore obliged to help each other in solidarity.

Increasingly, research has shown that individuals in most developed countries are feeling the stresses of demands on their lives and leading time-poor lifestyles (Sullivan & Gershuny 2004). This trend of time-poor lifestyles is set to continue as the push towards increasing productivity necessitates the growth in time spent on work-related issues (Sullivan & Gershuny 2004). As a consequence of this trend, activities are seen to be more advantageous if they serve multiple functions, thereby fitting multiple outcomes to a single activity. This fixation on multi-tasking can be seen in the design of consumer goods, such as smartphones which allow the user to make calls, send text messages, play games, surf the internet and play music. The seamless integration of multiple functions is considered of value to today's consumer (Appelbaum, Marchionni & Fernandez 2008). Furthermore, the modern person's commitment to social or community causes have been diminished due to the competing demands of everyday life (Dunn, Chambers & Hyde 2015). It has resulted in a reduction of participation in community activities such as volunteering and gatherings, as these are viewed as lower in priority when compared to the importance of working and earning a comfortable living (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2015; Guest 2002). In that vein, it is unsurprising that activities such as volunteering have become episodic, favoured over long-term commitments (Cnaan & Handy 2005). This trend towards episodic volunteering has been corroborated by several scholars, and has been deemed by volunteers as a suitable, non-committed fit into their schedules (Cnaan & Handy 2005; Hustinx, Handy & Cnaan 2010). In combining multi-tasking, time-poor lifestyles and even the potential for life-changing catharsis (Zahra & McIntosh 2007), volunteer tourism can be seen as an activity which satisfies multiple objectives. It is episodic in nature, requiring a commitment that is generally finite; it is also able to satisfy various needs, such as the need for travel and the impetus to help others who are in need.

Such motivations as social responsibility and consumer trends are important to the study at hand, because they inform the expectations of volunteer tourists (Andereck et al. 2012). In this context, self-actualisation and self-esteem motivations can be seen to manifest themselves in the form of altruism and the desire to do something meaningful (Lo & Lee 2011). While the former prompts the potential volunteer tourist to seek information associated with volunteering, it is the latter which can inform expectations of activities in volunteer tourism. As Darke, Ashworth and Main (2010) point out, perception is central to the expectation-disconfirmation theory that is utilised in this study. As a subjective concept, 'meaningfulness' can vary from one person to another. Along a continuum of meaningful activities in volunteer tourism, ranging from passive participation such as monetary donations to active participation such as the development of infrastructure and knowledge in the host community (Callanan & Thomas 2005), the expectations of each volunteer tourist will vary greatly. Furthermore, such expectations can be tempered by experience and available information, thereby necessitating a longitudinal examination of how these can change over the course of a trip.

### 2.3.4 The lure of volunteer tourism

The allure of volunteer tourism lies in its ability to fulfil the myriad motivations which are associated with volunteer tourists. In the following, its siren call will be examined in relation to these motivations, and its ability to fulfil them in a meaningful way will be discussed.

Help, being a basic human behaviour, is an important aspect of volunteer tourism activities. Be it for selfish gains or altruism, help has played a central role in the development of civilisation and communities, as it is the foundation for cooperative networks of reciprocity which individuals can rely on instead of working alone (Butcher

2010). Helping behaviours have been found to be more prevalent in less affluent communities, where neighbours may recognise the communal benefits associated with such helping behaviours in the face of limited personal resources (Butcher 2010). From another perspective, the action of helping others may also be motivated by guilt, contributing another dimension to the attractiveness of volunteer tourism (Sin 2010). The issue of those who are economically well-off feeling guilt for what they have in relation to the have-nots may spur them on to participate in volunteer tourism, but calls to question their continued desire to contribute beyond the one-off trip. While it can be reasoned that altruism and enlightened self-interest which motivate helping behaviours do not diminish the consequent benefits to the recipients (Coghlan & Fennell 2009), the continuity of such helping behaviours beyond the trip is an aspect which will be called into question in this study, and could be affected by the degree of altruism or selfishness spurring the volunteer tourist into action.

One of the other main motives for volunteer tourists to participate is the opportunity to travel to areas which may not be accessible through conventional tourism channels (Lyons & Wearing 2008; Sin 2010). The opportunity to explore a place which peers have not been is an opportunity that entices many travellers, earning them bragging rights as pointed out by Pearce and Coghlan (2007). In examining the motivations of volunteer tourists to Africa, Sin (2009) found that their decisions to participate were strongly influenced by the desire to visit a different or exotic destination. This was echoed by other studies such as Broad and Jenkin's (2007) research on the Gibbon Rehabilitation Project in Thailand, and Tomazos and Butler's (2010) interviews with volunteer tourists at a children's refuge in Mexico. Keese (2011) interviewed the directors of NGO sending organisations' about their destination choices and concluded that destination descriptions and associated imagery were key attractors for volunteer

tourists, an indication of the significance of place. Furthermore, this form of organised travel to less-explored destinations affords the volunteer tourist the thrill of adventure and exploration without the associated risk of the unknown as a true adventurer may experience. As a result, this could inform their expectations of how exotic or unique their experiences need to be, the fulfilment of which could determine their continued participation in further activities for the benefit of their own communities. However, critics have noted that altruism is not always a key motivation, particularly in cases where travellers participate in structured volunteer tourism trips as a means of accessing cheap and convenient arrangements (Bailey & Russell 2012).

Beyond the temporal confines of volunteer tourism programs, there is value which can be achieved through the social interactions of volunteer tourists. Interactions with fellow tourists, sending organisations, NGOs and host communities, also allow volunteer tourists to build social capital which can benefit them beyond the trips they take. The social aspect of volunteer tourism has been shown to be one of the primary motivations of volunteer tourists. Through bonds forged with the host community, volunteer tourists feel that they can connect with the community in a profound way that is more satisfying (McIntosh & Zahra 2007). The positive outcomes of this socialisation generally include cross-cultural learning, assuming an attitude to learn is undertaken by both parties in the course of the experience (Brown 2005). Aside from inter-cultural interactions, other attractive social capital gains for volunteer tourists include meeting with like-minded individuals when travelling and particularly meeting with other volunteer tourists who are working with the same organisation or taking on the same trips (Brown 2005). Such social interactions between volunteer tourists also provide a network of connections amongst like-minded individuals who are similarly concerned with community development. Just as hobbyists seek other individuals who share

similar passions, the community built around the impetus to help is important for building the sense of community which motivates volunteer tourists (Brown & Morrison 2003). Even within established social groups or amongst relatives such as friends or family, the challenge of completing a volunteer tourism trip together allows for the formation of stronger bonds (Brown 2005). Beyond their volunteer tourism trip, this could be a driver of continuing volunteering within the volunteer tourist's community, and this behavioural intention will be examined in the current study.

Yet another way volunteer tourism can be a siren call to potential tourists is by way of the professional development opportunities it can provide. For those with professional skills that are transferable across geographical boundaries, such as the medical or engineering professions, utilising their professional skills could build their ability to face challenges and work in less than ideal conditions. In addition, those who join research volunteer programs may be students or junior researchers in the field who may take the opportunity to collect their own data or develop field experience so as to further their careers. Even students, in their quest to differentiate themselves from the competition when it comes to applying for university or their first jobs, are encouraged to include their volunteer tourism experiences in their curriculum vitae. Aside from the benefit of mutual learning in volunteer tourism (Wearing 2004), a realistic advantage of such experiences is their value in presenting the volunteer tourist as an adaptable and well-travelled individual beyond the trip. Some volunteer tourists view their trip as a challenge to be conquered and as a milestone achievement that signifies their ability to conquer unfamiliar conditions and to undertake physically demanding tasks (Sin 2009). While sometimes it is enough to have such experiences listed on their curriculum vitae, those volunteer tourists who seek to develop their professional skills overseas would likely have certain expectations related to the skill-based labour

required of them. As the financial outlay of the trip generally falls on the shoulders of the volunteer tourist, there is usually anticipation that the experience gained will be equivalent to the price paid in the eyes of the tourist (Brightsmith, Stronza & Holle 2008).

These perceived attractive factors are crucial to the study of expectations, because they play an instrumental role in their formation. The anticipation of fulfilling such motivations will feed into what the volunteer tourists look forward to, the disappointment of which could impede further involvement in social or community causes.

### 2.3.5 Threats to volunteer tourism

The myriad of motivations and attractive features of volunteer tourism programs for travellers are key drivers for its growth in recent years. The good intentions behind volunteer tourism are often used as justification of these trips (Guttentag 2009). However, in recent years, the examination of volunteer tourism has taken an increasingly critical stance, taking into account its unintended negative impacts on host communities and the emerging profit motive of this sector. Aside from that, there are more macro forces around the world that could affect the continued viability of volunteer tourism over the longer term. These negative impacts and macro forces will form the basis of this section, which examines the threats to volunteer tourism as a concept and its sustainability.

The examination of negative impacts that can inadvertently result from volunteer tourism programs is important to the present study. Whether they are observed in situ or discovered post-return, negative impacts of volunteer tourism programs may contribute to expectation disconfirmation, particularly if specific helping goals are the

primary reasons for participation. Such specific goals can range from collecting sufficient data for a scientific organisation, improving the lives of host community members or the completion of a conservation project. In order for volunteer tourism programs to be successful, their longer term outcomes need to be taken into account. While the literature on volunteer tourism has largely focused on the positive aspects of this genre, this one-sided examination runs the risk of being uncritical and idealistic (Holmes et al. 2010). As a growing industry that purports to benefit host communities beyond the financial gains of conventional tourism, volunteer tourism could be enhanced by constructive criticism and closer examination of the possible negative impacts of such programs. These impacts include a neglect of locals' desires, hindering of work progress, interference to local economies, reinforcement of differences and rationalisations of poverty as well as bringing about undesirable cultural changes (Guttentag 2009; Palacios 2010; Sin 2010).

With increasing emphasis on volunteer tourists as a labour supply, more commercial sending organisations are emerging to grab a share of this market (Tourism Research and Marketing Group 2008). Although not-for-profit sending organisations still constitute a fair proportion of sending organisations, those with a profit motive are increasingly recognising the lucrative potential of pursuing potential volunteer tourists. Corresponding with this increase in supply is an increase in competition for the attentions of potential volunteer tourists. General marketing strategies necessitate the attraction of this potential volunteer tourist market in order to complete the transaction of committing to a volunteer tourism program, and therein lies the danger of pandering to tourists' desires while neglecting the needs of local host communities. As Ong et al. (2011) pointed out in their content analysis of not-for-profit sending organisations' program principles, and vision and mission statements, from an organisational

perspective, not-for-profit organisations appear to continue to prioritise the needs of host communities above others. However, this may not apply in practice, necessitating further study of the content and outcomes of actual volunteer tourism programs, including those organised by both for-profit and not-for-profit organisations.

It is convenient to assume that not-for-profit sending organisations would be better equipped to avoid the problems associated with prioritising financial gains as in commercial enterprises, but this assumption neglects the fact that not-for-profit sending organisations can likewise neglect local desires by imposing their programs on the community instead of working in consultation with them. In appealing to potential volunteer tourists' altruistic desires, there is a risk that the tourist's desire to contribute to something tangible and impactful may turn on itself if it is not similarly desired by the host community (Ong et al. 2014). As the main focus of volunteer tourism programs should be their contribution to the host community, projects that are not led by the host community could result in disillusionment for both hosts and tourists. Not only will hosts feel as if the services or help offered has been imposed on the community, tourists might be made to feel like an imposition on the hosts, with their efforts unappreciated by reluctant communities. This could then become a barrier towards future commitment to volunteer tourism programs or other forms of volunteering.

One of the reasons for the burgeoning market of volunteer tourists is the low barriers to entry they face when applying for such programs. As pointed out by Brown and Morrison (2003), often the only requirement set forth by sending organisations is the desire to help others. Other authors have similarly noted that the short-term nature of volunteer tourism programs does not lend itself to the efficacy of unskilled workers contributing to the host community (Callanan & Thomas 2005; Simpson 2004). While

the sentiment that every bit helps is optimistic, it is unrealistic to expect that programs that leave projects incomplete or improperly completed due to the lack of skilled expertise can be favourably looked upon by the host community. In certain situations, the lack of such skills could qualify as a burden rather than an asset to programs, such as in the case of those who volunteer in countries whose language they are unable to communicate in, thereby impeding work progress. Furthermore, in the case of research volunteer tourism, the scientific community has expressed scepticism regarding volunteers' ability to gather quality data, possibly compromising data collection if the tasks became too complex (Foster-Smith & Evans 2003). When the quality of the work done by volunteer tourists comes under scrutiny, it is important that it passes muster as such programs should be designed to be of practical assistance to the host community.

The quality of labour provided by volunteer tourists is not the only point of contention put forward as a potential negative effect of volunteer tourism. Particularly in the case of programs developed in isolation from the host community, the parachuting of volunteer tourists into a region could be displacing paid labour from the host community (McGehee & Andereck 2008; Wearing 2001). As a form of tourism, one of the direct benefits volunteer tourism can bring to host communities is vocational, such as providing jobs for members of the host community through increased spending in local establishments. However, if the roles associated with volunteer tourism projects fall within the domain of paid workers, a dearth of paid vocations could be created, adversely affecting the economic situations of those in the destination (Guttentag 2009). Furthermore, free volunteer labour may provoke a mindset of dependence in host communities, disrupting local economies. In writing about this, Wearing (2001) stated that volunteers can sometimes reinforce the perception of themselves as

‘experts’, thereby promoting deference in the local community to external knowledge and undermining the self-sufficiency that should ideally be the long-term goal of host communities. In her interaction with host community members and volunteer tourists, Sin (2010) corroborates this point, bringing up the concern of respondents that locals will begin to expect that infrastructural development would henceforth be provided free of charge by external agencies such as volunteer tourism sending organisations and their partner organisations. The issue of dependency can be as wide-ranging as infrastructural development, but often affects individual members through more innocuous means such as conditioning children to expect hand-outs or sweets from the well-meaning foreigners they interact with.

In travelling to a foreign locale to execute volunteer work, volunteer tourists could inadvertently be encouraged to think about poverty as a consequence that affects others. This abstraction of the ‘other’ from the ‘self’ is likely to lead to poverty rationalisation as a result of the experience, thereby allowing volunteer tourists to excuse poverty as acceptable based on the perception of them as being ‘poor but happy’ (Crossley 2012; Raymond & Hall 2008). This form of rationalisation can further dichotomise ‘them’ and ‘us’ in the minds of the volunteer tourists instead of encouraging tourists to find universal commonalities which bind guest and host together, as volunteer tourism is commonly touted to do. In this regard, Raymond and Hall (2008) and Simpson (2004) found that it helps volunteer tourists to acknowledge their good luck, but also reinforces the volunteer’s focus on themselves rather than the situation of others. This focus on good luck can preclude genuine discussions on inequality and oppression in favour of an optimistic belief in the justice of fate. One of the counters to this self-focus, as suggested by Palacios (2010), could be to design volunteer tourism programs in ways which encourage tourists’ reflection on the impact

of their behaviours on the host community environment. In keeping with this reflection, the expectations of volunteer tourists could be modified in relation to the behavioural expectations focused on them.

Related to the consequences of tourist behaviours, the demonstration effect is a process that influences the communities of many tourism destinations (Fisher 2004). Volunteer tourism further exacerbates this effect by its very nature, as volunteer tourists usually originate from wealthier countries while host communities tend to be much less affluent (Sin 2010; Wearing 2001). As a result, the inadvertent attention volunteer tourists may draw to their lifestyles and items of wealth may provoke discontent when host community members attempt to imitate such consumption patterns without success (Wall & Mathieson 2006). Such casual displays of wealth in regions with low levels of income can accentuate the differences in cultural and economic circumstances instead of reconciling the universal commonalities that volunteer tourism is perceived to create (Clifton & Benson 2006). Furthermore, it is the young locals who are most susceptible to such suggestions of materialistic ambition and behavioural change, and can further perpetuate the erosion of local cultures through discontent. However, a heartening counter-argument to this was presented by McIntosh and Zahra (2007), who found that the interactions with volunteer tourists spurred young locals to take pride in learning about their Maori culture, music and identity. While it is possible for positive influences to emerge from the interactions between volunteer tourists and host community members, the demonstration effect tends toward negative consequences (Fisher 2004). Some of these negative effects may not be apparent to the tourists at the time of their visit, and may only surface upon reflection or in due course.

Other negative consequences, aside from the demonstration effect, can result from volunteer tourism within a region. In a study of conservation volunteer tourism involving turtles, Gray and Campbell (2007) questioned the priorities of the host community, noting that the endangered turtle populations were not cherished for their scarcity but for the volunteer tourists who assisted their conservation and for the attendant monetary benefits. Further accusations include imbuing volunteer tourism programs with developed country values (Simpson 2004), thereby fanning the spread of self-serving values under the guise of global citizenship (Baillie Smith & Laurie 2011; Lyons et al. 2012). Other research has framed volunteer tourism as a tool that exists primarily to boost the egos of volunteer tourists (Cousins, Evans & Sadler 2009). This can contribute to the commodification of volunteer tourism, the very characteristic of mass tourism which it purports to resist (Coren & Gray 2012). This is often complicated by the pursuit of authenticity by volunteer tourists, partly constituted by intimate encounters of friendship and goodwill between tourists and host community members (Conran 2011). The pursuit of such intimacy has been seen as an attraction for volunteer tourists, but has arguably negligible effect on the institutional factors that perpetuate structural inequalities in these regions (Conran 2011; Woodward 2002).

The criticism of volunteer tourism as a vehicle for good intentions with unwittingly bad outcomes is particularly evident in the spotlight that has shone on orphans. This form of volunteer tourism involves tourists who spend time with children in need, often through orphanages in developing countries (Reas 2015). The commodification of vulnerable persons in tourism, particularly children, has been criticised, even as marketing efforts have continued to re-package programs as benign and palatable forms of altruism. This has given rise to efforts to push back on such forms of volunteer tourism that prey on vulnerable members of host communities, particularly post-

disaster, with arguments for better forms of help than that which is currently offered (Reas 2015; Tourism Concern 2014; van Doore 2015).

The concept of effective altruism, introduced in Chapter 1, is particularly relevant in light of the various negative impacts associated with volunteer tourism. While volunteer tourism affords several 'feel-good' effects that positively impact the volunteer tourist, it raises the question of whether this is the most effective way of contributing to other communities. Aside from providing help in forms that may be scarce within that region, such as medical expertise or scientific research skills, the short term nature of the associated relationships and potential short-cuts taken by volunteer tourism could be argued as counter-productive to the development of these communities. While volunteer tourists derive satisfaction from acts of service to their host communities, these trips are often expensive. It is conceivable that this money could be put to better use by donating it to charities that have a proven track record of helping such communities, leveraging on their expertise and local networks on the ground. The acts of service of volunteer tourists could then be channelled to their own communities, thereby maximising the use of the financial and time resources afforded to them.

However, in spite of effective altruism, the possible negative consequences and extant global forces, the numerous threats to volunteer tourism may yet sound the death knell for this activity. While experiences cannot be controlled entirely by sending organisations or other stakeholders, this well-intentioned form of tourism possesses characteristics which are at odds with each other. As the following discussions will show, the tensions of volunteer tourism continue to present contradictions when viewed from different perspectives.

### 2.3.6 The tensions of volunteer tourism

After examining the attractiveness of volunteer tourism and its possible negative impacts, certain tensions become apparent between the perceptions and realities of this form of travel. Volunteer tourism is often depicted as an ideal form of travel that allows the tourist to achieve multiple objectives by contributing to a community that needs help while satisfying personal travel goals. Related to this view is the perception that volunteer tourism is a more well-intentioned method of travel compared to other forms, which are seen as a one-way exchange biased in favour of the tourist (Callanan & Thomas 2005). While there is an expectation that volunteer tourism programs can fulfil needs, what transpires can sometimes lead one to question the validity of the assumptions and expectations related to volunteer tourism. In this section, the concept of collectivism and individualism is explored in the context of source markets and destinations. The question of whether it is the tourist, host community, sending organisation or governments that truly benefit from volunteer tourism programs will also be discussed in detail. A case will be made in weighing the importance of good intentions versus requiring expertise in the selection of volunteer tourists, and a critique of supply-led versus demand-led designs of volunteer tourism programs will be presented.

#### 2.3.6.1 Individualism versus collectivism

With Euro-American participants dominating the volunteer tourism market, the divide in participation across the global North-South divide has been noted by other researchers (Mostafanezhad 2014; Ong et al. 2014). It could be said that volunteer tourists are likely to come from source markets that are individualistic in their approach to life. Such individualism indicates the self as best served by being distinct from and better than others, autonomous from the others who exist in their environment and

deriving their identities from their achievements (Markus & Kitayama 1991). There is an assumption amongst social scientists that individualism is more prevalent in industrialised, Western societies that prize individual choice, personal freedom and self-actualisation, the same societies which are generally source markets for volunteer tourists (Oyserman, Coon & Kemmelmeier 2002). In recognising volunteer tourism as a form of social movement, McGehee (2012) argues that a high level of self-efficacy is important for participation, because an individual must be secure in his or her ability to overcome obstacles before engaging with organisations advocating change. High levels of self-efficacy is also a trait typically attributed to Western societies, thereby reinforcing the notion that most volunteer tourists originate from Western societies, or societies with high levels of Western influence (Gecas 1989). The abovementioned traits of striving to be better than others and basing identities on the achievements of the self are also congruent with the motivations for volunteer tourism mentioned earlier, namely, differentiating the self from others by exploring areas yet to be visited by reference groups and by gaining professional development opportunities through practise in a foreign environment (Bailey & Russell 2012; Brown 2005; Sin 2009).

There is also an assumption that developing countries, which make up a large proportion of volunteer tourism host communities, tend to comprise collectivistic societies where group membership is a central aspect of identity, and where social context, situational constraints and social roles figure prominently in causal reasoning (Oyserman, Coon & Kemmelmeier 2002). This perception of the self in relation to a group could be used to explain the openness of such host communities in accepting help from outsiders in view of the benefits to the community in the longer term, as was the result from a Maori community that was studied by McIntosh & Zahra (2007).

Along the continuum of Individualism – Collectivism, the social views of both extremes can greatly affect tourists' interactions in a volunteer tourism program. While collectivists could view individualists as anarchists who selfishly act without regard to the greater good, individualists may conversely view collectivists with puzzlement over their unwillingness to stand out from others by showcasing personal achievements (Oyserman, Coon & Kemmelmeier 2002). However, in volunteer tourism, there is a middle ground which could be occupied. In pursuit of the individualistic endeavour to participate in volunteer tourism programs, it could be said, too, that these individualists from Western societies are seeking an even more macroscopic perspective to collectivism by pursuing a form of global collectivism (Ferguson 1992). This can be seen in their activities to correct social injustice by putting to rights the infrastructural or social inequalities that host communities face. Leaving to the side the debate over altruism versus self-interest, the tangible results of such volunteer tourism programs are still means by which infrastructural and/or educational development can be brought to host communities.

#### 2.3.6.2 Who truly benefits from volunteer tourism?

If volunteer tourism is marketed as a mutually beneficial form of tourism, positively contributing to the lives of both tourists and host communities, it raises the question of who are the true beneficiaries of this activity. Instead of attempting to prescribe an ideal version of volunteer tourism in which each stakeholder benefits equally from the program, the potential benefits and negative effects to each major stakeholder in volunteer tourism will be discussed in this sub-section. Despite the variety of means by which a tourist can volunteer, be it through teaching English, improving community infrastructure or assisting with scientific data gathering, the underlying nature of volunteer tourism is generally accepted as providing direct benefits to host

communities. Such volunteer projects are usually designed with the aim of providing longer-term benefits to the community at large, rather than just benefitting a single segment of the community (TIES 2012). In realising such benefits through volunteer tourism, the host community is able to leverage off resources that were previously unavailable to them.

On a social level, one of the main benefits is the cross-cultural interactions that inevitably result from living and working in close quarters with people of different cultures (Sin 2009). This form of interaction encourages a greater awareness of diversity in the host community as well as among volunteer tourists. While there are negative cross-cultural consequences such as the demonstration effect as discussed earlier, McIntosh and Zahra (2007) have also pointed out that the curiosity of outsiders in local cultures and customs can also strengthen the host community's pride in their practices, thereby preserving these for future generations. Furthermore, Zahra and McGehee (2013) also reported that volunteers contributing to host communities inspired more people within these communities to get involved and stop waiting for government intervention.

Volunteer tourism programs generally have a central project which is the main focus of the trip. This project is one of the selling points of the program, a tangible contribution the volunteer tourist makes to the host community. Projects can range from the more labour-intensive – digging wells to provide freshwater for a village or building school buildings to house students – to the more knowledge-oriented, such as educating local midwives on sanitary practices to ensure safer births, or scientific data gathering. Well-intentioned as they may be, however, the execution of these projects is sometimes less than satisfactory, as was pointed out earlier. These can represent a long-term burden to the host community, particularly as volunteer tourists

are typically short-term visitors who do not have to bear the negative consequences of failed projects (Sin 2010). This is particularly problematic if the host community learns to live with such projects on a regular basis, fostering an unhealthy dependency that prompts host communities to rely solely on volunteer tourists when a major project is to be executed. Such dependency has been criticised as another form of dominance which developed countries exert on developing countries, further advancing the argument that volunteer tourism is a form of neo-colonialism (Palacios 2010). Further to these unsatisfactory project conclusions, if volunteer tourists are invited into a project in place of employing and remunerating skilled, local labour, this presents a problem to the local economy as it removes a potential source of income for the host community (Guttentag 2009). Such a substitution can be detrimental in two ways – it can result in the unsatisfactory work as outlined above, and can cause unemployment in an economy of otherwise productive labour.

As has been pointed out previously factors that may be interpreted as beneficial to volunteer tourists include altruism, self-actualisation, heightened social awareness and intercultural learning. This diversity of motivations and benefits has been targeted by marketers, resulting in a tendency towards a commodification of volunteer tourism programs that pander to such motivations. To a certain extent, once may view participation in volunteer tourism programs as a first step towards fulfilling the anticipated experiential benefits. However, this could be counteracted by rationalisations of poverty through their experiences. While this may be a subconscious assuaging of guilt which is not apparent to the volunteer tourist, it may have longer term effects on the volunteer tourist's personal development in the areas of social justice and equality (Sin 2010).

Often neglected in the academic literature, sending organisations are fast attracting focus as one of the key stakeholders in the volunteer tourism process which plays a major role in determining the effectiveness of such programs and projects (Palacios 2010). Aside from their responsibilities in designing programs which are beneficial to both host communities and tourists, they are also tasked with leading the recruitment, trip reflections and re-integration of these tourists. As a central determinant of program design, sending organisations also stand to gain from volunteer tourism. For the not-for-profit segment of sending organisations, this is a prime opportunity to furthering their reputation and raise awareness for the causes they serve. It also functions as a tool for recruiting more volunteers, increasing contributions to their causes in source markets. This opportunity to promote the organisation is similarly extended to commercial enterprises which operate as sending organisations, regardless of whether they do it as their sole product or as part of their suite of offerings. Such commercial sending organisations are also afforded the chance to extend the positive perception generally associated with this form of tourism into their brand. It allows sending organisations to associate themselves with ethical business, which has proven to be a brand-enhancer in the minds of consumers (Kitchin 2003; Middlemiss 2003).

While it is idealistic to hope for a system in which volunteer tourism program design provides all the benefits and none of the detrimental aspects of volunteer tourism to all major stakeholders involved, there is still some way to go in ensuring that volunteer tourism programs effectively achieve their aims (Taplin, Dredge & Scherrer 2014). Despite the sometimes conflicting needs of beneficiaries, such as the desire for volunteer tourists to be involved only in particular projects while host communities may require a more realistic set of activities, there have been efforts by the industry to

enhance these programs. One of the measures that is needed is a framework, voluntary or regulatory in nature, to guide the design and participation of volunteer tourism programs, contributing to their effectiveness while providing realistic expectations that potential volunteer tourists can look forward to (Ong et al. 2013). The conflicting requirements have been acknowledged in an iterative monitoring and evaluative framework proposed by Taplin, Dredge and Scherrer (2014), which takes into account stakeholders, organisations, markets and programs in order to improve the quality of volunteer tourism programs. Taplin, Dredge and Scherrer (2014) acknowledge that it is a value-laden process operating within an environment of uneven power relations, agendas and interests. The complicated nature of volunteer tourism, both in a practical and ethical sense, contributes to the difficulties that are encountered by practitioners in guiding its future directions.

#### 2.3.6.3 Expertise versus best intentions

As previously mentioned, the low barriers to entry for tourists to take part in volunteer tourism programs have resulted in greater participation numbers. Often, what is required of volunteer tourists is the ability to afford the trip and its activities, and an intention to contribute to the project at hand. The requirement for expertise is only needed by specialised projects such as medical missions and engineering projects in rural regions, and those that require certification such as the teaching of English as a second language. Even in research volunteer tourism, volunteers are generally non-specialists who do not have experience in skills such as data gathering, and hence rely on the training provided during the course of the trip for such knowledge (Ellis 2003). The common saying that ‘the road to hell is paved with good intentions’ accurately describes the potential negative effects that well-intentioned volunteer tourists, without relevant expertise, may unintentionally inflict on host beneficiaries.

While it would be prohibitive to mandate expertise in selected fields for all volunteer tourism programs, it would be worthwhile for sending organisations to ascertain if potential volunteer tourists have skills that can be utilised to enhance the effectiveness of the planned project before they are accepted into programs. Although the strict requirement of skills may result in a reduction in the number of tourists who take part in programs, it may improve the quality of help rendered to the beneficiaries and host communities, addressing the criticism put forth regarding the quality of work completed on programs (Guttentag 2009). This would also contribute to the evaluation of effectiveness of volunteer tourism as an act of altruism, in comparison to alternative altruistic contributions that could be made by the same individual. However, going to the other extreme in restricting participation to only those who have expertise in the relevant fields deprives potential volunteer tourists of unique experiences and learning opportunities, which are an integral part of what attracts them to volunteer tourism in the first place. Thus a balance needs to be struck between ensuring the requisite expertise in accepting volunteer tourists and attracting and accepting those who are attracted to the good deeds they can do overseas but do not possess sufficient expertise. Aside from the question of expertise and skills, the balance must also extend to the ratio of work and play when designing programs (Tomazos & Butler 2012). A bias in favour of volunteer work may put volunteer tourists off as a key motivator for their participation is the ability to explore foreign territories; conversely, too much leisure time for exploration may put the efficacy of the volunteer tourism programs at risk, diluting the benefits which host communities anticipate (Tomazos & Butler 2012). In order to achieve this balancing act, it is imperative for sending organisations to understand, and perhaps contribute to and moderate, the

expectations of their trip participants in order to ensure that a positive experience is achieved through the fulfilment of their expectations.

#### 2.3.6.4 Demand-driven versus market-driven program design

Before commencing the discussion on demand-driven versus market-driven design, it is imperative to make the distinctions between these clear. While demand-driven is typically synonymous with customer demand in commerce, the ‘demand’ in this instance refers to the needs of the host community (Lo & Lee 2011). Therefore demand-driven in this case is related to the demand from host communities for the projects proposed by volunteer tourism programs, whether these are suitable for the longer term development, conservation or research goals of the host community. In the same vein, market-driven demand is the demand that originates from potential volunteer tourists, who vote with their consumption dollars as to what kinds of volunteer tourism programs are attractive to them.

One of main criticisms of volunteer tourism as outlined earlier was the neglect of the host community’s needs in planning projects. This neglect could result in the host community’s disillusionment towards the effectiveness and usefulness of volunteer tourism programs, thereby closing off an avenue of developmental opportunities that could be made available to them. Programs designed without consultation with host community leaders and members are likely to be subject to needs as perceived by the NGO and/or sending organisation involved. Ideally, successful volunteer tourism programs should be designed in consultation with the host community as they would have the clearest understanding of their developmental goals, thus ensuring that any work completed is in accordance with the long term plans of their communities.

However, the opposing market-driven design could become increasingly popular, as more commercial operators join the ranks of sending organisations. As the competition to attract potential volunteer tourists becomes more heated, sending organisations will have to work harder to attract these potential customers. Along this line of reasoning, sending organisations may be tempted to create programs which are congruent with the expectations of target markets, in regions and with peoples that are perceived by potential customers as being most in need (Sin 2010). If the perceived needs are in line with actual needs expressed by the host community, this would be ideal as the help rendered would be considered a valuable contribution. However, if perception and reality are vastly different, the contribution of volunteer tourists to the host community would not be valuable, and may result in activities that cost the community more than the proposed benefits.

While it is logical to point out that the most ideal volunteer tourism program would be one which is designed in collaboration with the host community, it may not be practical for sending organisations to do so. However, veering to the other extreme and promising programs which pander only to potential volunteer tourists without taking into account the needs of the host community is far from ideal. As pointed out by Coghlan (2007), one of the ways in which the expectations of volunteer tourists can be managed is through the marketing material distributed by sending organisations. This marketing material, in the form of brochures or websites, can provide images and choices of activities that influence potential volunteer tourists' program choices. Thus sending organisations need to ensure that their promotional material, while designed to be as attractive to potential customers as possible, also takes care to include the needs of the host community. However, barring this perfect scenario, the opposing

and delicate balance between the demand-driven and market-driven program design remains an aspect to be further examined.

These tensions, as detailed above, showcase the opposing forces which certain aspects of volunteer tourism are subjected to in concept and in reality. They contribute to the mixed opinions the general public and stakeholders can sometimes have of volunteer tourism. As a tool to manage the expectations of volunteer tourists, successful programs which allow tourists to achieve their desired goals help to stave off scepticism and hopefully translate into advocacy for volunteer tourism (Ong, Lockstone-Binney & King 2014). With personal testimonies from former volunteer tourists turned advocates, the multiplying power of experience can help to feed the future manpower required for this sector. As a dimension of the wider travel phenomenon, volunteer tourism will continue to evolve, adapting to the changing needs of its constituents. Its relevance to volunteer tourist markets, coupled with favourable travel enabling conditions, will be key to determining its survival (Ong et al. 2014).

### 2.3.7 What happens after the trip?

It is evident in reviewing the literature that much of the research on volunteer tourism has focused on aspects involved in inspiring the uptake of volunteer tourism and on the trip experience itself. While integral to the understanding of volunteer tourists and volunteer tourism programs, far less has been done to examine the post-trip aspects of volunteer tourism. Some have advocated an adaptation of the psychological debriefing that is available to aid workers returning from stressful situations (Townsend & Loughlin 1998). Such debriefs would be primarily used to help volunteer tourists make sense of their experiences and maximise the learning extracted from their trips, allowing them to process their newly transformed view of global poverty (Hammersley

2013; Mostafanezhad 2014). It could also minimise re-entry shock, reducing the unsettled feeling of ‘home’ being an unfamiliar environment after their time overseas (Grabowski & Wearing 2008, 2010). While Grabowski and Wearing (2008, 2010) have explored the concept of re-entry shock of volunteer tourists, Alexander (2009) found that returned volunteer tourists became more confident and assertive, and Lee and Yen (2015) gathered that the repeat purchase intentions of volunteer tourists were high, the research on this topic has not continued beyond this initial exploration.

Addressing the ‘so what?’ question that surrounds the longer-term impacts of volunteer tourism experiences, it is timely to delve into this post-return phase to explore the wider implications of these experiences. These impacts on the self and community are worth examining because it informed knowledge may address the cynicism felt towards this form of travel, independent of the actual impacts of the volunteer tourism projects. The outcome of this research could either support or refute the claims of volunteer tourism critics that volunteer tourism is a self-serving activity that does not contribute positively to society beyond its temporal limits. The continued practice of volunteer tourism for the longer term is also dependent on its relevance to beneficiaries and volunteer tourists alike (Ong et al. 2014). Its positive influence on behavioural intentions of volunteer tourists to continue volunteering could help boost public perceptions of its usefulness as a conduit to on-going community participation in the form volunteering for local and global causes. The changing expectations of volunteer tourists and how these affect their future participation in volunteering activities will be examined through the lens of the EDP. This will be elaborated upon in the next chapter.

# Chapter 3 Theoretical framework

In order to answer the research question of how the volunteer tourism experience influences behavioural intentions relating to travel and volunteering, it is imperative to review the research that examines expectations, experiences and behavioural intentions. Much of this research focuses on the topic of customer satisfaction, which comprises an extensive body of literature that examines its measurement, antecedents and effects. Research on customer satisfaction has been buoyed by its relevance to the world of commerce, providing indicators that influence purchasing behaviour. The intertwining of satisfaction and consumption belies an iterative relationship that is driven by the goal of unlimited commerce – to pursue satisfaction in encouragement of consumption, in turn seeking more satisfaction through further consumption (Kasser & Kanner 2004). Beyond the actual performance of a product or service, consumer satisfaction has been demonstrated to be influenced by expectations, attitudes and values (Oliver 1993). This chapter will first explore the concept of customer satisfaction, its antecedents and consequences. The adoption of EDP for this study will be explained, along with the current applications of customer satisfaction and expectancy within the tourism and volunteerism fields.

## 3.1 Customer satisfaction and expectations

Though the definitions of customer satisfaction are diverse, it is generally understood that satisfaction relates to the consumer's fulfilment, be it in relation to individual product or service features, or the product or service itself (Oliver 1997). Satisfaction is then a pleasurable level of consumption-related fulfilment through a direct provision or increase of pleasure, or the reduction of pain, depending on the context of the consumption (Oliver 1997). Conversely, dissatisfaction can then result from the unpleasant displeasure of under-fulfilment. Beyond the consumption experience, the

outcomes of customer satisfaction are key to this area of study, as these outcomes are those that organisations hope to influence. There are generally thought to be three outcomes of a consumption experience: 'do nothing', complaint and loyalty (Oliver 1997). Overwhelmingly, consumers choose to 'do nothing' at the conclusion of their consumption experience as the effort and cost required to perform the other two outcomes are considered prohibitive in comparison to the pleasure or displeasure derived from the experience (Oliver 2010). An unpleasant encounter may sometimes provoke complaint behaviour, while a pleasant encounter may trigger processes which lead to loyalty (Szymanski & Henard 2001). Loyalty, examined as repurchase intentions and behaviour as well as positive word of mouth (Mitchell & Hall 2004), is viewed as the most desired result of pleasurable fulfilment of customer needs (Bodet 2008; Oliver 1999; Yi & La 2004).

As an area of psychology, three types of loyalty have been extensively discussed in the literature – cognitive, affective and conative. Cognitive loyalty is based on the product information available to the consumer, and is therefore subject to the information received by the consumer at the point of consumption (Pedersen & Nysveen 2001). This form of loyalty is influenced by the consumer's experience with a product or service, an evaluative response based on information rather than feelings (Yüksel, Yüksel & Bilim 2010). Affective loyalty, on the other hand, is based on customers' feelings and attitudes, whether it is towards a product or brand (Oliver 1999; Yüksel, Yüksel & Bilim 2010). This form of loyalty, the result of a pleasurable or liking feeling, is considered more stable than cognitive loyalty, but is still subject to switching (Oliver 1999). Conative loyalty, the deliberate intention to continue using the brand, product or service in the future is seen as the most accurate predictor of behavioural loyalty (Pedersen & Nysveen 2001). While these established outcomes of loyalty have

been widely explored, the behavioural outcome of customer satisfaction in respect to the purchase of related, as opposed to repeated, consumption experiences has not been as extensively explored (Oliver 1999).

In the customer satisfaction literature, most studies acknowledge that future repurchases of the product from the same provider, repurchases of the same product from other providers, positive word of mouth about the product or organisation and willingness to pay a price premium are common indicators of behavioural intentions (Athanassopoulos, Gounaris & Stathakopoulos 2001; Castro, Armario & Ruiz 2007; Oliver 2010; Zeithaml, Berry & Parasuraman 1996). With its roots in customer satisfaction, which itself is guided by physical product consumption, the focus of early studies, the common indicators of behavioural intention mentioned above are establishes. However, with the move towards experiential products and services, the measurement of behavioural intention has continued to focus solely on the physical product features, neglecting components of the experience which are intangible and dynamic (Williams & Soutar 2009). This has given rise to new indicators of behavioural intentions pertaining to the related actions that may result from the experience, such as intentions to buy local wines or visit local wineries after a wine festival (Sparks 2007; Yuan & Jang 2007), or intentions to participate in similar activities in the future, such as other theatre events in the case of a study on attendees of a musical (Hede, Jago & Deery 2005) or participation in other day trips in the case of adventure tourists (Williams & Soutar 2009). In the case of the present study, the primary consumption experience of volunteer tourism will be explored in two behavioural intention contexts – that of intentions to repurchase in the form of future volunteer tourism experiences, as well as intentions to participate in related activities such as travel and volunteerism. These behavioural intentions are both forms of cognitive loyalty, as they are affected

by evaluations of the experience itself (Yüksel, Yüksel & Bilim 2010). They do not measure conative loyalty as they are not measurement of repeat purchase of a brand; rather, they are behavioural intentions related to the experience itself.

### 3.1.1 Expectancy Theory

In the study of customer satisfaction, the outcomes of pleasure or displeasure are relative to the standards against which product or service performances are judged, including those of expectations, needs, ideals, and fairness (Oliver 1997; Yüksel & Yüksel 2001). As a result, the frameworks that have been developed in response to the study of customer satisfaction are numerous, including the Expectancy Theory, the Equity Theory, the Value-Percept Theory, the Dissonance Theory and the Evaluative Congruity Theory (Yi 1990). In the case of Expectancy Theory, within which the EDP forms a part, the expectancy level is the standard against which the performance of a product or service is judged (Zehrer, Crotts & Magnini 2011). This process occurs after the consumption of a product or service and it is assumed that the consumer will compare the outcomes of this consumption with prior expectations, thereby assessing satisfaction (Szymanski & Henard 2001; Woodruff & Gardial 1996). These adjusted beliefs become the leading factors affecting satisfaction with the overall experience and are an indication that expectations can be adjusted through the process of an experience (Devlin, Gwynne & Ennew 2002).

Expectancy Theory relates to the measurement of utility and value of money, and has its roots in economics (Wahba & House 1974). The applicable models were subsequently adapted to psychology generally and to industrial and organisational psychology in particular (Wahba & House 1974). Drawing upon these perspectives Vroom (1964) developed Expectancy Theory in the context of work motivation, expressing various conceptions of the probability or degree of certainty that choosing

a particular alternative action will lead to a desired outcome (Miner 2005; Vroom 1964). Vroom's Expectancy Theory postulated that the degree of an individual's motivation is a function of the anticipated value of an action's outcome (valence) multiplied by the subjective probability that the anticipated outcome will eventuate, as perceived by the individual (Vroom 1964).

### 3.1.2 The Expectancy-Disconfirmation Paradigm

Though Expectancy Theory was first developed in the context of work motivation, the EDP has its beginnings in consumer satisfaction (Oliver 1980). The EDP postulates that expectations form a baseline for the measurement of satisfaction through any perceived disconfirmation of these expectations (Oliver 1980). Furthermore, the effect of disconfirmation has been shown to be larger than those of other factors, such as prior attitudes and actual performance (Bolton & Drew 1991). However, it is prudent to note that the EDP does not assume that expectations are constant over time and experience. Change is commonplace where there is conflict between what is expected and what is encountered, thereby leading individuals to adjust their perceptions or expectations in order to minimise the tensions arising from such conflict (Devlin, Gwynne & Ennew 2002). This reaction is consistent with Assimilation Theory, which postulates that consumers will suffer psychological conflict when they recognise differences between the perceived service received and the standard against which it is compared (Anderson 1973; Sherif & Hovland 1961). In responding to such dissonance, consumers adjust their perceptions of service provider performance in order to align them more closely with their initial expectations, thereby minimising prospective conflicts (San Martín, Collado & del Bosque 2009). In regard to EDP, it is pertinent to note that the variable adjusted in the consumer's mind post-experience is their perception of the experience, and not the actual performance of the experience.

Perceived performance relates to consumer assessments of the attributes or outcomes of a product or service (Spreng, MacKenzie & Olshavsky 1996). Whilst a product or service encounter cannot be re-experienced, the perception of a performance - being a subjective measure in the consumer's mind - is malleable and adjustable with a view to reducing cognitive dissonance as proposed by the Theory of Assimilation. Being informed partially by past experience (Crompton & Love 1995), expectancies are evolving, thereby transforming future product or service experiences of the same nature or from the same provider. As antecedents of satisfaction, evaluations of experience are also subject to the contrast effect, whereby distinctions between service performance and expectations are exaggerated in consumer evaluative responses, due largely to the contrast or surprise arising from such disconfirmation (Hovland, Harvey & Sherif 1957). This is particularly applicable in the case of predictive expectations, where higher positive disconfirmation of the standard that is used for comparative purposes has the effect of enhancing satisfaction during the encounter (San Martín, Collado & del Bosque 2009).

While expectations may be viewed as a direct antecedent of satisfaction, its own antecedents can generally be classified as originating internally and externally in reference to the individual (Devlin, Gwynne & Ennew 2002). The internal sources that inform expectations include previous experiences with the specific product or service, the effort that customers must apply during the production and delivery processes and overall satisfaction with similar brands or products (Kalamas, Laroche & Cézard 2002; Lankton & Wilson 2007). Internal sources may also include personal needs, be they physical, social or psychological, thereby creating unique relationships between the consumer and the product or service provider (Devlin, Gwynne & Ennew 2002). External sources include word-of-mouth communications received from friends and

relatives, as well as expert or informed opinions from subject matter experts (Clow et al. 1997; Devlin, Gwynne & Ennew 2002). They also include implicit and explicit promises, ranging from tangibles and prices to image and reputation factors, as well as other third party information sources (Devlin, Gwynne & Ennew 2002; Kalamas, Laroche & Cézard 2002).

A fundamental premise of EDP is that service performance is compared against a standard, thereby evoking satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Oliver 1980). Expectations are proven antecedents of satisfaction (Oliver 2010; Swan & Trawick 1980). The four norms of product and services standards within the expectancy literature are: the 'will be', 'should be', 'must be' and 'can be' (Gilly, Cron & Barry 1982; Kalamas, Laroche & Cézard 2002; Oliver 1980; Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry 1988). While expectations relating to the 'will be' model have also been referred to as predictive expectations, and conceptualised as belief probabilities of the consequences of an event, the 'should be' norm is the ideal standard that is expected of a product or service, indicative of what customers believe they should be offered (Devlin, Gwynne & Ennew 2002). The 'must be' represents minimum tolerable standards that should be met, and the 'can be' level is an idealistic conceptualisation of the product or service (Gilly, Cron & Barry 1982). While the different classes of expectations have been explored, the consensus is that any or all of them could affect customer satisfaction and perceived service quality (Parasuraman, Berry & Zeithaml 1991). It has been proposed that the sensitivity of individual consumers to each comparative norm leads to differing levels of satisfaction (Olander 1979), which in turn impacts on the level of customer satisfaction. The variance in satisfaction presented by its measurement with different comparison norms may present a hindrance to the study of satisfaction (Woodruff et al. 1991).

The investigation of confirmation/disconfirmation of expectations has been dominated by two methods– the inferred and direct approaches. The former is sometimes described as the subtractive approach, tracking the differences between expectations and evaluations of performance (Meyer & Westerbarkey 1996). This is represented by (P – E), where the measured variables are perceived performance [P] and expectations [E] (Teas 1993). The difference between these two variables is taken to be the level of disconfirmation between the expectation and level of perceived performance (Teas 1993). Data gathered for the inferred method relates to customer service expectations and perceived performance (Yüksel & Yüksel 2001). The more direct approach uses a summary judgment of respondents in measuring confirmation/disconfirmation, with options such as 'better than expected' and 'worse than expected' used to represent their confirmation/disconfirmation (Prakash & Loundsbury 1993). This approach eliminates the need for researcher calculations by directly measuring the extent to which the service experience meets, exceeds or falls short of expectations. However it does not consider the cognitive adjustments of such expectations when they are disconfirmed (Yüksel & Yüksel 2001).

### 3.1.3 Critiques of the EDP

The EDP has been criticised for the prevalence of inconsistencies in its assumptions and application. Such criticism extends to its use in service encounters, to interactions between the EDP and other comparative standards, and to the different respondent interpretations of expectations (Churchill & Surprenant 1982; Teas 1993; Woodruff et al. 1991; Yüksel & Yüksel 2001). Critics have challenged applications of the EDP by noting the flawed assumption that the disconfirmation process operates in every situation, as evidenced by the notable differences in how the concept is measured (Churchill & Surprenant 1982; Halstead, Hartman & Schmidt 1994; Teas 1993; Yüksel

& Yüksel 2001). These criticisms will be explored in detail in the course of the present study, and some will be addressed in the design of the data collection.

It has been argued that using the EDP in service settings is less meaningful than in the evaluation of products because of the intangibility of such encounters (Oliver & Burke 1999). The search attributes that have dominated the consumption of tangible goods are diminished, with potential service consumers evaluating options with the use of experience and credence properties (Reisinger & Waryszak 1996). While physical representations of a physical good are termed search properties, experience properties relate largely to those attributes that can only be assessed post-purchase. Credence properties are those that are impossible to evaluate even after consumption (Zeithaml 1981). It has been argued that without tangible search attributes, the lack of prior experience with a service or service provider renders the EDP less meaningful in the service context (Crompton & Love 1995). Alternatively it can be treated similarly to the external information characteristics that inform the expectations of prospective service consumers (Reisinger & Waryszak 1996).

There are variations in the interpretation of expectations within the EDP itself that affect the responses that are received (Ennew, Reed & Binks 1993). The varying interpretations present a challenge to the EDP since respondents may be responding on the basis of different expectations – one may approach the initial measurement of expectations from a minimum tolerable level of performance while another may measure it against an ideal (Yüksel & Yüksel 2001). In a performance-minus-expectations computation of EDP, two respondents may report similar evaluations of a level of service and the minimum tolerable expectation could result in a positive disconfirmation due to the low expectation initially reported. The respondent who reported an ideal expectation may however record a negative disconfirmation (Yüksel

& Yüksel 2001). These inconsistencies could be addressed by applying a clearly defined scope of expectations to which respondents are expected to adhere (Yüksel & Yüksel 2001).

Aside from the inconsistency of interpreting questions about expectations, critics have also challenged a fundamental assumption of the EDP, namely that customers will evaluate a service favourably for expectations that have been met or exceeded (Iacobucci, Grayson & Ostrom 1994). Studies that advocate such questioning propose that situations where consumers are compelled to consume an inferior product may result in lowered expectations, but do not lead to favourable reports about satisfaction (LaTour & Peat 1979). Other authors have noted that even in cases when service performance is not commensurate with initial expectations, customers can still report reasonable satisfaction (Yüksel & Rimmington 1998). This outcome may be explained by the previously-mentioned criticism, namely that the initial reports in such studies could be informed by minimum tolerable comparison or ideal standards, instead of by predictive standards (Yüksel & Yüksel 2001). This provides a lower comparison standard that is more easily satisfied, an adjustment potentially explained by the aforementioned concept of assimilation (Crompton & Love 1995).

The assumption that the disconfirmation process will operate in every consumption situation has been questioned, with some researchers asserting that customer assessments of services may be exclusively reliant on performance evaluations and unrelated to disconfirmation (Churchill & Surprenant 1982; Halstead, Hartman & Schmidt 1994). In cases where customer expectations have become passive as a consequence of repeat patronage, the confirmation/disconfirmation process may not operate except in cases of exceptional experiences (Oliver 1989). Some have argued that the disconfirmation process is built into the process of answering questions about

experiences (Gronroos 1993). Gronroos (1993) argues that estimates of perceptions would have included a perception-minus-expectation mental process, as prior expectations are already inherent in these perceptions.

In gathering data about the measurement of expectations, issues faced by the EDP include the timing of the measurement, consistently high expectation scores and questions about the reliability of difference scores. While some researchers support the solicitation of expectations ahead of service experiences (Carman 1990), others have argued that it is acceptable to measure expectations after the service experience (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry 1988). The measurement of expectations prior to the service experience is considered to have the advantage of being uncontaminated by the experience itself (Getty & Thomson 1994; Weber 1997). However, doubts may be raised in relation to stability and validity, especially in the case of unique experiences for which respondents have little or no reference points pre-experience (Zeithaml 1981). The measurement of expectations post-experience raises the issue of hindsight bias and of the assimilation effect (Weber 1997; Yüksel & Rimmington 1998). This situation may arise when prior expectations are modified through the course of the service encounter, thereby using modified expectations in the comparison process (Gronroos 1993). Some studies have suggested that the modified expectations of respondents may be relatively more influential than pre-consumption expectations in influencing satisfaction (Zwick, Pieters & Baumgartner 1995).

In practice, respondents have generally reported high expectation ratings, partly motivated by the fact that it is considered an appropriate social norm to articulate high expectations of an anticipated experience (Babakus & Boller 1992; Dorfman 1979). This conclusion is supported by research which has shown that expectations rate consistently higher than performance evaluation scores (Parasuraman, Berry &

Zeithaml 1991; Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry 1988). Other researchers have shown that higher expectations predispose consumers to respond more favourably to a particular product or service (Oliver 1997). This may present a problem by producing a ceiling or floor effect, whereby expectations are set at the highest or lowest scores available by respondents, thereby disallowing them from providing accurate scores for exceptional experiences that respondents perceive to be beyond the provided scale (Yi 1990).

Since the EDP uses difference scores of perception-minus-expectations (P-E), such computation may lead to misleading conclusions from a process of simple subtraction (Teas 1993). While there are multiple ways of obtaining a P-E score of +1, a respondent with (P=2, E=1) could conceivably have very different satisfaction scores from another respondent with (P=7, E=6). Such disparities in difference levels calculations have been shown to result in different satisfaction states (Chon 1992; Chon, Christianson & Lee 1998).

Despite these criticisms, some of which will be addressed in the design of this study, Expectancy Theory and the EDP continues to be used in a variety of fields and contexts, notably in the areas of organisational behaviour (Isaac, Zerbe & Pitt 2001; Mitchell, TR 1982; Thierry & Eerde 1996), human learning (Pekrun 1992; Yamnill & McLean 2001), perceptions (Dougherty & Shanteau 1999; Johnson 2012; Kantas 1992), social psychology (Jones, Corbin & Fromme 2001; Mahatanankoon & O'Sullivan 2008; Major & O'Brien 2005) and consumer satisfaction (Cho & Johar 2011; Liao et al. 2011; Wong & Dioko 2013). More pertinently, it is also applied to the tourism and volunteerism fields which will now be examined.

### 3.1.4 Expectations in tourism and in volunteering

Within the tourism field, satisfaction has typically been examined in the context of tourist experiences with travel agencies, accommodation and destinations (del Bosque & Martín 2008), and studies have usually been conducted after the service has been consumed. In examining the factors that lead to improved satisfaction, del Bosque et al. (2009) found that destination experience is greatly influenced by tourist expectations, and that ultimate satisfaction with the experience affects individual beliefs about future encounters. This finding is consistent with Oliver's conclusions (1980). The expectations associated with tourist experiences generally relate to accommodation (Husbands 1994), activities (Pesonen & Komppula 2010), destination exploration (Kim 1997), interactions with locals (Chen & Chen 2011) and fellow travellers (Tung & Ritchie 2011), safety (Khan 2003), the development or practising of skills (Kim 1997) and support provided by staff from the sending agency or travel organisation (Luk et al. 1994). An extensive list of references for each of these categories is provided in Table 2 on page 121.

Since tourism is an experiential product, tourism experiences are often viewed as risky and entailing high levels of involvement. This increases the importance of external communications which are responsible for shaping expectations about the service product (Clow et al. 1997). As a predictor of future destination experience, word-of-mouth recommendations from trusted friends and relatives are critical, particularly in view of the intangibility of the product (File, Cermak & Prince 1994). This highlights the importance of creating positive experiences during the initial encounter, thereby driving demand for the experience through positive word of mouth and repeat visitation impacts. Further evidence to support the creation of positive tourist experiences lies in the disproportionately positive effect of fulfilled expectations on satisfaction,

particularly in the case of those who started with elevated comparison standards (San Martín, Collado & del Bosque 2009).

In response to research on expectations and satisfaction, certain recommendations have emerged in the tourism literature in regard to managing expectations. Some proprietors have sought to lower expectations through marketing, no longer seeking to attract potential visitors through fantastical marketing descriptions, instead riding on the popularity of established destinations while providing realistic expectations of the experience (Yüksel & Rimmington 1998). The rationale for this recommendation follows the reasoning that satisfaction is a result of the fulfilment of expectations, hence the key to satisfaction is that of lowering expectations instead of creating exceptional experiences (Yüksel & Rimmington 1998). Given the rationale, this strategy may make sense in contrast to the disappointment of over-promising, but it is counter-productive to the improvement and progress of the tourism industry, encouraging the production of low-hanging fruit as opposed to the development of quality products and experiences.

As well as being applied to tourism generally, expectancy theory has also been used in the context of volunteerism. Volunteer tourists are typically unpaid for their participation, opting instead to pay for the privilege of being involved in volunteer tourism projects. On this basis the literature on volunteerism may provide insights about managing the expectations of volunteer tourists. Although the volunteer management literature typically concentrates on organisation-volunteer relationships that are sustained over longer periods of time, a parallel between the more temporally bound relationship of the sending organisation and the volunteer tourist could prospectively be drawn in the case of volunteer tourism.

Ralston et al. (2004) undertook an examination of episodic volunteering, of which some forms of volunteer tourism may serve as examples. They found that the satisfaction of event volunteers was influenced by expectations that are formed both before and during an event, and that management and administration attributes contribute to this satisfaction. Farmer and Fedor (1999) found that voluntary-agency administrators could use the promissory contract that an individual believes to be the basis of obligations and terms in a reciprocal relationship (Rousseau 1989) to help them understand and manage volunteers more effectively. They found that the fulfilment of expectations could increase participation, thereby providing a more consistent source of manpower for the organisation through increased volunteer satisfaction and enhanced future volunteering intentions. On the other hand, if individual expectations cannot be met by the organisation, the breach in this relationship can result in anger, resentment, and reduced commitment and participation, which can ultimately spread to other volunteers and even to external contacts (Coyle-Shapiro 2002; Morrison & Robinson 1997; Parzefall & Coyle-Shapiro 2011). Furthermore, the volunteer management literature has consistently advocated the use of extensive orientation practices, such as familiarising volunteers with the tasks they can expect. Such practices can boost retention and may contribute to effectiveness through lowering turnover (Cuskelly et al. 2006; Jamison 2003; Persson 2004).

If an organisation is unable to change its processes or conditions to suit the expectations of volunteers, an alternative solution may involve the adjustment of individual expectations. Although this aspect has not been addressed in the literature on volunteering, it has been considered within the wider management literature. Research has emphasised the importance of pre-entry socialisation in developing

desired behaviours and expectations, particularly in the recruitment and orientation phases (Garavan & Morley 1997; Scholarios, Lockyer & Johnson 2003). These activities may inform individuals about any expectations attached to their organisational roles and reiterate their psychological contract with the organisation. This has also been encouraged by Ralston et al. (2004), who noted that proactive methods of imbuing volunteers with a positive, and yet realistic, set of expectations should be promoted during the lead-in periods of recruitment and training. It is evident that the fulfilment of expectations can therefore boost volunteer satisfaction and future volunteering intentions.

The literature on expectations in both tourism and volunteerism has generated an extensive list of what participants, tourists and volunteers expect from their experience. Many relevant studies have been conducted in organisational settings, with expectations typically explored in the context of human resources management found to affect continued participation in the context of volunteerism (Taylor et al. 2006; Wilson 2012). Studies of satisfaction in tourism have often been framed in the context of service encounters with travel agencies, accommodation, destinations and/or tours. While studies have varied in their level of detail, they have typically presented a number of key expectations. In the case of tourism, these relate to the activities that tourists will undertake during their travels, the comfort and convenience of their accommodation, exploration of the destination, interaction with locals and immersion in a foreign culture, safety in an unfamiliar environment, and support from their tour provider (del Bosque & Martín 2008; Fang, Tepanon & Uysal 2008; Pizam, Neumann & Reichel 1978; Yoon & Uysal 2005). In the field of volunteerism, the expectations partially resemble those in tourism, notably those relating to volunteering in a safe environment, involvement in activities which will benefit others and support from their

volunteer organisations (Farmer & Fedor 1997; Liao-Troth & Dunn 1999). Other key expectations in the study of volunteerism have included the chance to interact with other participants and to practice new or existing skills (Clary, Snyder & Stukas 1996; Davis Smith 2000). A more extensive list of references, relating to these eight categories of expectation is included in Table 2 on page 121. These tourism and volunteering related expectations formed the basis for engaging interviewees in discussions about their expectations, providing a platform that stimulated recall but allowed sufficient freedom for them to elaborate on their personal expectations. While these expectations have been explored extensively, it is also imperative to examine expectations that are particular to volunteer tourism to in order to advance knowledge in the field.

Returning to the research problem that is central to this study, the behavioural intentions of volunteer tourists post-return from their trips are pertinent to the current discussion of expectations. While there may be other factors influencing behavioural intentions, the EDP provides a lens through which changes to behavioural intentions may be viewed. By using EDP, the effect of expectations and subsequent disconfirmation on the travelling and volunteering intentions of volunteer tourists may be more thoroughly examined. In the next chapter, the research questions of the study will be articulated, along with their underpinning rationale based on the literature review of tourism, volunteerism, volunteer tourism and EDP.

# Chapter 4 Research questions and methodology

## 4.1 Research problem

From the literature review chapter, it is evident that it is imperative to develop a deeper understanding of the expectations of volunteer tourists as both tourists and volunteers. Such understanding offers the prospect of stimulating more consistent and frequent participation and a propensity to encourage others, whether visiting a destination or volunteering for events and causes. This, in turn, encourages further community involvement and bonding through local volunteering and facilitates the social bonds which may positively affect physical and mental health amongst the wider population (Wilson 2012). The primary motivations of volunteer tourists that involve contributing to the continued growth of the host community and its culture, and the personal growth and satisfaction of the tourist, are possible antecedents to the formation of expectations in volunteer tourism. Exploring the sources and antecedents of such expectations may allow them to be better managed, thereby stimulating continued participation in volunteering.

The main research problem to be explored relates to the ways in which volunteer tourist behavioural intentions change over the course of their experiences, particularly in relation to their expectations, the associated disconfirmation as a result of their experience and their overall satisfaction with their experience. The behavioural intentions relating to travel and volunteering will be examined in this study in order to determine the effects of the volunteer tourism experience, with particular emphasis on how the experience impacts local volunteering behavioural intention. Furthermore, in order to encourage local volunteering beyond the overseas volunteering trip as a

means of enhancing community involvement, the aspects that encourage or discourage future volunteering will also be explored. The eventual aim will be to propose recommendations for managing volunteer expectations and experiences, such as maximising future volunteering amongst returned volunteer tourists, both in their local communities and overseas.

## 4.2 Research questions

In view of these outcomes, this study will answer the following research questions:

RQ1. What do volunteer tourists expect from their volunteer tourism experience?

RQ2. How do the expectations, disconfirmation and overall satisfaction of volunteer tourists affect their repeat purchase intentions?

RQ3. How do the expectations, disconfirmation and overall satisfaction of volunteer tourists affect their intentions to travel overseas, to undertake volunteer travel domestically and to volunteer locally?

RQ4. Do disconfirmation and satisfaction alter behavioural intentions pre- and post-travel?

RQ5. Do past experiences of travelling overseas and volunteering overseas and locally have an effect on changes in behavioural intentions?

RQ6. What factors encourage or discourage returning volunteer tourists from participation in different forms of volunteering?

RQ7. What are the main sources informing volunteer tourist expectations?

Data will be collected in two phases to answer these research questions. The two phases will be explained in detail in this chapter. The findings of this study will be used to explore expectations and the possible effects of these expectations and their

subsequent disconfirmation on other forms of volunteering beyond the volunteer tourism experience.

Satisfaction, which ultimately stimulates demand through positive word of mouth recommendations and repeat participation, could be enhanced in two ways – improving the product to meet the physical and cognitive aspects of tourist expectations or providing pre-departure programs which can shape expectations to make them more realistic to the benefit of volunteer tourism. If they are to be effective, both will involve the active participation of sending organisations and in this context the proposed research should provide valuable insights.

It is anticipated that the volunteer tourism experience will influence the behavioural intentions of volunteer tourists, tempering their pre-trip behavioural intentions with reality. Furthermore, the fulfilment of key expectations and high satisfaction levels could lead to a greater intention to continue volunteering. While satisfaction and disconfirmation are affected by the expectations of volunteer tourists, there is a need to explore whether these rates of satisfaction result from having low initial expectations, thereby supporting the EDP that the greatest positive difference between expectations and experience will yield higher rates of satisfaction. In addition, the influence of past experiences in travel and volunteering are both pertinent to the expectations formed by volunteer tourists as well as their intentions to volunteer in the future. The effect of these past experiences will be assessed in terms of overseas travel, overseas volunteering and local volunteering respectively. Lastly, by understanding the aspects that encourage or discourage local volunteering through the eyes of volunteer tourists, it may be possible to establish volunteer tourism as a conduit for local volunteering through volunteer tourism trip program design or by engaging sending organisations as volunteer recruitment partners.

Having situated volunteer tourism within its parent activities of tourism and volunteerism, the previous chapter explored the drivers behind both factors and has established their role in driving the popularity of volunteer tourism. In viewing volunteer tourism through the lens of EDP, there is potential to extend the psychological approach it takes towards the study of tourism in the experiential realm. Additionally, there is a need to understand volunteer tourist expectations as a means of stimulating further domestic volunteering within the returned volunteer tourists' own local communities. In the following section, the methodology used to explore these expectations will be discussed, considering the methods that are most suitable for addressing the research questions set out earlier in this chapter. The methodology section will also discuss those analyses that were considered but were ultimately unused, and will provide a rationale for these choices. The paradigm adopted in this study will be clearly outlined, along with the associated advantages and limitations.

## 4.3 Methodology

The proposed method is based on the research questions and the findings of the literature review. An explanation is provided for the selection of an overarching paradigm to guide the research process. Since the present study used mixed research methods it is important to contextualise the gathering of the qualitative data for Phase 1. In this phase, an interview and a card sort were used to gather qualitative data on the expectations of volunteer tourists. Phase 2 involved the gathering of predominantly quantitative data and is discussed in detail with a view to providing insights into the development and distribution of the survey instrument and applicable analytical techniques. A brief overview of the data collection process is shown in Figure 2, which depicts each step of the process and the periods in which data was collected. The rationale for both these methods will be elaborated on in this chapter, along with a

detailed explanation of the two phases of data collection associated with this study. The adoption of mixed methods in this study necessitates the use of slightly differing paradigms in analysing the data collected (Creswell 2013), a consideration which will also be discussed in detail later sections.

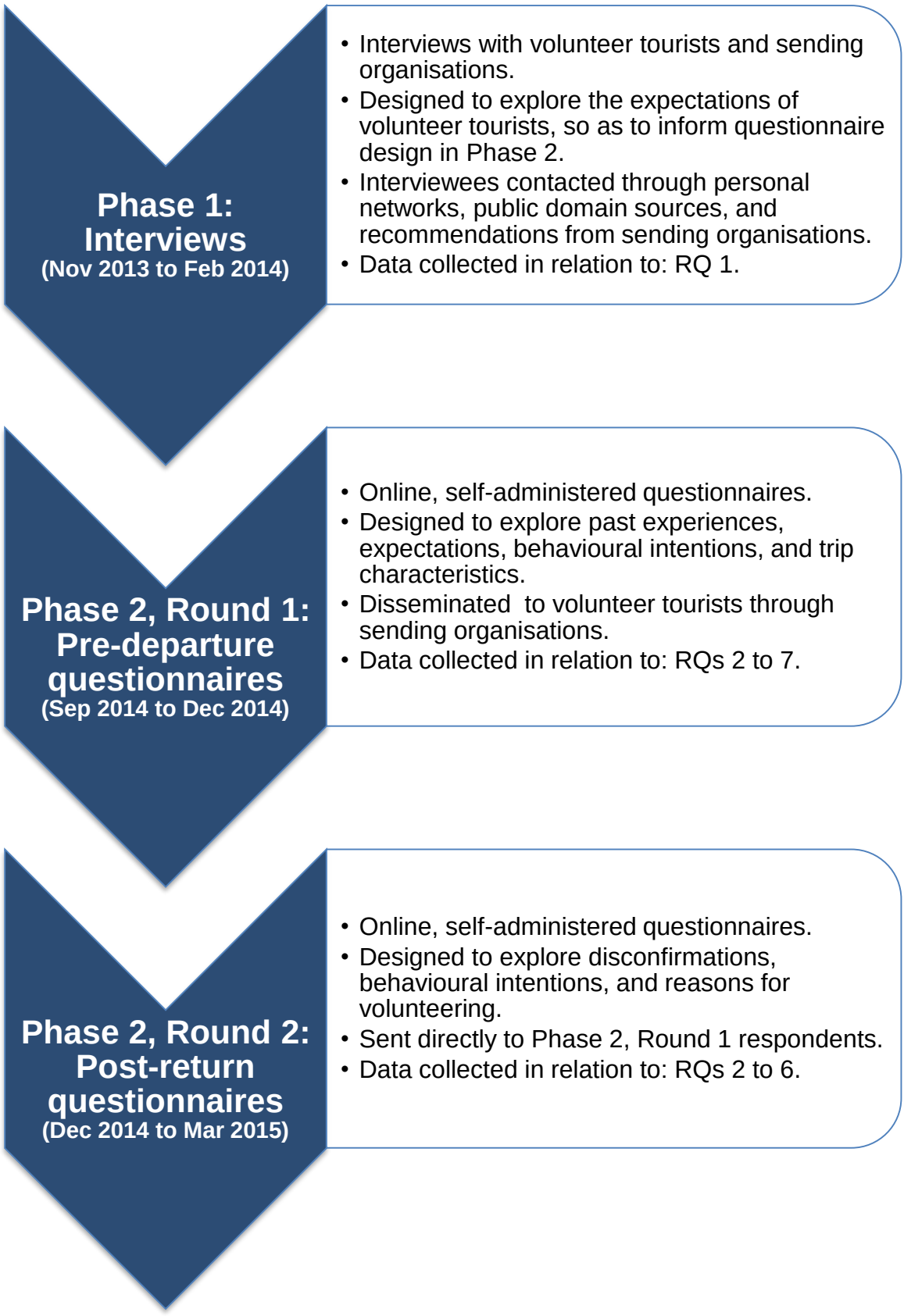


**Figure 2: Overview of data collection process**

### 4.3.1 Overarching research paradigm

A research paradigm involves explaining the fundamental beliefs underpinning an investigation and may include epistemology (how we know what we know), ontology (the nature of reality) and methodology (Hanson et al. 2005; Tashakkori & Teddlie 2010). It assists the reader to understand and interpret the data from the researcher's perspective (Denzin & Lincoln 2011). Traditionally dominated by the positivist and constructivist paradigms, a third, namely, mixed method has gained both in popularity and acceptance in social science research (Doyle, Brady & Byrne 2009). The positivist paradigm is based on realism and assumes the existence of objective and knowable truth based on the truth of logic or mathematics (Teddlie & Tashakkori 2009). It leads the researcher to a deductive outcome based on empirical data that flows from theory (the general) to numbers (the particular) (Teddlie & Tashakkori 2009). Conversely, the constructivist paradigm ascribes understanding and the meaning of phenomena to participants by incorporating their subjective views (Creswell & Plano Clark 2011). It employs inductive reasoning to discover theory from the particular phenomenon (Teddlie & Tashakkori 2009). The positivist presupposition of a single and measurable reality is at odds with the constructivist view, which holds that multiple constructed realities generate different meanings for individuals (Onwuegbuzie & Leech 2005). Such contradictory positions have led to mutual criticism, with positivists questioning the applicability of context-specific qualitative research, and constructivists criticising the failure of quantitative researchers to consider the meaning and richness associated with individual subjects. Mixed methods offer a more pragmatic approach by allowing researchers to employ both predominant paradigms, using the data that is best able to address the research questions (Creswell & Plano Clark 2011).

Studies involving expectations and evaluations of service have largely relied on quantitative data (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry 1988) as a result of the tendency to subtract by measuring differences between the two. The quantification of these expectations and evaluations is fundamental to EDP, which considers disconfirmation a function of expectation and performance. While some studies have established expectations in tourism (Fang, Tepanon & Uysal 2008; Kim 1997; Yoon & Uysal 2005) and volunteerism (Farmer & Fedor 1997; Taylor et al. 2006), there has been limited exploration of expectations in the volunteer tourism experience context (Chen & Chen 2011).

The lack of an established, empirically tested list of expectations for volunteer tourists necessitated that this study conduct further exploration of these expectations (Andereck et al. 2012). On this basis, an exploratory sequential design was adopted. Qualitative data was used to explore the phenomenon before the design of a quantitative phase (Creswell et al. 2003). Through individual interviews, the qualitative data was analysed and the findings utilised to develop the quantitative survey instrument (Creswell & Plano Clark 2011).

## 4.4 Phase 1 – Qualitative methodology

The literature on expectations has noted that stakeholders directly involved in consumption experiences are the key to exploring service expectations (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry 1985). In this case, the stakeholders in the volunteer tourism experience include volunteer tourists, sending organisations and host communities. The knowledge of expectations resides with the tourists as they have undergone the process of the experience and had their expectations disconfirmed or confirmed. While the consciousness of expectations may not be explicit during the experience, a

retrospective view may afford the experienced volunteer tourist an understanding of their trip expectations. In addition, the sending organisation, being the designers and marketers of such trips, may provide insight into the expectations of their clientele through conversations and interactions with them. However, the host community was not included in the data collected for this research as their view of expectations was likely to be aligned with the host community perspective, instead of the volunteer tourist perspective which is the focus of this study. Hence to establish a list of volunteer tourism expectations, volunteer tourists and sending organisations were interviewed to explore expectations in the appropriate context.

### 4.4.1 Qualitative paradigm

While the overarching framework utilised in the latter half of the study was positivist, the social constructivist framework (Creswell 2013) was adopted in the initial stage of establishing the expectations of volunteer tourists. These expectations were informed by existing literature on expectancy studies in the fields of volunteerism and tourism, as well as interviews. Social constructivism explores the meanings that individuals attribute to their interaction with people or objects, providing a plethora of meanings that individuals could attach to a singular event (Creswell 2013). The pattern of meaning is developed from the subjective meanings derived from the experiences examined, and is subjected to the negotiated social and historical contexts of each individual interviewed (Creswell 2013; Crotty 1998). The effects of history and language are inevitably strong influencers of experience description, ensuring that there is never an ‘objective' description of what is perceived to be reality (Creswell 2013). There are several approaches under the auspices of social constructivism, including narrative, phenomenological, ethnographic, case study and grounded theory

research, which are also applicable to other frameworks within qualitative research (Denzin & Lincoln 2011).

Narrative research is expressed as the lived and told stories of individuals, primarily to do with accounts of events or actions, or a series of events or actions, chronologically connected in the view of each individual (Chase 2005; Czarniawska 2004). Phenomenological research, however, aggregates the experiences of several individuals and seeks to distil these experiences into commonalities, a universal essence that is applicable across a range of experiences or experience characteristics (van Manen 1990). Ethnographic research extrapolates this to a larger scale in the context of a culture-sharing group, and involves the researcher describing and interpreting the shared and learned values, behaviours, beliefs and language of the group (Harris 1968). Ethnographic research is generally either realist, where an objective account of the situation is constructed from what is heard or observed (Van Maanen 1988), or critical, where authors advocate for the emancipation of groups marginalised in society (Thomas 1993). Case studies are similar in scale to ethnographic research, involving a culture-sharing group, but they take on the limited temporal characteristic of narrative research in that they are restricted to the study of particular cases, or the use of specific cases as an illustration of the issue or problem, thereby providing illumination in a limited manner (Merriam 1998). Such case studies are generally conducted with multiple sources of information that ultimately yield case descriptions and case themes (Creswell 2013). Grounded theory, on the other hand, is a means of moving beyond description to generate or discover a theory through the unified theoretical explanation for a process or an action (Corbin & Strauss 1990).

In examining the expectations that inform volunteer tourists, the common characteristics shared amongst potential respondents could result in knowledge of the

expectations of participants in volunteer tourism trips and possible consciousness of these expectations. Since the aim was to aggregate such common expectations, and narrative research seeks to outline individual stories and experiences, it was not considered appropriate in the present study. Ethnographic research was also rejected as it involves a far more extensive array of data collection techniques than is needed for this exploratory phase, and requires a much more socially homogeneous group than the individuals who were interviewed to obtain the requisite information (Madison 2005). Case studies were not used, as in order to obtain the widest set of expectations associated with volunteer tourists, the respondents needed to be spread across a range of volunteer tourism programs, in contrast to multiple participants of one volunteer tourism trip as the use of case studies necessitates (Merriam 1998). Grounded theory, in seeking to develop frameworks or theories that can contribute to the study of phenomena, was beyond the scope of the Phase 1 data collection and the information needs of the study. Phenomenology, on the other hand, was suitable for this phase of the study as it can identify commonalities between the experiences of those knowledgeable in the expectations of volunteer tourists, resulting in a set of expectations which can be universally applied across groups of volunteer tourists (Creswell 2013; Denzin & Lincoln 2011). The adoption of an exploratory approach is also particularly suited to phenomenological research (Creswell & Plano Clark 2011).

In using phenomenology, it is important to understand that there is a primary assumption of consciousness, in which the reality of an object is inextricably linked to one's consciousness of it (Stewart & Mickunas 1990). It assumes that reality is only perceived in the context of an individual's experience. This affords objects with meaning as a result of experience and evaluation (Stewart & Mickunas 1990). Hence the conveyance of meaning through language is necessarily reflective of the thought

and consciousness of the phenomenon (Ormerod & Ball 2008). However, this reflection of thought and consciousness has also contributed to differing opinions about the epistemology that phenomenology serves. Some agree that its nature is social constructivist because its presentation of reality is predicated on the basis of thought and consciousness (Stewart & Mickunas 1990), while others have argued that phenomenology can be employed as a form of positivism, revealing the 'realities' that exist beyond individual consciousness (Kvale & Brinkmann 2009). The use of phenomenology in Phase 1 of this study employed a social constructivist paradigm, as it sought to explore experience expectations as interpreted by the volunteer tourists and sending organisations interviewed, instead of determining a set of experience expectations that were applicable universally across all travellers.

Phenomenology's focus on language and meaning contributes to its popularity within the social sciences, particularly in the areas of thinking (Aanstoos 1985), perception (Wertz 1986) and learning (Colaizzi 1971). There are two main descriptions of data in phenomenology – the hermeneutic, which is also known as interpretive, and the descriptive, which is description that is derived from participants' lived experience (Creswell 2013). These two schools of thought have dominated the study of phenomenology and many of the studies that employ the use of phenomenology are designed around their assumptions (Moran 1999). With hermeneutic phenomenology, researchers make use of textural description of what participants experience to draw understanding of the intention and meaning behind their actions (Moustakas 1994). It employs reflective interpretations of a text to extend beyond a description of the experience, taking into account the underlying conditions in history and the environment that account for this experience (Gadamer 1976; Moustakas 1994). The process of analysis generally follows Ricoeur's (1971) four criteria: a fixation on

meaning, dissociation from the explicit intention of the author, the necessity of approaching and interpreting the text as an interconnected whole instead of discrete units, and the text's potential for multiple interpretations. The last criterion – data's potential for multiple interpretations – is a result of the heavy involvement of the researcher in the treatment of text, developing multiple interpretations via the researcher's consciousness rather than prioritising the reflections of participants.

Descriptive phenomenology, on the other hand, is a means of entering participants' consciousness to understand its meanings with the intuition and self-reflection as a guide (Moustakas 1994). It is a means of exploring the relationship between what exists in conscious awareness and what exists in the world (Husserl 1977). Descriptive phenomenology is predicated on two elements – intentionality and intuition (Husserl 1977). Intentionality is the act of perceiving through judging, valuation and wishing, implying a manner in which an object exists in the mind of the perceiver (Husserl 1977). The utilisation of intuition is important to descriptive phenomenology as it indicates an intrinsic ability to derive knowledge from human experiences (Moustakas 1994). It is intrinsic to this form of phenomenology as it assumes that humans are intuitive-thinking beings who are capable of reflection, in effect judging, valuating and understanding, thereby distilling experiences down to their essence.

In examining perceptions, Pickering (2001) argues that the value of an object is dependent on how it is perceived by the person involved and the circumstances in which it is encountered. Furthermore, the ability to perceive is related to the reflexive character of human consciousness, thereby contributing to human beings' ability to bring actions into consciousness to find out why an intended outcome has not materialised (Pickering 2001), and further reinforcing the importance of consciousness in action. Therefore the difference between descriptive and hermeneutic

phenomenology lies in the interpretive party – the former engages the intentionality and intuition of the participant being examined as an initial medium, before this set of information is analysed further by the researcher, while the latter involves the researcher heavily as the medium of interpretation. In descriptive phenomenology, participant perspectives receive greater focus than those of the researcher (Creswell 2013).

To obtain a comprehensive list of volunteer tourist expectations, Phase 1 of this research used descriptive phenomenology to obtain interview data. The choice of descriptive phenomenology over its hermeneutic counterpart was largely due to the examination of expectations, which are the internal processes and evaluations of individuals (Dougherty & Shanteau 1999). Experience was introduced to explain the discrepancy between people's knowledge and perceptions of the external world, and their ability to interpret the world in light of past encounters with it (Greenway 1982). Though they may be informed by both internal and external information sources, expectancies are not easily inferred via factual text or the reporting of an event. It is a by-product of the lived experience of the participant and results from their history and environment (Clow et al. 1997; Devlin, Gwynne & Ennew 2002), therefore the use of hermeneutic phenomenology, in which the researcher seeks to infer meanings from texts, was not considered appropriate in the present circumstances. With its emphasis on intention and intuition, descriptive phenomenology was considered more suitable for the purposes of Phase 1. As the goal was to generate a list of expectations, it was imperative that the individual be allowed to take into account their experience and reflect on it before providing an answer that was representative of the knowledge they had accumulated in having lived the experience (Moustakas 1994). In engaging the consciousness of the respondent, it was also possible to gain insight into the ways in

which pre-trip expectations could be modified as a result of experience, forming yet another source of information on potential future participation in volunteer tourism trips and other forms of volunteering (Devlin, Gwynne & Ennew 2002).

In applying descriptive phenomenology to underpin Phase 1 for its emphasis on collecting interpreted data from the participants' perspectives, the researcher was aware of the limitations that this method may impose on accessing these perspectives. The introspective self-reporting nature of descriptive phenomenology may be limited by one's ability to access this information, where a complete account cannot be provided due to an inability to understand or recall the information required (Berry & Dienes 1993). The introspection required in Phase 1 may result in negative utility if participants unwittingly provided inaccurate or misleading accounts of their knowledge due to promptings from the researcher (Ormerod & Ball 2008). However, such limitations are more applicable to the examination of procedural knowledge – people's knowledge of how to do things – rather than declarative knowledge, which is people's factual knowledge of the world (Ormerod & Ball 2008). People have greater access to factual than procedural knowledge and are more favourably disposed to expressing characteristic concepts that pertain to their subject domains verbally rather than elucidating a step-by-step decision process for performing a task (Morris 1981; Ormerod & Ball 2008; White 1988). Further, others have argued that declarative knowledge can be more accurately elicited through structured one to one interviews which guide the inquiry in a way that aids understanding of how people organise such knowledge (Shadbolt & Burton 1989).

Phenomenology has been widely used in the parent fields of volunteer tourism, namely volunteerism and tourism (Jamal & Pernecky 2010; Wijesinghe 2011). Phenomenology serves as a systematic way to interpret the nature of experience in

each field, thereby stimulating an understanding of participation and experience from the perspectives of various stakeholders (Jamal & Pernecky 2010). Rather than expecting participants to provide causal explanations of experiences, the focus of phenomenology is on reality as described by participants, therefore it places emphasis on perceptions and meanings instead of measurement and causality (Rossman & Rallis 2012). Within tourism, phenomenology has been used to examine tourists' experiences (Cohen 1979; Curtin 2006; Li 2000; Santos & Yan 2010; Szarycz 2008) while in the volunteerism context, it has been used mainly to examine motivations (Ronel 2006; Seaman 2012; Yeung 2004). There is a preference for the use of hermeneutic phenomenology in both fields (Andersson & Öhlén 2005; Jamal & Pernecky 2010; Ronel 2006; Seaman 2012). However, in many studies related to tourism and volunteerism, the exact branch of phenomenology used is often unidentified, resulting in an array of applications of phenomenology that borrow from other concepts such as postmodernism and feminism (Szarycz 2009). The researcher sought to avoid such ambiguity by adopting the social constructivist paradigm and a nominalist epistemology (Neuman 2012), which is consistent with the descriptive phenomenology that will be utilised in this study.

To ensure that the information provided by participants in Phase 1 was as close to their personal experiences as possible, the researcher bracketed her own volunteer tourism experiences to exclude them from the data analysis (Moustakas 1994). The researcher has taken part in three separate volunteer tourism trips before, thereby affording her some insight into the expectations and experiences of the volunteer tourist. However, the practice of bracketing is encouraged in descriptive phenomenology as setting aside one's own experiences allows one to take on a fresh perspective towards the phenomenon under examination (Moustakas 1994). In

utilising this, the data gathered was largely free from the influence of the researcher's prior experience and knowledge gathered from the literature, with the exception of key words that were used in the card sort, explained later in this chapter. While it was inevitable that interviews led by the researcher may have been influenced by her previous experience of similar activities, her awareness of the potential influence on participants' responses, along with a structured interview process, minimised personal opinions that may have interfered with the responses recorded.

### 4.4.2 Qualitative data collection

Phenomenological studies can employ several methods to collect data. These include individual interviews, focus groups, observing and collecting documents (Denzin & Lincoln 2011; Yin 2011). While the first three are associated with primary data, 'collecting' is more closely related to secondary data, in which existing text and documents are analysed (Yin 2011). Given the focus on experiences, which is an intimate latent construct that cannot be observed, both the observation and secondary data methods were deemed to be unsuitable. The employment of either would be better associated with hermeneutic phenomenology (Sharkey 2001), as opposed to the descriptive phenomenology that guides this study. Both individual interviews and focus groups utilise targeted questions and structure to elicit information from respondents (Denzin & Lincoln 2011).

Individual structured interviews were deemed to be more suitable for this study. In a focus group setting, there exists a potential for participants to adjust their responses in relation to other participants, a situation that is particularly problematic if the behaviour of a minority of participants results in the silence of others (Morgan 1996; Stewart, Shamdasani & Rook 2006). As the focus of Phase 1 of data collection was on exploring the depth and breadth of volunteer tourist expectations, individual

interviews gave the researcher an opportunity to clarify and probe further, without the interruption of others. Furthermore, face-to-face interviews allowed the researcher to observe the respondents' body language to ensure that they were not made to feel uncomfortable with questions during the course of the interview (Kvale & Brinkmann 2009). However, recognising that respondents may not have been able to attend face-to-face interviews, phone interviews were utilised as an alternative, though these were not as effective in putting the respondents at ease as the face-to-face interview format. Both volunteer tourists and sending organisations were interviewed for Phase 1. Volunteer tourists were interviewed to elicit understanding of their past volunteer tourism experiences and expectations while sending organisations were interviewed to leverage their understanding of volunteer tourist expectations.

Card sort analysis is a form of coding that ranks factors into discrete categories according to a particular dimension (Ormerod & Ball 2008). Card sorts allow individuals to assign order to a set of variables, or to group objects into similar categories (Ormerod & Ball 2008). The latter, usually known as 'all in one' sorts, requires respondents to create categories under which similar cards may be grouped, and is a technique used to elucidate common attributes (Rugg & McGeorge 1997). This was not suitable for the present study as it would not have provided the information needed from this phase, which is an elaboration on the categories of expectations and not a further contraction of the eight via categorisation. In the present study, this involved the eight categories of expectation that have emerged from the existing literature on expectations in volunteerism and tourism (See Table 2). These respectively were accommodation, activities, destination exploration, interaction with locals, interaction with other participants, safety, skills practised and support from staff. Thus, an aggregate ranking was implemented via the card sort, as it allowed for a

hierarchical representation of importance to emerge for each interviewee (Harloff 2005).

**Table 2: References to the eight categories of expectations in tourism and volunteerism**

| Categories of expectations | References from the tourism literature | References from the volunteerism literature |
|---|---|---|
| Accommodation | del Bosque & Martín 2008; Husbands 1994; Pesonen & Komppula 2010; Tribe & Snaith 1998 | Not applicable. |
| Activities | Andereck et al. 2012; Coghlan 2008; del Bosque & Martín 2008; Husbands 1994; Kim 1997; Pesonen & Komppula 2010; Tribe & Snaith 1998 | Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley 2002; Nichols 2013; O'Donohue & Nelson 2009; Omoto, Snyder & Martino 2000; Taylor et al. 2006; Wharton 1991 |
| Destination exploration | Andereck et al. 2012; Chen & Chen 2011; del Bosque & Martín 2008; Husbands 1994; Kim 1997; Pesonen & Komppula 2010; Tribe & Snaith 1998; Tung & Ritchie 2011 | Not applicable. |
| Interaction with locals or beneficiaries | Andereck et al. 2012; Chen & Chen 2011; Coghlan 2005; del Bosque & Martín 2008; Husbands 1994; Kim 1997; Tribe & Snaith 1998 | O'Donohue & Nelson 2009; Omoto, Snyder & Martino 2000; Wharton 1991; Wymer, Riecken & Yavas 1997 |
| Interaction with other participants | Andereck et al. 2012; Coghlan 2005; Tung & Ritchie 2011 | Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley 2002; Nichols 2013; O'Donohue & Nelson 2009; Omoto, Snyder & Martino 2000 |
| Safety | del Bosque & Martín 2008; Khan 2003; Kim 1997; Pesonen & Komppula 2010; Tribe & Snaith 1998 | Not applicable. |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Skills | Andereck et al. 2012; Coghlan 2005; Kim 1997; Pesonen & Komppula 2010; Tung & Ritchie 2011 | Nichols 2013; O'Donohue & Nelson 2009; Omoto, Snyder & Martino 2000 |
| Support from staff | Andereck et al. 2012; Coghlan 2005; Tung & Ritchie 2011 | Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley 2002; Nichols 2013; O'Donohue & Nelson 2009; Taylor et al. 2006 |

Interviewees were asked to undertake two simple card sorts to rank the categories of expectations pre-trip and post-return, in which the single criterion was to place the cards in order of importance to them, with the most important at the top. An alternative to this simple card sort would have been a pairwise comparison card sort, in which pairs of cards were presented to respondents to elicit relative rankings, so as to build up a comprehensive ranking of all the cards based on their relative importance (Rugg & McGeorge 1997; Schwartz & Sprangers 1999). If the pairwise comparison card sort was used for this study, the eight cards that needed to be ranked would have required each interviewee to rank 28 distinct pairs of cards in order to ensure that each card

had been ranked against all the other cards. A representation of 28 pairs is shown in Table 3.

**Table 3: Card sort pairs**

| Themes | Acc | Act | Des | IntL | IntP | Saf | Ski | Sup |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Acc** | Invalid pair | Pair 1 | Pair 2 | Pair 3 | Pair 4 | Pair 5 | Pair 6 | Pair 7 |
| **Act** | Repeat of Pair 1 | Invalid pair | Pair 8 | Pair 9 | Pair 10 | Pair 11 | Pair 12 | Pair 13 |
| **Des** | Repeat of Pair 2 | Repeat of Pair 8 | Invalid pair | Pair 14 | Pair 15 | Pair 16 | Pair 17 | Pair 18 |
| **IntL** | Repeat of Pair 3 | Repeat of Pair 9 | Repeat of Pair 14 | Invalid pair | Pair 19 | Pair 20 | Pair 21 | Pair 22 |
| **IntP** | Repeat of Pair 4 | Repeat of Pair 10 | Repeat of Pair 15 | Repeat of Pair 19 | Invalid pair | Pair 23 | Pair 24 | Pair 25 |
| **Saf** | Repeat of Pair 5 | Repeat of Pair 11 | Repeat of Pair 16 | Repeat of Pair 20 | Repeat of Pair 23 | Invalid pair | Pair 26 | Pair 27 |
| **Ski** | Repeat of Pair 6 | Repeat of Pair 12 | Repeat of Pair 17 | Repeat of Pair 21 | Repeat of Pair 24 | Repeat of Pair 26 | Invalid pair | Pair 28 |
| **Sup** | Repeat of Pair 7 | Repeat of Pair 13 | Repeat of Pair 18 | Repeat of Pair 22 | Repeat of Pair 25 | Repeat of Pair 27 | Repeat of Pair 28 | Invalid pair |

* Note: Only Pairs 1-28 were used. All grey coloured pairs were eliminated from this calculation as they either comprised of two cards of the same category or were repeats of existing pairs.

The use of 28 card sorts would have been tedious for the interviewee and would have quickly induced respondent fatigue. For the purposes of this study, the card sort was used as a tool to elicit elaboration and discussion, hence the simple card sort ranking was chosen with two hierarchical sorts in each interview to facilitate deeper discussion based on each category of expectation (Summerskill & Pope 2002). The resulting rankings were taken as indicators of mental organisation according to the categories of expectations (Davies, Gilmore & Green 1995), which allowed the researcher to develop a preliminary analysis of the importance of expectations as perceived by the participants.

The duration of the interviews conducted was 45 to 60 minutes to minimise undue inconvenience for the respondents. While the interviews with experienced volunteer tourists took place in public establishments such as cafés at their convenience, those with sending organisation representatives largely occurred during office hours, occupying time which would otherwise be spent on business activities. In line with Victoria University's Human Research Ethics guidelines, each respondent was provided with an Information Sheet explaining the research objectives, what their participation in the study would involve and potential risks associated with their participation. Please refer to Appendix E for a copy of the information sheet used for volunteer tourist interviewees. This information sheet included the contact information of the researcher, her Principal Supervisor and the Victoria University Ethics Secretary, and was emailed to each respondent before the interview. A hard copy was also provided to them on the day of the interview. This informed the respondent about the interview procedure and reassured them that the interview would be conducted with minimal risk, outlining avenues for complaint if they felt that they had been mistreated. A verbal summary of this sheet was provided at the start of each, after which a consent form confirming voluntary participation in the interview was presented for interviewees' signatures. Appendix F provides an example of the consent form. The information sheet and consent form for sending organisation representatives can be seen in Appendix G and Appendix H.

The data collection in Phase 1 differed slightly between experienced volunteer tourists and sending organisations, though both took the form of interviews and card sort analyses. The interview sequence with experienced volunteer tourists is described first in this section, and the interview sequence with sending organisations thereafter.

#### 4.4.2.1 Interview sequence for experienced volunteer tourists

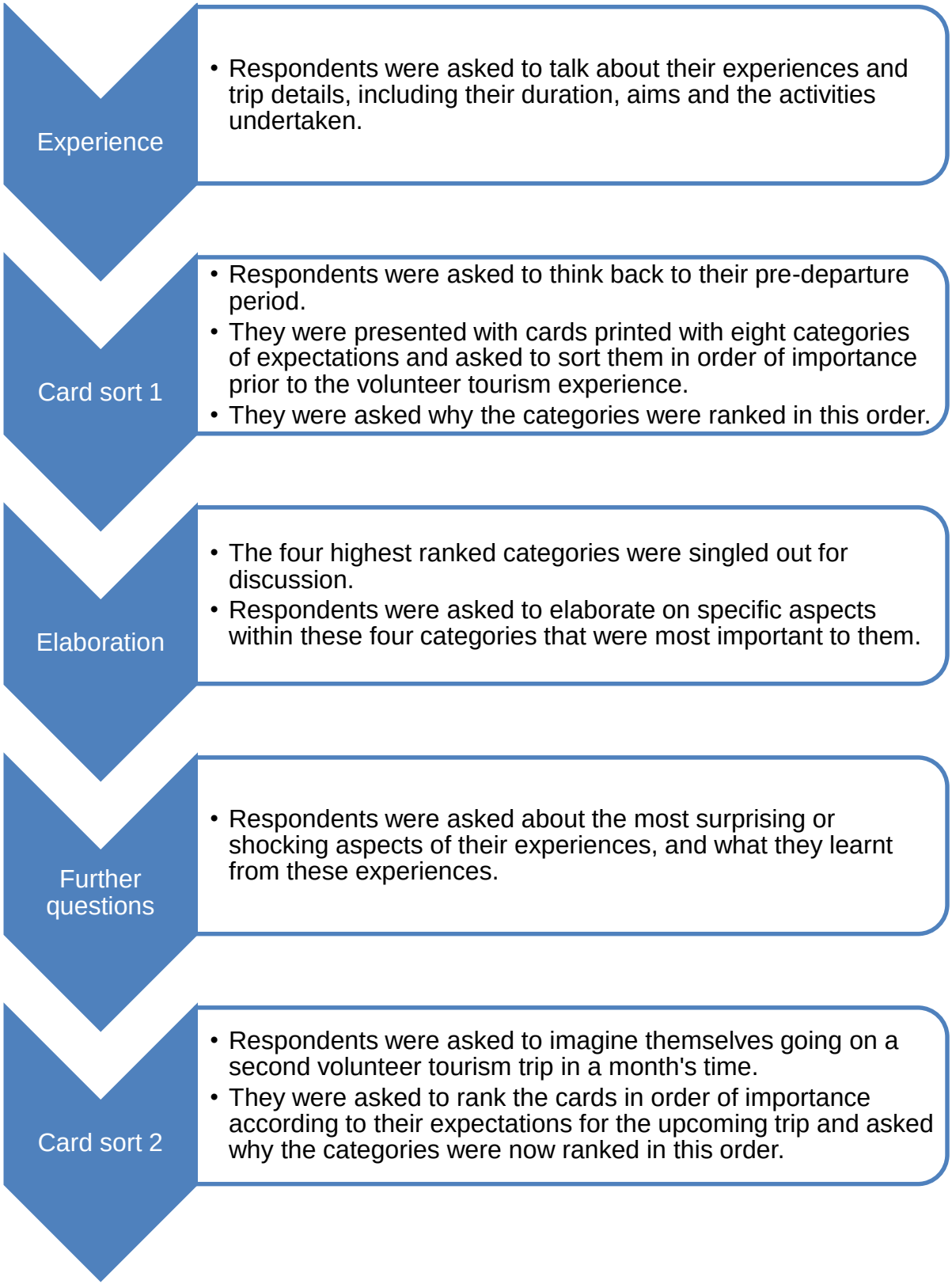


**Figure 3: Interview sequence – Experienced volunteer tourists**

As one of the most important tools for ensuring that accurate data is gathered in interviews, the structured interview protocol was followed closely by the researcher (Shadbolt & Burton 1989). This structure was used to encourage recall to pertinent expectations through a discussion of the interviewee's experiences. The structure of the planned interview is shown in Figure 3. All volunteer tourist interviews were conducted face-to-face as the potential interviewees who were contacted either agreed to this format of interviews or rejected the interview request. At the start of the interview, the elicited description of experienced volunteer tourists' experiences enabled the researcher to understand their experiences better and to ask deeper questions pertaining to their expectations for later in the interview. The request for interviewees to recall their pre-departure period encouraged the recollection of their pre-departure mindset in expressing their expectations associated with that period. With this mindset at the forefront, the results of the card sort were more likely to yield a ranking closely reflective of the relative importance of their expectations at that time. Interviewees were also asked to contribute categories of expectation that were inadequately represented by the eight provided categories. The interviewees were then asked to explain why they chose to rank certain categories above others, allowing the interviewees to confirm their choice of ranking, after which an in-depth discussion of the four top-ranking categories occurred. This discussion allowed for more details to emerge about the specific aspects of each category that were important to the interviewees.

Aside from the explicit rankings and relevant discussions, interviewees were also asked about the most surprising and shocking aspects of their experiences. This was another method employed by the researcher to understand their pre-trip. It provided a means of inferring pre-trip expectations that were not included in or articulated by the

card sort process. For example, Interviewee A observed that one of the things she found most surprising was the process of self-discovery. This was more subtle than she had anticipated. This expectation of self-discovery on a volunteer tourism trip was not one that was included in the card sort, nor was it articulated when the interviewees was asked if there were expectations beyond the eight categories presented for sorting. Lastly, with the second card sort, interviewees were asked to imagine themselves embarking on another volunteer tourism trip in a month's time. This was intended to shift the interviewee's mindset from pre to post-trip. With this shift in mindset and the benefit of hindsight, this question provided the researcher with an indication of how the interviewees' expectations changed over the course of their experiences. The interviewees were also asked to explain the new rankings they presented at the second card sort, elucidating further details about their expectations of volunteer tourism trips.

#### 4.4.2.2 Interview sequence for sending organisations

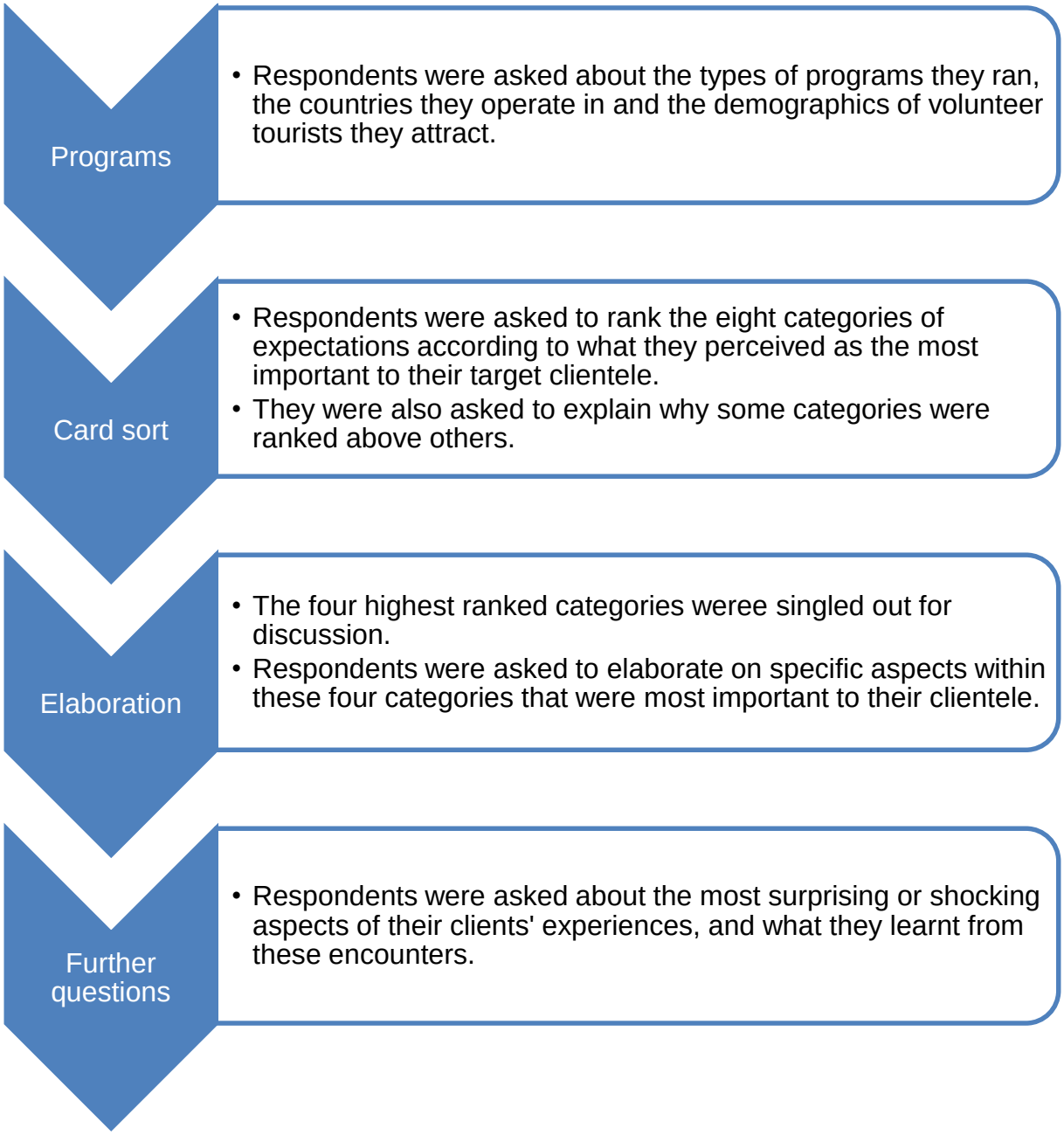


**Figure 4: Interview sequence – Sending organisation representatives**

As shown in Figure 4, the interviews undertaken with volunteer tourism sending organisations differed slightly from the ones conducted with tourists. As the representatives sought from these sending organisations were those who had an understanding of what volunteer tourists expect from their trips – having to design trips and prepare pre-departure briefings to both encourage and assuage volunteer tourists

– the interviews were conducted to elicit information more from an organisational and less from a personal perspective. Hence there was only one card sort carried out with each sending organisation. Interviews with sending organisation representatives commenced with questions about the types of programs operated and clientele attracted. This allowed the researcher to understand the operations of the sending organisations and ask questions in order to elicit organisational details that were relevant to each. Where interviews were conducted face-to-face, representatives were then asked to participate in the card sort process to rank the eight categories of expectations according to what they perceived as being most important to their clientele. Where phone interviews were conducted, the eight categories of expectations were emailed to the respondent prior to the scheduled interview. The researcher then asked for a verbal ranking of the eight categories in order of their importance to the sending organisation's target clientele. Based on the results of the card sort, only the four highest-ranked categories were discussed in more detail. This was to encourage representatives to provide as much detail about the expectations as possible, while avoiding question fatigue.

### 4.4.3 Qualitative data sampling

The respondents were sourced through the researcher's personal networks, from public domain sources and through recommendations from sending organisations. Purposive sampling was used. This technique was chosen because individual respondents had to have had prior experience of volunteer tourism programs to be able to recall their experiences and expectations (Marshall 1996). Furthermore, sending organisations were deemed to have been able to provide relevant insights into the expectations of their target markets. The researcher postulated that to reach theoretical saturation during this exploratory phase, which was augmented by the

existing literature on expectations, a target population of about ten respondents was needed (Morse 1995). Theoretical saturation is the state of data adequacy in which data is collected and analysed to the point when no new information is obtained (Morse 1995). The sample of ten will be above the recommended number of six respondents for discerning the essence of experience in phenomenology (Morse 1995; Sandelowski 1995). To achieve maximum variation within this returned sample in aid of theoretical saturation (Sandelowski 1995), purposive sampling was used to identify a mix of respondents to be interviewed. As such, four sending organisations were interviewed, alongside a mix of male and female experienced volunteer tourists, within the age range of 18 and 75 years old.

### 4.4.4 Qualitative data analysis

The qualitative data collected from the interviews was analysed as a basis for the questionnaire design to be used in Phase 2. There are two common methods for interview analyses, focusing on different techniques, and the applicable techniques depend on the research objectives. These two foci are meaning and language (Kvale & Brinkmann 2009). The focus on meaning requires the use of coding, meaning condensation and meaning interpretation to elucidate the main themes of an interview, while the focus on language addresses the use of linguistic forms and grammar – the language devices of interviews – to generate and verify the meaning of statements (Kvale 2008). Since the objective of Phase 1 was to develop a list of volunteer tourists' expectations, the focus of the analysis was on meaning rather than the nuances of language. The use of meaning condensation by reducing text to meaningful categories was in line with the use of descriptive phenomenology, in contrast to meaning interpretation, which involves a more critical interpretation of the text that aligned with the hermeneutic tradition (Kvale & Brinkmann 2009).

Firstly, the interviews were reduced to categories of expectations. This approach was ideal as a method of analysis since categories can be developed in advance or developed in the process of the analysis (Kvale & Brinkmann 2009). The eight existing categories of expectation was supplemented in the course of the interviews. The condensation of meaning to form these categories of expectations followed the procedure developed by Giorgi (1997) based on phenomenological philosophy. After a complete read-through, the researcher determined the meaning units arising from the text, as expressed by the respondents (Giorgi 2012). A straightforward definition of the meaning units was undertaken, allowing respondent statements to be grouped thematically (Giorgi 1997). These meaning units were then interrogated for suitability to the specific purposes of this phase of the study, providing a structure that consists of essential, non-redundant categories. These formed the basis for further interpretation and analysis (Giorgi 1997). In the case of phenomenological-based meaning condensation, it was paramount that in-depth and rich descriptions of phenomena were obtained from respondents to determine the key categories.

After the development of these categories, coding – the tagging of text segments with particular key words (Gibbs 2007) – was used to associate relevant sections of the text with each category. This process aided the development of specific examples of expectations relating to each category, which in turn informed the specific questions that were used in the questionnaire for Phase 2. Coding during the course of interviews (*in situ* coding) can increase coding accuracy because the respondent's presence offers the researcher the opportunity to ask clarifying questions (Kvale & Brinkmann 2009). However, it was not used in this instance. The omission of *in situ* coding was attributable to the structure of the interview, which separated questions relating to the existing categories of expectations from the new categories, therefore allowing the

researcher to identify new categories of expectations arising from the interview and clarifying these new categories as they arose.

In the next section, the quantitative methodology will be discussed, accompanied by the rationale for choosing the methods which were used in the analysis.

## 4.5 Phase 2 – Quantitative methodology

The use of EDP in satisfaction and expectancy studies has commonly necessitated the use of quantitative measures to determine discrepancies between expectations and the perceived reality of experiences (Yüksel & Yüksel 2001). These measures have approached the quantification of expectations from two main perspectives. The subjective approach infers confirmation-disconfirmation by computing the differences between expectations and evaluations (McKinney, Yoon & Zahedi 2002; Meyer & Westerbarkey 1996). The direct approach requires the respondent to provide a judgment of whether the service expectations were met, eliminating calculations on the part of the researcher (McKinney, Yoon & Zahedi 2002; Yüksel & Yüksel 2001). In either instance, respondents are asked to estimate the likelihood of occurrences of the use of a product or service in the future, thereby providing a basis for comparison (Oliver 1997). In the area of services, established quantitative measures include SERVQUAL (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry 1988) and SERVPERF (Cronin & Taylor 1994), which can be applied in diverse contexts. In the ecotourism context, an adaptation of SERVQUAL named ECOSERV has been developed, which, like its parent measures, also concentrates mainly on the service provider rather than the service experience (Khan 2003). These measures, while established, are not used in the present study as they focus on studying expectations in the context of service fulfilment by providers, in contrast to the experience exploration perspective

undertaken in this study (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry 1988). Similarly, established surveys of destination related expectations (Oppermann 2000; Yoon & Uysal 2005), though related by virtue of their tourism association, were not used. This was because they seek to measure expectations, loyalty and behavioural intentions that are associated with specific locales, as opposed to types of tourism experience. The current study seeks a clearer understanding of what is expected of the experience itself, regardless of whether it is within the purview of the provider (Ryan 2002a). Such a perspective allows the volunteer tourism experience to be viewed as a singular event for examination, the effects of which are expected to manifest in the post-return questionnaire responses.

In the area of volunteer tourism, there are no established measures of expectations, though there are two studies that have conducted tentative work in this area, with a third and fourth study briefly touching on the subject. These four studies will be briefly outlined in order of relevance to this current study, starting with the most relevant. The similarities will be noted, and contrasted with the areas which differentiate this study from each of the four expectation-related studies.

Andereck et al. (2009) explored the expectations of people who were considering committing to a volunteer tourism trip, and included questions relating to their expectations of the experience. However, the respondents were by and large in the information search phase of the decision making process compared to those targeted by the current study, who will be located further along this consumption process (Andereck et al. 2009). Furthermore, Andereck et al. study focused on the motivations and subsequent segmentation of potential volunteer tourists based on these motivations. Though motivations are relevant to this study, they are not its focus. Lastly, many of Andereck et al.'s (2009) questions centred on expectations about what

sending organisations would provide, thereby adopting the service provider focus of SERVQUAL, which deviates from the experience focus adopted in this study. A second study, by Lee and Yen (2015), explored the motivations of Korean college students on volunteer tourism trips, adopting a pre-trip and post-return measurement of motivations to examine the correlation between them and post-purchase intentions to participate in further volunteer tourism trips. This study parallels the methodology adopted in the current study, but departs significantly in the measures utilised, focusing on motivations instead of expectations. The measurement of post-purchase intentions is a particular point of difference because it is a closer parallel with the customer satisfaction-loyalty research that dominates customer satisfaction studies.

A third study identified cultural learning as an expectation of volunteer tourists in a brief paragraph about its findings, but the interviews with ten participants did not yield a wide breadth of information relating to the study of expectations (Chen & Chen 2011). In the fourth study, McGehee (2002) tested a theoretical model based on social psychological and resource mobilisation theories as an explanation for changes in social movement participation amongst Earthwatch expedition volunteers. It tested the effects of their volunteer tourism trip on self-efficacy and network ties, and how these influenced participants' behavioural intentions to participate in social movements, such as political lobbying and activism (McGehee 2002). While Lee and Yen's (2015) study was concerned about future intentions to participate solely in volunteer tourism trips and McGehee's study was concerned with intentions to participate in social movements, the current study is concerned with behavioural intentions relating to local community and domestic travel volunteering among returned volunteer tourists, in addition to further volunteer tourism travel. The lens through which this study is viewed is also vastly different from the McGehee (2002) study, which tested the effects of self-

efficacy and network ties on behavioural intentions, thus adopting a different approach to the examination of behavioural intentions. The lack of established expectations in volunteer tourism meant that the design of the questionnaire in Phase 2 had to be based on both the academic literature on tourism and volunteerism, as well as the results of the Phase 1 interviews.

This quantitative research phase was designed with two rounds of data collection as it is one of the ways in which the effect of a significant event may be measured (Ruspini 2002; Taris 2000). In this case, the volunteer tourism experience was the significant event around which the behavioural intentions relating to overseas travel, overseas volunteering, domestic travel volunteering and local volunteering were examined. Thus, the first round of data collection took place pre-departure, while the second round was administered 1 to 2 weeks post-return. While the pre-departure questionnaire measured past experiences, expectations, behavioural intentions and sources of information for their expectations, the post-return questionnaire measured disconfirmation, behavioural intentions and requested elaboration for the behavioural intention responses. Both rounds of quantitative data were collected via self-administered online questionnaires. The dissemination of the first round was done through cooperating sending organisations, as the researcher had no access to their client databases. The subsequent round was disseminated directly to potential respondents via the email addresses provided in their responses to the first questionnaire. This two-round design of the study was adopted to address research questions 2 to 7, but presented considerable barriers to the fulfilment of sample size requirements, which will be discussed later in this chapter. The risk of attrition between phases was one which was inherent to the use of multi-phase research designs (Boys et al. 2003). The incidence of attrition necessitated efforts to recruit a great number of

respondents in the initial phase. This took into consideration a percentage of initial respondents who were anticipated not to complete the second round of data collection (Boys et al. 2003; Taris 2000).

The risk of attrition was exacerbated by the reflective nature of the questionnaire (Cousins, Evans & Sadler 2009). As an experience that is frequently described as a challenge to the beliefs and perspectives of participants, respondents may have been prevented from completing the second questionnaire through an inability to reflect on or resolve the dissonance that had arisen from their experiences. This was a factor evident in the interview with Interviewee 3, who confessed that she was initially overcome by the futility of her experience and was unable to speak about it for a year after her return. Because the experience can be intensely personal, it was unlikely that this form of attrition could be mitigated by factors other than time. However, attrition born of disinterest or a lack of motivation was mitigated with the use of personal appeals and incentives. In regard to the former, where possible, the researcher attended pre-departure briefings with the permission of the sending organisations to put forward a personal appeal to potential respondents and answer any queries they had. This was done with the hope of piquing their personal interest in the study and subsequent participation (Maynard 1996). An incentive was also offered to encourage respondents to complete the second phase: three prizes worth A$100 were offered in a prize draw, presented as a gift card to the winner or donated to a charity of the winner's choice. This incentive was designed to benefit the respondents, and to appeal to their altruism in supporting a social cause with which they may have had an affiliation (Taris 2000). With these measures in place, all efforts were made to minimise the attrition of respondents between rounds 1 and 2.

### 4.5.1 Development of the survey instrument

To ensure that the collected data addressed the research questions, it was imperative that the questionnaire was constructed effectively (Jennings 2010). In order to collect the appropriate data, the questionnaire comprised a mix of questions, ranging from attitudinal measures to open-ended questions.

As the research questions concerned expectations, expectancy disconfirmation and satisfaction, the key constructs and variables to measure them were determined, along with the most suitable measures for each (de Vaus 2013). Five-point Likert scales were employed to assess the pre-departure expectations and post-return disconfirmation held by volunteer tourists. While the pre-departure expectations were developed from a mix of both academic literature and the results of Phase 1, the use of EDP in this study provided two constructs that could be measured in the post-return questionnaire. In the earlier discussion of EDP, two methods dominate the measurement of disconfirmation: the inferred and direct methods. While the former measures the difference between performance [P] and expectations [E] to infer disconfirmation [D], represented as D = P - E, the latter takes a direct approach in asking respondents for their evaluation of expectancy disconfirmation (Meyer & Westerbarkey 1996; Teas 1993). The latter method was chosen to measure disconfirmation in this study due to the key criticism directed at the inferred method, in which the mathematical outcome of disconfirmation provides an understanding of performance only in relation to the initial expectation. This could result in skewed results where in a disconfirmation of +1 could have been the result of a respondent with P=2, E=1 or another respondent with P=5, E=4 (Chon, Christianson & Lee 1998; Teas 1993). Both of these hypothetical respondents could conceivably have very different satisfaction scores as a result of their vastly different initial expectations.

Additionally, the use of the direct method – the summary judgment of confirmation/disconfirmation by asking respondents if a variable was 'better than expected' or 'worse than expected' – eliminates the need for researcher calculations (Danaher & Haddrell 1996; Prakash & Loundsbury 1993). Critics of the direct method accuse it of neglecting the cognitive adjustments of expectations when disconfirmed (Yüksel & Yüksel 2001), a valid criticism from the viewpoint of the Assimilation Theory (Anderson 1973; del Bosque & Martín 2008). However, in examining the impacts of disconfirmation, it is the outcome and not the process of the disconfirmation that is most relevant to this study, thereby providing a clearer understanding of the actual effects disconfirmation has on behavioural intentions, regardless of the cognitive adjustments required. The measurement of pre-trip expectations in this study then indicates the levels of expectations relevant to each variable before it is affected by the experience, while the disconfirmation measures the post-experience, adjusted evaluations of expectation fulfilment for each variable.

Related to the measurement of these variables is the choice of scales. In social sciences, particularly in the area of customer satisfaction research, scaled responses are often used for the measurement of attitudes and attributes (Oliver 1980). Five-point Likert-type scales were used to measure respondents' agreement with to the statements of expectation relating to their upcoming trip. A 'Not Applicable' ('N/A') option was also included in the event that respondents did not think that particular items were applicable to them. Likert-type scales, commonly used to measure attitudes or opinion (de Vaus 2013), allowed respondents to not only express their level of expectation for each item, but also indicate the extent to which these expectations were important to them. While the most common ratings for these scales are five-, seven-, and nine-point scales, the five-point scale was chosen for this study

as it provides a simple measure of amplitude in agreement or disagreement, without overwhelming the respondent with choices (Fink 2009; Rea & Parker 2005). This to ensure that respondents were not put off by having too many choices to select for the 20 expectation item involved, while still providing an indication of the directionality and intensity of their responses (de Vaus 2013). In addition, the instructions for the expectations section of the questionnaire were phrased neutrally to avoid influencing respondents' answers towards agreement or disagreement. It was important to design the questionnaire in a way to best reflect the true views of the respondents, with as little interference or bias from the researcher as possible.

In measuring the variables for behavioural intentions and satisfaction, five-point Likert-type scales were also used. In regard to behavioural intentions, respondents were asked to rate the likelihood of their starting or continuing volunteer tourism or related activities beyond the trip. This scale was represented by '1 – Extremely unlikely' and '5 – Extremely likely' on opposing ends, with '3 – Neither likely nor unlikely' in the middle. The five-point rating scale encompassed by these options was also chosen for its simplicity in allowing respondents to express the likelihood of their behavioural intentions positively and negatively, while acknowledging that some would feel more strongly than others about these intentions. Similarly, overall satisfaction was measured on a similar five-point Likert-type scale in the post-return questionnaire, with the options of '1 – Very dissatisfied' and '5 – Very satisfied' on each end, and a neutral '3 – Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied' option.

In the disconfirmation section of the post-return questionnaire, where respondents were asked about how well their expectations were fulfilled in relation to the expectation variables, the middle option was 'As expected'. This option represented the neutral confirmation of the expectation variables, without either positive or negative

confirmations which would have been represented by the other choices. This inclusion of a middle alternative was deliberate for several reasons. Firstly, while there are arguments for the use of binary answer formats – wherein respondents are only given two opposing positions to choose from – as they are quicker to answer and perceived as easier in general (Dolnicar, Grün & Leisch 2011), this study retained the middle alternative as a choice as it can be reflective of the true position of the respondent. Secondly, the omission of the middle position has been shown to contribute mostly to the moderate alternatives that were presented immediately to the sides of where a middle position might have been, with far fewer contributions to extreme positions (Presser & Schuman 1980). Lastly, the reliability and validity of response scales have been shown to improve with the inclusion of neutral middle alternatives (Saris & Gallhofer 2007).

In addition to these Likert-type scales, other multiple choice formats were utilised to gather relevant data. In the section on past experiences, where experiences could be easily counted as discrete encounters such as in the case of past overseas travel experiences, ordinal scales from ‘0’ to ‘5’ were used to measure respondents’ level of experience with related activities, with ‘More than five times’ as the last option. These ordinal scales allowed for easy recoding of those without experience, with minimal experience and with extensive experience when required for analysis (de Vaus 2013). Where it was not practical for past experience to be reliably recalled as discrete occasions – as in the case of past volunteering experience – respondents were asked to recall the average number of hours they had volunteered per month over the past year, as an indication of their experience of the related activity. Other ordinal scales were used for the amount each respondent paid for their trips.

Another form of measurement was undertaken to answer research question 5 - What are the sources that inform volunteer tourists' expectations? In order to find out the information sources that contributed to the formation of their expectations, respondents were asked to rank a list of information sources, after they had been asked about their expectations. These information sources, compiled from previous studies on expectation formation (Gnoth 1997; Oliver 2010; Webster 1991) are representative of both external and internal sources. External sources, such as word of mouth, media and promotional claims, provide cues and create a framework for potential consumers in anticipation of a product or service consumption experience (Oliver 2010; Seabra, Abrantes & Lages 2007). On the other hand, internal sources of information generally originate from consumers' past experiences and personal needs, playing a role in the intuitive expectations formed in advance of consumption (Oliver 2010). Both internal and external sources of information were listed in the pre-departure questionnaire, with instructions for respondents to rank the three sources of information that they thought had contributed the most to their expectations of their upcoming trip. The most influential was ranked 1, with progressively less importance choices ranked as 2 and 3. Although this list of information sources was compiled from the literature, provision was made for any other sources of information respondents consulted which were not on the list, with an 'Others – Please specify' option. This option allowed respondents to rank the newly-added source of information while also specifying its rank in relation to the other sources of information. This straightforward ranking exercise, while simple, was able to provide the data required to determine the key sources of information (Langville & Meyer 2012).

A key influence which could have distorted the responses received for this ranking exercise is the recency effect, in which short-term memory containing items that

respondents have been exposed to more recently has a higher probability of recall than those for which exposure was less recent (Körner & Gilchrist 2007). Factors that could have distorted the rankings via the recency effect include the dissemination of the questionnaire via sending organisations (thereby bringing sending organisations into recent memory) and the preceding questions about past experiences in travel and volunteering, all of which may have induced higher rankings for sending organisations or past experiences respectively. However, the order of the questionnaire placed the measurement of expectations directly before this ranking exercise, thereby disrupting the recency effect of the past experience questions on this ranking (Schwarz 2003).

Aside from ordinal scales and item ranking, categorical multiple choice questions were used, especially to establish the demographic and volunteer tourism trip profiles of each respondent. These included questions related to respondents' gender, their nationality, the countries they were mainly volunteering in, the types of volunteer activities they undertook, and their highest level of education obtained.

Since both rounds of questionnaire were self-administered, it was important to ensure that the questions were simply and clearly phrased, without compromising the quality of responses collected (de Vaus 2013). The use of a self-administration approach for these questionnaires was conducive to brief questions aligned closely with the overarching research questions. This was intended to reduce respondent attrition at the mid-questionnaire stage as a result of loss of interest which may arise in the case of overly long questionnaires (Rea & Parker 2005). Two issues were also crucial to the questionnaire design – that of social desirability and acquiescence in the responses. The social desirability effect assumes that many people answer survey questions in a way which presents themselves in the best light (Joinson 1999). This effect is more prominent in face-to-face questionnaire administration, as the urge to

appear favourably is magnified when in the company of another person, but can be reduced through the use of online questionnaire administration as it reduces the self-consciousness that may accompany face-to-face administration (Joinson 1999; Richman et al. 1999). This effect can be further reduced if respondents are allowed to complete questionnaires anonymously (Joinson 1999; Richman et al. 1999). While the former measure could be undertaken to reduce the effect of social desirability in the responses received, the latter measure requiring anonymity in the present study could not be enacted as the contact email of respondents was required to administer the post-return questionnaire. Therefore it could be expected that social desirability may affect some of the responses received.

Additionally, the acquiescence effect is most greatly felt in face-to-face interviews involving less educated respondents, where general questions are used, particularly on topics which respondents have not previously formed an opinion (de Vaus 2013; Hinz et al. 2007). It results in respondents being more likely to agree to attitudinal questions. While the key strategy for minimising this effect is the inclusion of a reverse coded ‘anti’ statement for every ‘pro’ attitude statement (de Vaus 2013; Schriesheim & Hill 1981), so as to cancel out the effect of acquiescence, this was not applied to the present questionnaire. The inclusion of reverse coded statements to all 20 expectation variables would have rendered the questionnaire long and unwieldy, increasing the rise of attrition due to the loss of interest (Rea & Parker 2005). In order to avoid this attrition, it was accepted that the responses received may have been affected by the acquiescence effect, while the expectation variables were worded as neutrally as possible to minimise this effect on responses.

Apart from the wording and selection of questions, the flow of the questionnaire was crucial to its design as it had the potential to either enable useful recall or produce

respondent bias (Rea & Parker 2005). As a result of the considerations noted above, the following flow was used in the pre-departure questionnaire:

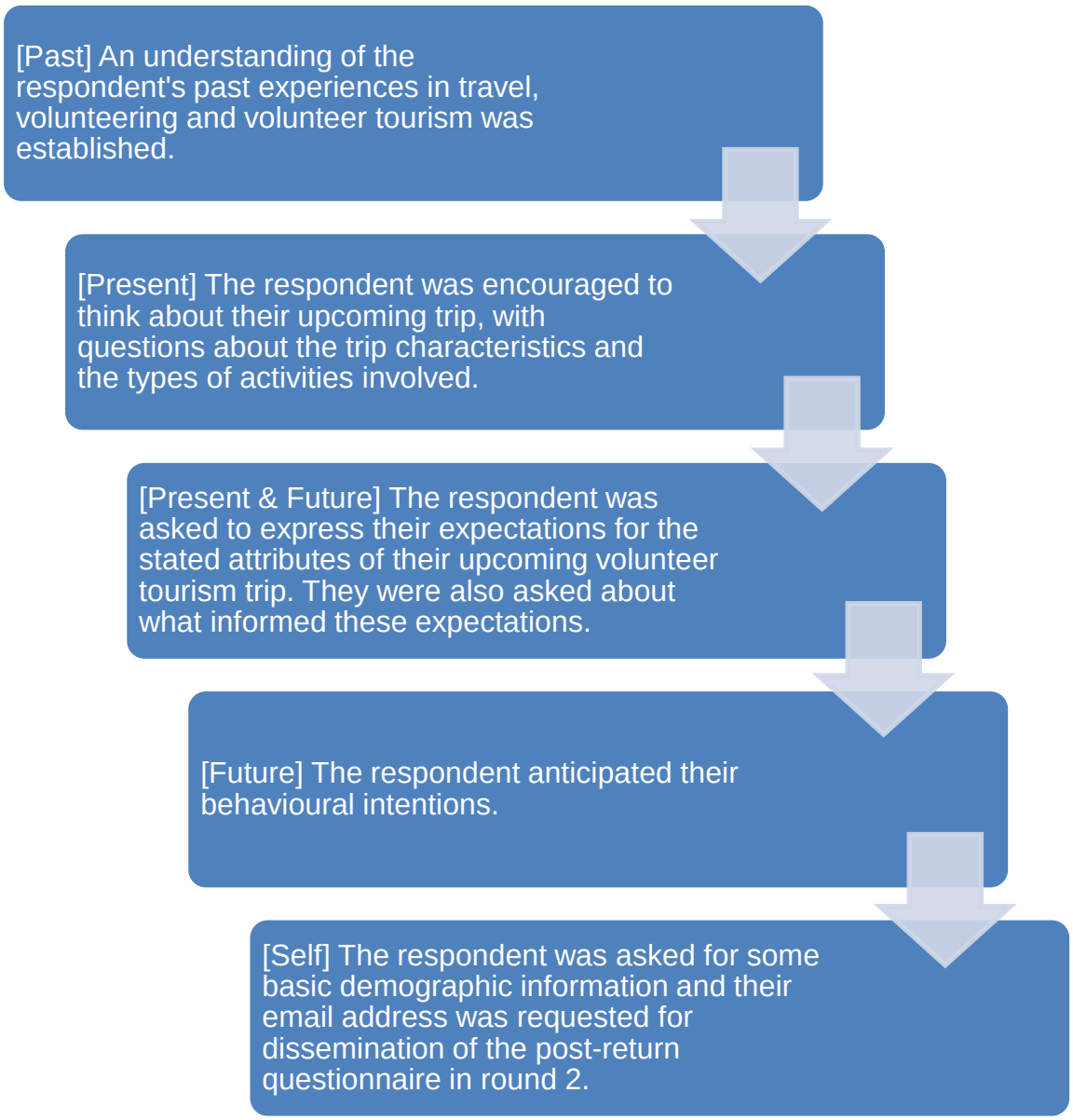


**Figure 5: Pre-departure questionnaire flow**

As Figure 4 depicts, the pre-departure questionnaire adopted a chronological sequence of questions, starting from past experiences to upcoming trip characteristics, such as duration, location, cost and the activities involved. After encouraging this recall, respondents were asked to express their levels of expectation in relation to the themes in the questionnaire, along with the sources of information which informed their

expectations. As there are different expectations, ranging from the ideal ('should be') to the minimum tolerable ('must be') (Oliver 1980), the wording of the expectations measured was critical to eliciting the most appropriate response from respondents (Kalamas, Laroche & Cézard 2002). The predictive expectations of respondents were most relevant to this study, particularly as the disconfirmation would be measured against their realistic predictions as opposed to ideal or minimum tolerable levels, and the expectations were phrased carefully with the terms 'will be' or 'will' referring to each. Respondents were then asked to express agreement with each predictive expectation on a five-point Likert scale. They were also given the option to select 'N/A' if an expectation was not applicable to them. Using the expectations as a springboard, respondents were then asked to consider their future behavioural intentions beyond volunteer tourism trips, and finally, basic demographic information and email addresses were requested to enable the dissemination of the post-return questionnaire.

The post-return questionnaire focused on recalling expectation disconfirmation and satisfaction with the respondents' recently-concluded volunteer tourism trip, and asked about their behavioural intentions, eliciting more detail than was requested in the pre-trip questionnaire. This is illustrated in Figure 6:

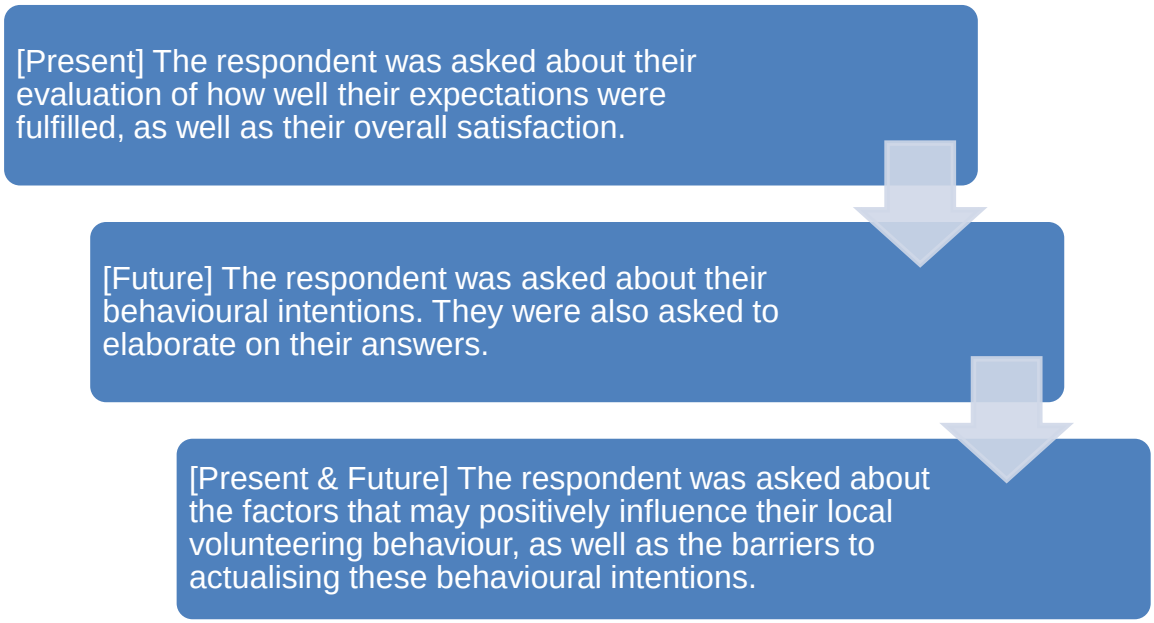


**Figure 6: Post-return questionnaire flow**

The post-return questionnaire started by reminding the respondent about the pre-departure questionnaire that they had completed. It then explained that they would be asked about how these same expectations were fulfilled and prompted them to begin thinking about their expectations in relation to their volunteer tourism experience. This provided the perception of expectation fulfilment for each attribute. Expectation fulfilment was measured on a 5-point Likert scale from 'Much worse than expected' to 'Much better than expected', with 'As expected' in the middle. An 'N/A' option was also provided for those who thought that particular expectations were not applicable to them. An overall satisfaction rating was also sought, after the respondent had the opportunity to review the various aspects of their expectations and fulfilment. This was also measured on a 5-point Likert scale with options ranging from 'Very dissatisfied' to 'Very satisfied'. The repeated measure of behavioural intentions was next, prompting respondents to anticipate their intentions relating to travel, volunteering and volunteer tourism in the future. They were also asked to elaborate on their behavioural intentions giving them the opportunity to articulate what they felt was most relevant.

Finally and noting the researcher's emphasis on volunteer tourism as a conduit for encouraging local volunteering, respondents were asked about the positive influences and major barriers to their future volunteering decisions.

In order to ensure a shared and consistent understanding of key terms, definitions were provided as a header on each page in both the pre-departure and post-return online questionnaires (Rea & Parker 2005). An example is provided in Appendix I. The definitions of the following terms were of particular note:

- *Domestic travel volunteering,*
- *Host destination,*
- *Local volunteering,*
- *Overseas travel,*
- *Overseas volunteering,* and
- *Sending organisation*.

The term *overseas volunteering* was used in preference to *volunteer tourism*. This substitution of terminology was deliberate. As critiques of volunteer tourism become more commonplace, there has been an increased reluctance on behalf of participants to identify themselves as volunteer tourists (Gray & Campbell 2007). This has prompted some to emphasise that they take overseas trips with the primary intention of volunteering, thus forming a distance from the leisure tourist image with its connotation of a secondary helping motive or agenda that is commonly associated with the term *volunteer tourist*. It was considered that using *overseas volunteering* would avoid deterring potential respondents who may not identify positively with the *volunteer tourism* descriptor.

### 4.5.2 Quantitative data analysis

The data collected from Phase 2 was subject to two main forms of analyses to answer the research questions proposed in this study. In regard to research questions 2 and 3, multinomial logistic regression ('MLR') was proposed to examine the relationship between past experience, expectations and behavioural intentions. Used when discrete variables are compared to continuous independent variables (Ledolter 2013), this method does not presuppose a linear relationship between dependent and independent variables. In respect to research questions 2 and 3, as the dependent variable was behavioural intentions ($BI_1$, $BI_2$) and changes in behavioural intentions ($\Delta BI$), these were discrete interval values as expressed by the Likert scale response provided by each respondent. However, the independent variables were to be calculated through an Exploratory Factor Analysis ('EFA'), determined with the mean of its constituent items (de Winter, Dodou & Wieringa 2009). Therefore to find out the relationship between expectations and behavioural intentions, MLR was to be utilised as the main form of analysis for research questions 2 to 5. While research questions that seek to explore the causal relationships of variables typically utilise multiple regression, it was not selected for use in this study because the method is only suitable for variables that are continuous in nature (Hair et al. 2010; Menard 2007).

In examining causal relationships, there are typically four pure models that can be simplistically presented using X (predictor), Y (outcome) and $\Delta$ (change in variable). These are:

(i) $X \rightarrow Y$, where the dependent variable is a function of the independent variable;

(ii) $\Delta X \rightarrow Y$, where a change in the dependent variable is a function of a change in the independent variable;

(iii) $X \rightarrow \Delta Y$, where a change in the dependent variable is a function of the independent variable;

(iv) $\Delta X \rightarrow \Delta Y$, where a change in the dependent variable is a function of a change in the independent variable.

(Menard 2002, 2007)

The present study tracked behavioural intentions over time but did not do the same for the independent variables of expectation and disconfirmation. The analyses that address research questions 2, 3, and 4 involved analysing behavioural intentions and their change in relation to the independent variables of expectations and disconfirmation, such as in the case of (i) and (iii). These two models are the unconditional change and conditional change models. The former involved a straightforward investigation of the effect of a change in independent variables relative to the dependent variable (Finkel 1995). The latter involved $Y_{t=2}$ (the later measured value) as the dependent variable, taking into account $Y_{t=1}$ as a predictor in the model (the earlier measured value), alongside the other independent variables (Agresti 2013). The latter model took into account the effects of $Y_{t=1}$ as an influencer of $Y_{t=2}$. The primary assumption in both these models was that the impact of the independent variables on the outcome was the same for each respondent, with each having the same marginal probability (Agresti 2013; Menard 2007).

The measurement of variables has been the subject of debate and criticism in the study of expectations and satisfaction. While there have been arguments made for the measurement of pre- and post-experience variables at a single point in time, these have attracted criticism. Critics of this method have questioned the influence of current outcomes in the accuracy of self-reporting prior psychological variables as it is

possible that these psychological variables may be manipulated to resolve dissonance arising from the experience (Yüksel & Yüksel 2001). This may give rise to confusion in the ordering of cause and effect, producing overestimation or underestimation of the predictor relative to the dependent variable as a result of ambiguous time ordering (Menard 2010). Placing a time lag between measurements of predictors and the dependent variables can assist in eliminating ambiguity related to temporal ordering (Menard 2002).

Two paired tests were undertaken to address research question 5. These test for significant differences in behavioural intentions compared with previous experiences. For each past experience measure, the variables were recalculated using IBM SPSS Statistics from discrete variables indicative of the past experience in each area (overseas travel, overseas volunteering, domestic travel volunteering and local volunteering) into two discrete variables of 'Yes' and 'No'. This provided two distinct groups for comparison purposes, with a further, in-depth analysis of the extent of respondents' past experiences on behavioural intentions to be conducted thereafter, as shown in Table 4.

**Table 4: Repeated measures t-tests**

| | $BI_1$ | $BI_2$ | $\Delta BI$ |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Yes** | Cell 1 | Cell 2 | Cell 3 |
| **No** | Cell 4 | Cell 5 | Cell 6 |

Firstly, t-tests were conducted to ascertain if there were significant differences in $BI_1$ (using Cells 1 & 4) and $BI_2$ (Cells 2 & 5) within the groups. The results then provided a basis for a further t-test comparison, in order to examine whether there were any significant differences between the 'Yes' and 'No' groups in relation to changing

behavioural intentions (Cells 3 & 6). This allowed research question 5 to be answered in exploring the absolute effects of past experience on behavioural intentions before and after the experience. Any significant changes in behavioural intentions as a result of the volunteer tourism experience will also be described in the analysis chapter.

### 4.5.3 Analysis of open-ended survey responses

In the post-return questionnaire, respondents were asked to elaborate on the answers they had provided to the behavioural intention multiple choice questions. This allowed them to articulate what they felt was most relevant to the respective intentions. As respondents were encouraged to discuss these in their own words, the quantitative analyses proposed above were unsuitable for this data. Instead, the data for each behavioural intention was aggregated and analysed using NVivo 10. Thematic analysis, a phenomenological method of analysis that is used for the description of experiences and perceptions (Guest, MacQueen & Namey 2012), was conducted to understand the key reasons for the answers provided by respondents. The thematic analyses were partially quantified by the number of respondents who cited each theme, thereby providing a tentative hierarchy of the reasons proffered for each behavioural intention.

The results for local volunteering were also compared against the questions about influences to start or continue volunteering in local communities, and the barriers they faced that prevented them from doing so. In these two questions, respondents were provided a list of reasons for and barriers to local volunteering, compiled from the literature on volunteering. They were encouraged to select as many of these reasons and barriers as they thought were applicable to their particular circumstances. Since no ranks were involved in these questions, an aggregation of the respondents who had selected each reason or barrier was created to form a new set of lists. These lists

ranked the reasons and barriers according to the number of respondents who chose them. They were also compared to the qualitative data analysed above, and the literature review, in the upcoming analysis chapter.

### 4.5.4 Sampling

As the data collection involved the measurement of variables before and after the volunteer tourism trip, it was imperative that the respondents recruited for this phase of the study (i) had committed to attending a volunteer tourism trip, and (ii) had yet to depart. As was the case in Phase 1, purposive sampling was used to reach volunteer tourists who were about to embark on their trip (Marshall 1996), with sending organisations and a market research company approached to gain access to this sample population.

Based on the profile of respondents needing to meet the dual requirements of having committed to a volunteer tourism trip without having commenced it, the market research company was unable to provide its services to disseminate the questionnaire to its database. The proposed explanation was that it would be difficult to reach the targeted respondents since they constitute a niche traveller group that was made even smaller by the small window of eligibility between committing to a trip and departing. With the added requirement that respondents should be contacted prior to departure, the company suggested opening up the questionnaire to potential volunteer tourists who were considering their options and to returned volunteer tourists. As these were not the target demographic, the researcher did not engage the research company for assistance with the data collection.

As a personal presence at pre-departure briefings was deemed to be important for encouraging potential participants, 25 sending organisations with offices or

information sessions in Australia were contacted between August and September 2014 seeking permission for the researcher to attend these briefings. These sending organisations were sought using a mix of personal contacts, information from academic publications, and other public domain information such as organisation websites. Sending organisations that were contacted for the interviews in Phase 1 were contacted again in this second phase, regardless of their participation in Phase 1. The researcher also approached her university's Work Integrated Learning Manager to leverage on their extensive networks to obtain contact details of relevant sending organisations that may have accepted interns from the university previously.

The literature on volunteer tourism was once again reviewed to extract the names of Australian sending organisations that had collaborated with other researchers. Lastly, searches were made using the search engine Google, using the key terms 'volunteer tourism + Australia', 'overseas volunteering + Australia', 'volunteer overseas + Australia'. The list of sending organisations with offices or information sessions in Australia was subsequently compiled, with a total of 25 sending organisations meeting these criteria. After identifying these organisations, contact details were compiled for each organisation. Where possible, the researcher's personal contacts were used in the hopes of presenting a more convincing case to sending organisations for their participation in Phase 2. If personal contacts were not available, public domain information such as office telephone numbers or contact forms were used to touch base with other sending organisations. Initial phone calls or emails to these sending organisations included a short introduction of the researcher, the research aims and the request to allow the researcher to attend any upcoming pre-departure briefings. These emails also included an alternative option of disseminating the questionnaire online where this was impractical. The sending organisations approached comprised

a mix of commercial and not-for-profit operators, with most being in the former category. However, no sending organisation was able to accommodate the original request to attend pre-departure meetings, either because their pre-departure briefings were conducted online, or because they were wary of allowing entry by non-participants and/or non-employees into these events. Thus, the sending organisations were reminded of the alternative request.

This involved conducting the questionnaire online with their clientele departing on volunteer tourism trips between September and December 2014. To stimulate support from sending organisations, the researcher offered administrative assistance for anyone with an interest but who was hesitant to participate during their busy season. This support was in the form of a draft email, written from the sending organisation perspective, to be dispatched to pre-departure participants and detailing the prospective prizes for those who completed the questionnaires. The draft was sent to sending organisation contact persons with the assurance that they could edit it to suit the tone of their organisation, and that the researcher was not requesting for access to their client database with the invitation to participate. This was done to quell potential concerns that the researcher was requesting participant contact details over which sending organisations have an obligation of confidentiality. In return for cooperation from the sending organisations to disseminate the questionnaire, the researcher offered them a brief report on the study findings, with related recommendations.

Of the 25 sending organisations approached to participate, nine expressed interest in disseminating the round 1 questionnaire. The reasons offered by sending organisations that declined at this stage were that they had already contributed to other volunteer tourism research projects, they did not believe they had sufficient participants to warrant participation in the study, or concerns about overwhelming their

participants with information by including the questionnaire in their communications. Some weeks after the initial approach five sending organisations that had initially expressed interest, rescinded their initial offer because they were unable to obtain management approval for disseminating external questionnaires. As such, four sending organisations were ultimately involved in the dissemination of first round questionnaire to their participants. Of these, three chose to send a specific targeted email to promote the questionnaire. One opted to include the link to the questionnaire in their pre-departure information pack.

Based on the two main types of analyses required to answer the research questions, sample sizes were considered in respect to each method of analysis. The ideal sample size for t-tests largely depends on the number of cells. This is calculated by multiplying factors with levels, with a recommendation of 20 cases per cell as a minimum (Hair et al. 2010). As shown in Table 4, there are six cells, requiring a minimum of 120 discrete respondents for analysis purposes. However, the sample size requirements for MLR are higher. The recommendations for sample sizes in multinomial logistic regression are broadly similar to those applicable to multiple regression. There are authors who have recommended small numbers, with the proviso that accurate results are dependent on the representativeness of the population (de Winter, Dodou & Wieringa 2009; Gorsuch 1997). Some have also stated absolute numbers, such as a sample size of 100 for 10 independent items to detect fairly small $R^2$ values (10% to 15%) and a significance level of 0.05 (Hair et al. 2010). However, the most common recommendation to determine sample size is by ratio to independent variables. Such recommendations range from 2:1 to 100:1 (Costello & Osborne 2005; de Winter, Dodou & Wieringa 2009), with an often-quoted minimum of 5:1 (Hair et al. 2010). The most desirable recommendations range from 10:1 to 20:1 (Costello & Osborne 2005;

Hair et al. 2010; Jackson 2003), which is the returned sample size this study aimed for in collecting data. With 20 independent variables of expectations being measured, this would necessitate approximately 200 respondents completing both rounds of questionnaires in order to fall within this desired range.

With assistance from the four sending organisations, the questionnaire was sent to approximately 500 volunteer tourists who were due to depart in late 2014. With a desired returned sample size of 200 respondents completing both rounds of questionnaires, only 95 potential respondents attempted the questionnaire, with 77 proceeding to completion. Out of the 77, only 68 provided actionable email addresses to be contacted for round 2 of data collection. This represented a 13.6% response rate for the round 1 questionnaire.

The round 2 questionnaire was emailed to these 68 actionable email addresses on two separate occasions. An email was sent to each respondent three to seven days after their return dates, as stated in round 1. This email welcomed the respondent back to their home country, reminded them about their completion of the round 1 questionnaire, and included an encouragement to complete round 2 via the included link. Each respondent was also provided with a unique respondent number in the email containing the link to round 2, which they used to access the questionnaire. A second email was sent to the respondents a week before the round 2 questionnaire was closed, reminding them to complete the questionnaire if they had yet to do so. Out of the 68 actionable email addresses obtained in round 1, 40 respondents completed round 2 as well, representing a 58.8% return rate for this longitudinal phase. As the total number of respondents who completed both rounds of Phase 2 fell below the required minimum sample size for the multinomial logistic regression planned for this study, the researcher proceeded with an alternative analysis.

### 4.5.5 Alternative quantitative analysis

With the research questions in mind, the constraint of a smaller sample size was taken into consideration and an alternative analysis was proposed. This alternative plan took the form of univariate analyses, wherein the existence of statistically significant difference between groups is tested (Hair et al. 2010). This form of analysis, particularly the independent t-test and its non-parametric equivalent, the Mann-Whitney U Test, are suitable for small sample sizes (Hair et al. 2010). The non-parametric equivalent of the independent t-test was taken into consideration in view of the aforementioned social desirability effect, wherein respondents may report stronger intentions to volunteer as it presents them in a better light (Joinson 1999).

To explore the relationships outlined in research question 2 and 3, univariate analyses were conducted to test for significant group differences in expectation, disconfirmation and satisfaction for two groups of post-trip behavioural intentions relating to volunteer tourism, domestic travel volunteering and local volunteering. These two groups were made up respectively of those who expressed positive intentions to start or continue each form of volunteering, and those who expressed ambivalence or negative intentions to start or continue each form of volunteering.

A repeated measures t-test was conducted on each pre-trip and post-return behavioural intention pair in order to determine if there were significant changes in behavioural intentions over the course of the experience (Taris 2000). Changes in behavioural intentions were also computed by a subtraction of each respondent's $BI_1$ response from their $BI_2$ response. These changes in behavioural intentions ($\Delta BI$) were then used in univariate analyses related to research questions 4 and 5.

# Chapter 5 Analysis and findings

The previous chapter detailed the qualitative method that was used in Phase 1 of the study. It was proposed that the qualitative data on expectations would be collected through face to face interviews with volunteer tourists who had acquired prior experience as participants in volunteer tourism trips as well as with sending organisations. This chapter will discuss the interview findings. It will start with a brief profile of the interviewees, how they were approached and their volunteer tourism experiences. The discussion will proceed to the findings from this data set, both from the card sort as well as the elaboration offered by interviewees through the interviews.

## 5.1 Brief interviewee profile

11 volunteer tourists and sending organisation representatives were interviewed during Phase 1 of the investigation. Following the interview structure laid out in pages 126 and 129 of the previous chapter, volunteer tourists were questioned about their overseas volunteering trips and undertook two card sorts to inform the discussion about expectations. Sending organisation representatives undertook a single card sort to inform discussion about the expectations of their clients. The interview schedules and card sort sequences are outlined in Appendices A and B. Table 5 provides a brief profile of the interviewees. A more detailed profile is included in Appendix J.

**Table 5: Brief profile of interviewees**

| Identifier (Interviewee) | Demographic profile (gender, profession, age) / Organisation profile | Area of volunteering |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | Female, university student, early 20s | Education |
| 2 | Female, retiree, mid 60s | Child care |
| 3 | Female, community worker, early 30s | Community development |
| 4 | Female, recent graduate, mid 20s | Education |
| 5 | Female, social justice advocate, mid 30s | Support for hospitalised children |
| 6 | Female, early educator, early 50s | Education |
| 7 | Female, management consultant, early 30s | Community development |
| A | A commercial operator with 2 to 6 week programs in South-east Asia and Africa. | |
| B | A not-for-profit operator affiliated with an international charity, with 1 to 3 week programs operating in Asia, Africa and South America. | |
| C | A development charity operator offering 6 to 11 month programs in 13 countries around the world. | |
| D | A non-governmental organisation (NGO) offering volunteer programs lasting 6 months to 2 years in developing countries. | |

Interviewees 1 to 7 were volunteer tourists who participated in many volunteer activities during their trips, ranging from education and community development to child care and support. The ages of the volunteer tourists ranged from early 20s to mid-60s. The professions of these volunteer tourists included non-traditional professions, such as social justice advocate, described by the interviewee as encouraging the support and start-up of social enterprises and being involved in community-related causes (Interviewee 5). With the exception of Interviewee 7, all other interviewees had prior experience of community-related work in various roles - in their professions, volunteer work or as beneficiaries of community programs.

Despite a concerted effort to contact male interviewees with a view to achieving a more equitable gender balance, respondents were not forthcoming. Male volunteer tourists are typically a minority of participants (Tourism Research and Marketing Group 2008), with male respondents usually constituting only 20% to 25% of the volunteer tourist population (Andereck et al. 2012; GeckoGo 2009). Such figures may account for some of the difficulty in recruiting male participants. In addition, the researcher's requests for interviews with males were met with non-responses or rejections in her own network. This reduced the number of prospective male respondents and may explain some of the difficulty in recruiting male participants. However, the predominance of female respondents is representative of female participants making up the overwhelming majority of volunteer tourists. Through the various interviews, the discussions about expectations appeared to reach saturation since no new expectations were identified by later interviewees. On this basis it is unlikely that the exclusion of male volunteer tourists would have overly impacted on the study findings.

The researcher opted for career fairs and information sessions to identify the targeted sending organisations, namely public events where sending organisations promote their volunteer tourism programs and speak to potential participants. Of those who agreed to be interviewed, the four respondents included a for-profit commercial operator, two charities and an NGO. The four provided diverse perspectives about the different types of volunteer tourists that these sending organisations were likely to attract. Of these four organisations, two agreed to continue their participation into Phase 2 of the data collection.

## 5.2 What volunteer tourists expect from their volunteer tourism experience

In order to explore the effect of expectations, disconfirmation and satisfaction on volunteer tourists' behavioural intentions, the expectations must first be understood. To develop a list of expectations that was reflective of those held by volunteer tourists, data was collected via face-to-face interviews and card sorts. The following discussion is based on the card sort ranking undertaken during the interviews – once by each sending organisation and twice by each volunteer tourist. The eight categories of expectation were presented to interviewees for sorting in no particular order, though they are assigned and identified in alphabetical order for analysis purposes as follows:

**Table 6: Eight categories of expectations**

| Identifier | Expectation |
|---|---|
| Acc | Accommodation |
| Act | Activities |
| Des | Destination exploration |
| IntL | Interaction with locals |
| IntP | Interaction with other participants |
| Saf | Safety |
| Ski | Skills |
| Sup | Support from staff |

### 5.2.1 Simple rank aggregation by frequency (Overall and split)

Based on this set of identifiers the first round of interviewee card sorts were tabulated by ranking in the following table:

**Table 7: Ranking of expectations (Overall)**

| Interviewee/ Ranking | Volunteer tourists | | | | | | | Sending organisations | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | **6** | **7** | **A** | **B** | **C** | **D** |
| #1 | IntL | IntL | IntL | Des | IntL | Saf | Saf | Saf | Act | Des | Sup |
| #2 | IntP | Sup | Act | Saf | Act | IntL | IntL | IntL | IntL | Act | Saf |
| #3 | Act | IntP | Acc | Sup | Des | Sup | Act | Sup | Saf | IntL | Ski |
| #4 | Des | Saf | Ski | IntL | Ski | Act | Acc | Des | Sup | Ski | Acc |
| #5 | Acc | Ski | Sup | IntP | Sup | IntP | Sup | Act | Des | IntP | IntP |
| #6 | Ski | Act | Des | Act | IntP | Ski | Des | IntP | Acc | Sup | IntL |
| #7 | Sup | Des | IntP | Acc | Acc | Des | IntP | Ski | IntP | Saf | Des |
| #8 | Saf | Acc | Saf | Ski | Saf | Acc | Ski | Acc | Ski | Acc | Act |

**Table 8: Frequency of category coded against each rank (Overall)**

| Ranking | #1 | #2 | #3 | #4 | #5 | #6 | #7 | #8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Acc | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 4 |
| Act | 1 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 |
| Des | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 0 |
| IntL | 4 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| IntP | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 4 | 2 | 3 | 0 |
| Saf | 3 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 3 |
| Ski | 0 | 0 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 3 |
| Sup | 1 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 0 |

In Table 7, the overall ranking of expectations is presented, with the rankings of each interviewee's first or only card sort shown in rank order. This was re-coded into a frequency table as shown in Table 8, where the number of times each category of expectation was recorded against each ranking position. Based on the columns of Table 8, which represent the number of times a category of expectation was ranked in that position, the most frequently ranked #1 expectation was *Interaction with locals*, indicative of a strong general emphasis on this expectation. As with many other forms of travel, the expectation to interact with locals in their native setting was important to the volunteer tourist respondents. This is supported by statements such as 'I suppose the most important reason…was for me to be within another culture, with people who

were different from the community I'd grown up in' (Interviewee 3) and 'to immerse in the culture and experience day to day life and language, so I was better able to perform my volunteer activities' (Interviewee 5). Such sentiments were clearly at the forefront of the set of expectations presented, as immersion within foreign cultures and cross-cultural learning were explicitly mentioned in most volunteer tourists' interviews as being important. This category of expectation was closely followed by *Safety* ('that was my main concern, the safety of an under-aged person…our personal safety' – Interviewee 7 on the importance of *Safety* as an expectation)*, Destination exploration* ('We'd negotiate with the schools when we wanted to take time off…and I was really excited to tour Vietnam, I love travelling' – Interviewee 1)*, Activities* ('The majority of people are expecting a hands-on volunteer experience so that's important…the types of activities, how they'll be managed and run, what they can do.' – Interviewee B) and *Support from staff* ('Any issues and problems, anything, we need to know about it…we do what we can do' – Interviewee D). The ranking of these expectations provide an indicator of how the subsequent phases of data collection may provide an answer to research question 1, relating to the main expectations of volunteer tourists.

Aside from this overall analysis, further insights are provided from examining the difference in rankings between the volunteer tourists and sending organisations. Examining the two groups enabled the researcher to recognise subtle distinctions.

**Table 9: Raw ranking of expectations (Split)**

| Interviewee/ Ranking | Volunteer tourists | | | | | | | Sending organisations | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | **6** | **7** | **A** | **B** | **C** | **D** |
| #1 | IntL | IntL | IntL | Des | IntL | Saf | Saf | Saf | Act | Des | Sup |
| #2 | IntP | Sup | Act | Saf | Act | IntL | IntL | IntL | IntL | Act | Saf |
| #3 | Act | IntP | Acc | Sup | Des | Sup | Act | Sup | Saf | IntL | Ski |
| #4 | Des | Saf | Ski | IntL | Ski | Act | Acc | Des | Sup | Ski | Acc |
| #5 | Acc | Ski | Sup | IntP | Sup | IntP | Sup | Act | Des | IntP | IntP |
| #6 | Ski | Act | Des | Act | IntP | Ski | Des | IntP | Acc | Sup | IntL |
| #7 | Sup | Des | IntP | Acc | Acc | Des | IntP | Ski | IntP | Saf | Des |
| #8 | Saf | Acc | Saf | Ski | Saf | Acc | Ski | Acc | Ski | Acc | Act |

**Table 10: Aggregate ranking of expectations based on raw ranking**

| Interviewee/ Ranking | Volunteer tourists | Sending Organisations |
|---|---|---|
| #1 | IntL | Saf |
| #2 | Saf | Act |
| #3 | Des | Sup |
| #4 | Act | Des |
| #5 | Sup | IntL |
| #6 | IntP | Ski |
| #7 | Acc | Acc |
| #8 | Ski | IntP |

**Table 11: Frequency of category coded against each rank (Split)**

| Ranking/ Category of expectation | Volunteer tourists | | | | | | | | Sending organisations | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **#1** | **#2** | **#3** | **#4** | **#5** | **#6** | **#7** | **#8** | **#1** | **#2** | **#3** | **#4** | **#5** | **#6** | **#7** | **#8** |
| Acc | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 2 |
| Act | 0 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Des | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| IntL | 4 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| IntP | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| Saf | 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Ski | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Sup | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |

Table 9 presents the rankings for each interviewee. By aggregating the lists of interviewees into tables, it incorporates two sets of rankings for volunteer tourists

(Interviewees 1-7) and sending organisations (Interviewees A-D) (Langville & Meyer 2012). The aggregations in Table 10 allowed for the development of a listing of ranks from the input of multiple rankings from individuals (Ammar & Shah). Based on the frequency coding noted in Table 11, the ranking positions were mainly determined by the expectations which were ranked #1 most frequently by the groups of interviewees. Where an equal count occurred, it was resolved by considering the frequency with which each tied category appeared in the next highest ranking position. In such cases the category of expectation recording the highest frequency would be ranked higher than the others (Langville & Meyer 2012). Four categories were ranked #1 in the case of the sending organisations, and two categories (*Activities* and *Safety*) were ranked #2, producing another tie. Since *Safety* was ranked #3 whereas the next highest rank of *Activities* was #5, it was ranked higher than *Activities* for the sending organisation analysis in Table 9.

*Interaction with locals* was the most important category of expectation based on the responses of Interviewees 1 to 7. It was ranked highest by four volunteer tourists and in second place by another two volunteer tourists. The results are reflected in views expressed by interviewees such as ‘to be within another culture … a greater perspective on people, culture and things’ (Interviewee 3). Such expectations were not ranked highly amongst the aggregate of Interviewees A to D. This may reflect the higher priority attached to *Interaction with locals* amongst those who are embarking on their trips. Whilst volunteer tourists may not rank safety highly as an expectation before leaving, it is evident that sending organisations understand why participants may have little awareness of this issue, but also have experience of caring for participants who have been injured or have encountered unsafe situations at the destination. This has provided sending organisations with insights into why *Safety* can

be an important expectation, even if it was not as highly ranked by the volunteer tourist interviewees. This is exemplified by anecdotal evidence from Interviewees 2 and 3 who both encountered medical emergencies during their volunteer trips and appreciated the significance of medical safety overseas. Furthermore, Interviewee 2's trip coincided with political elections in her host destination, raising concerns about her physical safety since prior elections had resulted in violence and bloodshed. Other volunteer tourists also identified *Safety* as an important expectation. Being solo or first-time travellers contributed to this. Family and friends urged Interviewee 4 to watch a movie about kidnapping before embarking on her solo travel around South America. Interviewees 6 and 7 expressed that safety was paramount as a responsibility to their family members.

The disparity between volunteer tourists and sending organisations in this analysis may reflect their different perspectives of volunteer tourism trips. While volunteer tourists anticipated experiences that they could directly identify, these were largely focused on the more probable aspects of their experiences. However, sending organisations, in being instructed to rank the experience expectations of their clients, probably took a more retrospective view, in light of their expertise in interacting with many volunteer tourists. Hence their understanding of expectations was likely to be have been influenced by the reactions of volunteer tourists encountered in non-ordinary or improbable circumstances.

### 5.2.2 Average rank aggregation (Overall and split)

**Table 12: Average rank aggregation (Overall)**

| Interviewee/ Category of expectation | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | A | B | C | D | Average rank |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| IntL | 1 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 6 | 2.27 |
| Act | 3 | 6 | 2 | 6 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 8 | 3.82 |
| Sup | 7 | 2 | 5 | 3 | 5 | 3 | 5 | 3 | 4 | 6 | 1 | 4.00 |
| Saf | 8 | 4 | 8 | 2 | 8 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 7 | 2 | 4.09 |
| Des | 4 | 7 | 6 | 1 | 3 | 7 | 6 | 4 | 5 | 1 | 7 | 4.64 |
| IntP | 2 | 3 | 7 | 5 | 6 | 5 | 7 | 6 | 7 | 5 | 5 | 5.27 |
| Ski | 6 | 5 | 4 | 8 | 4 | 6 | 8 | 7 | 8 | 4 | 3 | 5.73 |
| Acc | 5 | 8 | 3 | 7 | 7 | 8 | 4 | 8 | 6 | 8 | 4 | 6.18 |

Since all interviewees were able to rank the eight categories of cards, the rankings could produce an average aggregate ranking for each category of expectation (Lin 2010). The average was calculated by taking the sum of all the integers representing the rankings of each category of expectation divided by the number of interviewees (Langville & Meyer 2012; Lin 2010).

| Acc | 5 | 8 | 3 | 7 | 7 | 8 | 4 | 8 | 6 | 8 | 4 | 6.18 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

Using the category of *Accommodation* as an example, its average aggregate rank was calculated as follows: (5 + 8 + 3 + 7 + 7 + 8 + 4 + 8 + 6 + 8 +4) ÷ 11 = 6.18 (rounded off to 2 decimal places). This process was repeated for each category of expectation. The results are presented in Table 12, sorted in order of average rank values. The category of expectation with the lowest average rank value was placed at the top because it was consistently highly ranked in the card sorts. A lower score is indicative of a category of expectation which was relatively more important than one with a higher score.

The average aggregate ranking considered the overall importance of expectations identified by the 11 interviewees, thereby providing a more holistic representation of their importance. This produced slightly different results from the previous discussion on the top-ranked items. Considering the overall ranking for each category of expectation, *Interaction with locals* remained the most important item for volunteer tourists. However, *Activities*, *Support from staff* and *Safety* emerged as the next most highly-ranked items. The relegation of *Destination exploration* to fifth position indicates the relatively lesser interest in exploring the area that was expressed by some volunteer tourists and sending organisations. Interviewee D, for example, mentioned that their volunteer placements emphasised the volunteer aspect and did not facilitate travel and exploration.

**Table 13: Average rank aggregation (Split)**

| Volunteer tourists | | | | | | | | | Sending organisations | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Ranking** | **Average** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | **6** | **7** | **A** | **B** | **C** | **D** | **Average** | **Ranking** |
| IntL | 1.71 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 6 | 3.25 | IntL |
| Act | 3.71 | 3 | 6 | 2 | 6 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 7 | 2 | 3.25 | Saf |
| Sup | 4.29 | 7 | 2 | 5 | 3 | 5 | 3 | 5 | 3 | 4 | 6 | 1 | 3.50 | Sup |
| Saf | 4.57 | 8 | 4 | 8 | 2 | 8 | 1 | 1 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 8 | 4.00 | Act |
| Des | 4.86 | 4 | 7 | 6 | 1 | 3 | 7 | 6 | 4 | 5 | 1 | 7 | 4.25 | Des |
| IntP | 5.00 | 2 | 3 | 7 | 5 | 6 | 5 | 7 | 7 | 8 | 4 | 3 | 5.50 | Ski |
| Ski | 5.86 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 8 | 4 | 6 | 8 | 6 | 7 | 5 | 5 | 5.75 | IntP |
| Acc | 6.00 | 5 | 8 | 3 | 7 | 7 | 8 | 4 | 8 | 6 | 8 | 4 | 6.50 | Acc |

Creating a second set of average aggregate ranks for each group of interviewees provides another perspective on the results. While the order of the average aggregate ranking for volunteer tourists remained the same as for the overall average aggregate ranking in Table 12, there was a noticeable shift in the five top-ranking expectations for sending organisation interviewees. While *Interaction with locals* remained one of the more important expectations, it tied with *Safety* from the sending organisation

perspective. Where *Activities* ranked second in the overall and volunteer tourists' average aggregate rankings, it had reversed positions with *Safety*. As explained earlier, this could be due to the greater frequency with which sending organisations encounter safety related issues. The high ranking for *Safety* could be attributable to a bias in perceptions.

The results of this card sort were used as an early indicator of the categories which may relate strongly to the research questions, particularly in the case of research questions 1, 3 and 4. These explore the important expectations, the relationship of intentions to continue volunteering and satisfaction relative to expectations. The card sort process also enabled the researcher to lessen the burden for interviewees by only seeking elaboration on the four highest ranked expectations in the first card sort. This approach allowed interviewees to provide more detailed elaborations on specific expectations within each category. The depth of these answers was instrumental in discovering additional categories of expectations which were not included in the original eight.

### 5.2.3 Changes in ranking over two card sorts

Each volunteer tourist undertook two card sorts, representing their expectations before embarking on their trip and their expectations if they were to undertake a second trip in the near future. The objective of this was to provide an indication as to whether their expectations changed as a result of their experiences, and to see which categories of expectations became more or less important to volunteer tourists throughout the course of their experiences. To elicit this information, the second ranking position of each category of expectation was subtracted from its ranking in the first card sort of the same interviewee, thereby producing a result which was representative of its direction and magnitude of movement in rankings.

**Table 14: Change in rankings over the two card sorts**

| Interviewee / Category | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Ranked lower | Ranked higher | Zeros |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Acc | -1 | 1 | 0 | -1 | 0 | 6 | -2 | -4 | 7 | 2 |
| Act | 0 | 1 | 0 | -1 | -2 | -4 | -2 | -9 | 1 | 2 |
| Des | -1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | -2 | 0 | 3 | -3 | 5 | 2 |
| IntL | 0 | -1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | -1 | 2 | 4 |
| IntP | 0 | 0 | -1 | 0 | 0 | -1 | 3 | -2 | 3 | 4 |
| Saf | 0 | 0 | 1 | -1 | 5 | -4 | -6 | -11 | 6 | 2 |
| Ski | -1 | 4 | 0 | 2 | -4 | 2 | 0 | -5 | 8 | 2 |
| Sup | 3 | -6 | -1 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 3 | -7 | 10 | 1 |

Table 14 shows the results after each interviewee's second ranking of each category of expectation was subtracted from the first ranking, in alphabetical order of the categories. A negative number indicated a fall in rankings. Conversely, a positive number indicated that the category of expectation was ranked higher in the second card sort than the first. A zero result meant that the rankings of this category of expectation for that particular volunteer tourist remained unchanged over the two card sorts.

With a score of -11, *Safety* experienced the most obvious fall in rankings amongst the eight categories. The fall in its ranking could be explained by the reassurance volunteer tourists got from their experience, in which they felt that they were well taken care of and therefore did not have *Safety* at the forefront of their expectations. This sentiment was prevalent in responses such as those from Interviewee 7 ('You never had to worry because that relationship was there all the time') and Interviewee 6 ('I'd never been overseas before…so safety was very important…. But there was an itinerary'), which reflected the importance of experience in reassuring volunteer tourists. Another category of expectation that was ranked lower was that of *Activities*, possibly eclipsed by other categories in importance. One explanation offered by

Interviewee 6 was that in participating in volunteer activities with the host community, the group was unsure if these were actually suitable for them, and therefore she held *Activities* at a lower rank because there was a need to '[find] out if they think it's useful…if they'll use this when we're not here'.

The positive and negative experiences with in-country staff emphasised the importance of *Support from staff* as an expectation, possibly contributing to its overall rise in ranking. Evidence from the interviewees who ranked this category higher in their second card sort than in their first supports this possibility, with Interviewees 4, 6 and 7 recognising that *Support from staff* was critical to their positive experiences, while Interviewee 1 came to that realisation through the negative experiences with the country manager she communicated with. The exception to this was Interviewee 2, due to the fact that she was about to embark on another trip to Kenya to assist the same orphanage she had helped before, disregarding the factor of *Support from staff* as she was undertaking this second trip as an independent traveller without depending on a sending organisation. The scores of *Accommodation* and *Safety* were largely influenced by singular interviewees. In the case of *Accommodation*, Interviewee 6 cited advancing age ('I'm older and I want air conditioning now. I want to sleep…[or] I would be grumpy') and a need for the space to reflect ('it's quite confronting at times and we just need a place to retreat to and rest') as factors in ranking it top in the second card sort. The positive change in ranking for *Safety* was mostly attributable to Interviewee 5, who had arranged her first volunteer tourism trip directly with a host organisation, and therefore 'I'm expecting them to take into account safety for me, and part of that relates to the cost…if it's paying for a service rather than doing something quite cheap and independent, then safety has to be part of that').

These changes in rankings provide indicators as to which categories of expectations may experience the most changes over the course of volunteer tourism experiences in Phase 2 of the study.

### 5.2.4 Additional categories of expectation

The eight categories of expectations used in the card sort were distilled from the existing literature on expectations in tourism and volunteerism. After the card sorting was complete, interviewees were encouraged to express any additional expectations which could not be categorised into the eight cards. Although all the interviewees answered this specific question in the negative, further elaboration and conversation during the interviews revealed a category of expectation that was held by at least four interviewees. This additional category was a construct that underscored the eight that were presented. Interviewee 1 expressed it as an expectation to be 'able to see the effects, I guess, that I'm making a difference' while Interviewee 3's expectation was implicit in the statement that 'there were long periods where I felt like I wasn't doing anything sustainable. And where I questioned whether what I was doing was in the country's interest, or it was just imposing a Western view of what they needed.' Interviewee 7 added, post-interview, that 'I think the causes are important. I think they have expectations that they're going to serve the cause or further the cause and help in that way', which was exemplified by Interviewee 2's recounting of travelling to South Africa a decade previously and being moved by the plight of children with AIDS, leading her resolve that 'when I can do it financially, I want to go back and work with the children with AIDS, that's why I wanted to go back to Africa.' A common attribute of these statements is the importance of how meaningful the volunteering was expected to be. This sentiment was supported by the views of Interviewee A (a sending organisation) which emphasised that the 'success of the project organisation … that's

very important because if it's not and people feel like they're not making the difference they paid to create, then it can create big problems'. This category of meaningful experience was important as it could be related to one of the main motivations of volunteer tourism – altruism.

Another relevant category that resulted from the interviews exemplified the unexpected nature of the overseas volunteering experience. This category of personal growth and learning was often mentioned in retrospect. Interviewee 1 for example thought that 'I expected to find myself through these experiences.' Others found themselves increasing their knowledge of social issues such as the lack of support for disability overseas (Interviewee 1), about poverty, the child sex industry and children at risk (Interviewee 6) as well as about international aid (Interviewee 3). This expectation of personal growth and learning through the overseas volunteering experience made a strong impact on volunteer tourists and was mentioned as a sub-conscious expectation but did not present itself in the midst of preparation because of the focus on logistical considerations. It is also consistent with the literature on the impacts of volunteering on volunteers, wherein the transformational impact of volunteers' perceptions, emotions and knowledge of the world around them has been highlighted (Haski-Leventhal & Bargal 2008; Knollenberg et al. 2014).

## 5.3 Summary of volunteer tourists' expectations

From the results of the card sort, it is anticipated that expectations under the category of *Interaction with locals* will feature highly in the results of Phase 2. This could be followed by other expectations under the categories of *Safety, Activities, Destination exploration* and *Support from staff*. However, it is probable the expectations categorised as *Interaction with other participants, Skills* and *Accommodation* may

include other expectations that may be as important to volunteer tourists. Additionally, two categories of expectations – 'meaningfulness' and 'personal growth and learning' – were be added to the list of expectations included in the questionnaire. The expectations within these categories were informed by the interviewee responses from Phase 1, as well as dimensions arising from the wider literature on these two expectation constructs.

## 5.4 Developing the survey instrument from Phase 1 findings

In order to measure respondents' overall satisfaction with their volunteer tourism experience, one satisfaction variable was created for the post-return questionnaire ('Overall, how satisfied were you with your overseas volunteering trip?'). However, for the purposes of measuring expectations and disconfirmation, the multiple categories of expectations had to be expressed in a way that would allow respondents to discern their meanings easily. Thus, categories were expanded into short sentences that would allow respondents to understand the expectation or disconfirmation that they were asked to rate. One of the critiques of EDP measurement is directed towards the phrasing of expectations, wherein the concept of expectations could yield a diverse set of interpretations, such as predictive, ideal, or tolerable standards, depending on the way they are expressed (Ennew, Reed & Binks 1993). As this study sought to measure the predictive standards of respondents' expectations, the expectation variables were phrased correspondingly around the phrase 'will be'. While care was taken to keep the items succinct and simple, some were necessarily lengthier as they required examples to aid respondent understanding. Furthermore, while some categories could be expressed with one item, others contained nuances that necessitated the creation of multiple variables to represent one category. For each pre-trip expectation variable, a corresponding post-return disconfirmation variable was

created to ensure that there was comparability across the pre-trip and post-return data. The list of expectation and disconfirmation variables created based on the categories used and created in Phase 1 is available in Table 15, while the scales used to measure these variables were discussed in Section 4.5.1.

**Table 15: List of expectation and disconfirmation variables created**

| Category | Corresponding variables | |
|---|---|---|
| | **Expectation** | **Disconfirmation** |
| Accommodation | My accommodation will be comfortable. | My accommodation was comfortable. |
| Activities | Our volunteer activities will be planned and structured, with all relevant materials and tools provided. | Our volunteer activities were planned and structured, with materials and tools provided for our use. |
| Destination exploration | I will explore the rest of the country or region, aside from the area in which I am volunteering. | I was able to explore the rest of the country, aside from the area in which I was volunteering. |
| | I will have opportunities to learn about my host destination's culture. | I had opportunities to learn about my host destination's culture. |
| Interaction with locals | I will be interacting with host community members (working with them, sharing meals, attending local community events, etc.). | I was able to interact with host community members (working with them, sharing meals, attending host community events, etc.) |
| Interaction with other participants | I will meet like-minded travellers. | I met like-minded travellers. |
| Safety | I will be volunteering in a safe environment. | I volunteered in a safe environment. |
| Skills | I will pick up new skills on this trip. | I picked up new skills on this trip. |
| | I will practise existing skills on this trip. | I practised existing skills on this trip. |
| | I will be transferring my knowledge and/or skills to the host community. | I transferred my knowledge and/or skills to the host community. |
| | I will have quick access to assistance should an emergency arise. | I had quick access to assistance in times of emergency. |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Support from staff | The sending organisation will have staff from its Australian office contactable at all times. | The sending organisation had staff from its Australian office contactable at all times. |
| | The sending organisation will have staff local to my host destination who are contactable at all times. | The sending organisation had staff local to my host destination who were contactable at all times. |
| | The sending organisation will provide site familiarisation activities, such as understanding the work environment and surroundings. | The sending organisation provided site familiarisation activities, such as understanding the work environment and surroundings. |
| Meaningful experience | I will contribute to a specific cause on this trip (such as to contribute to environmental conservation or to make a positive contribution to social justice, etc.) | I fulfilled a specific cause on this trip (such as contributing to environmental conservation or making a positive contribution to social justice, etc.) |
| | I will fulfil my personal goal of helping others. | I fulfilled my personal goal of helping others. |
| | I will be able to witness how my volunteer work benefits the host community. | I witnessed how my volunteer work benefitted the host community. |
| Personal growth and learning | This trip will transform my identity. | This trip transformed my identity |
| | I will find inspiration for my life goals on this trip. | I found inspiration for my life goals on this trip. |
| | This trip will change my perspective of the world around me. | This trip changed my perspective of the world around me. |

As this study sought to understand the travel and volunteering behavioural intentions of volunteer tourists, the following activities were defined for respondents to encourage common understanding of the terms used in the behavioural intentions variables:

(a) Domestic travel volunteering: Unpaid activities that you have travelled to undertake outside of your local community in Australia.
(b) Local volunteering: Unpaid activities which contribute to your immediate local community in Australia.
(c) Overseas travel: Trips involving travel outside Australia.
(d) Overseas volunteering: Trips in which you have travelled outside Australia for the express purpose of volunteering, though some form of work or leisure may have been included.

Once again, the researcher reiterates the choice of 'overseas volunteering' over 'volunteer tourism' in view of the growing resistance towards identification with the label of volunteer tourist (Gray & Campbell 2007). The phrasing of behavioural intention variables was the same across both the pre-trip and post-return questionnaires with the objective of encouraging consistent interpretations of the questions by respondents. This provided the researcher with repeated measures and the ability to compare the results longitudinally while minimising variation in respondents' understanding of the behavioural intention questions.

The remainder of the research methodology for Phase 2 was outlined in detail in 4.3, alongside a set of proposed analyses appropriate for testing the research questions in this study. The proposed analysis was determined to be unsuitable, and replaced with paired t-tests to determine the relationship between the independent (past experience, expectations, disconfirmation and satisfaction) and dependent variables (behavioural

intentions). These results are now presented, starting with a respondent profile, descriptive statistics about the volunteer tourism trips undertaken, and finally the results from analysis of both rounds of data collection.

## 5.5 Descriptive data analysis

This section presents an analysis of the demographic profiles of the 40 respondents who completed both questionnaire rounds, their trip characteristics, past experiences, future behavioural intentions and pre-trip expectations.

### 5.5.1 Respondent demographic profile

These are the respondents who completed both questionnaire rounds. Table 16 below provides a breakdown of the respondent demographic profile with respect to gender, age, nationality and highest qualification obtained. These are the respondents who completed both questionnaire rounds.

**Table 16: Demographic profile of respondents**

| Profile | Responses | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|
| Gender | Female | 35 | 87.5% |
| | Male | 5 | 12.5% |
| Age *recoded to age groups | 18 to 19 years old | 17 | 42.5% |
| | 20 to 24 years old | 16 | 40.0% |
| | 25 to 29 years old | 2 | 5.0% |
| | 30 to 34 years old | 2 | 5.0% |
| | 35 and above | 3 | 7.5% |
| Country of nationality *Note: 2 respondents did not complete this question | Australia | 32 | 82.1% |
| | New Zealand | 4 | 12.8% |
| | China | 1 | 2.6% |
| | USA | 1 | 2.6% |
| Highest level of education obtained | Postgraduate degree | 5 | 12.5% |
| | Bachelor degree | 10 | 25.0% |
| | Advanced diploma or diploma | 1 | 2.5% |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Secondary Education | 24 | 60% |

As outlined in Table 16, female respondents outnumbered their male counterparts by four to one. This is consistent with the strong female orientation of volunteer tourism trips that has been noted in other studies (Andereck et al. 2012; GeckoGo 2009; McGehee, Clemmons & Lee 2009) as well as the profile of interviewees in Phase 1. In regard to the ages of the respondents, answers to the original question ('What year were you born in?') were recoded to an ordinal age variable based on the reference year 2014, the year that the round 1 questionnaire was administered. The ages were subsequently re-coded into age categories for easy reference. As is evident in the table, the respondents were overwhelmingly of a younger age range, with 81.5% younger than 30. Sending organisations can be segmented along various lines, such as the activities they offer, the host country they work with, and the demographics of their target audience, for instance. In the case of the latter, it is therefore unsurprising that some sending organisations appeal more to younger participants, while others may design programs that require skills or experience that may attract older participants. The young age of the respondents in this study reflects the typical demographic profiles of the clientele served by the sending organisations which assisted with this study. While every effort was made to sample those over the age of 30, the number of cooperating sending organisations limited access to this older demographic.

With selection criteria that concentrated on sending organisations with a presence in Australia, it was inevitable that most respondents were from the Australasian region. The highest level of educational attainment achieved by most respondents was secondary education. This reflects the younger age range that typified those who

completed the questionnaire. It seems highly unlikely that the 34.6% who were under the age of 20 would have completed a Bachelor degree, while those between 20 and 24 years of age were likely to be in the midst of completing a post-secondary education.

### 5.5.2 Upcoming trip characteristics

Table 17 contains a summary of the characteristics associated with respondents' upcoming volunteer tourism trips as assessed by the pre-departure questionnaire. It details the location, duration and cost of the trip. Respondents were also asked about the volunteer activities they would be undertaking during their trip. This information is detailed in Table 18.

**Table 17: Upcoming trip characteristics**

| Question | Answer | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|
| How many days will you be volunteering overseas? *Recoded into groups | 1 to 10 | 4 | 10.0% |
| | 11 to 20 | 29 | 72.5% |
| | 21 to 30 | 5 | 12.5% |
| | >30 | 2 | 5.0% |
| How much did you pay for this trip? | A$1,000 to A$1,999 | 0 | 0.0% |
| | A$2,000 to A$2,999 | 4 | 10.0% |
| | A$3,000 to A$3,999 | 3 | 17.5% |
| | A$4,000 to A$4,999 | 6 | 15.0% |
| | >$5,000 | 27 | 67.5% |
| What is the main country you will be volunteering in? | Costa Rica | 15 | 37.5% |
| | India | 1 | 2.5% |
| | Nepal | 2 | 5.0% |
| | South Africa | 16 | 40.0% |
| | Thailand | 4 | 10.0% |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Vietnam | 2 | 5.0% |

The respondents were asked how many days they would be volunteering overseas, the answers ranged from 5 to 43 days, indicating a wide gap in the commitment of the respondents as a whole. Most respondents, however, were participating in shorter-term volunteer tourism trips, with 28 respondents (70.0%) indicating that their planned trips were for 14 days. Viewed in conjunction with the median of 14 days, this lends support to the view that volunteer tourism is an episodic volunteering commitment that involves a shorter commitment than regular volunteering roles with particular organisations (Cnaan & Handy 2005). The costs of these trips were high, with most respondents paying in excess of AU$5,000. This considerable monetary outlay indicates that the commitment to go on a volunteer tourism trip is not a casual one, and instead requires a significant financial investment for attainment of the experience. The high cost of such trips may also affect expectations and the subsequent satisfaction that may be felt by respondents. Lastly, whilst respondents reported intending to volunteer in a diverse range of countries, most of these trips were intended for Costa Rica and South Africa. Although South American and African countries were well represented, the popularity of Asian countries as volunteer tourism destinations (McGehee, Clemmons & Lee 2009) was inadequately represented in the trip characteristics of these respondents.

**Table 18: Types of volunteer activities to be undertaken on the trip**

| What types of volunteer activities will you be undertaking?* | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Environmental work *(Clean up, preservation, reforestation, research etc.)* | 22 | 55.0% |
| Working with animals *(Habitat preservation, species protection, research etc.)* | 21 | 52.5% |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Working with children *(Education, childcare, health, recreation etc.)* | 16 | 40.0% |
| Basic human needs *(Adequate clothing, food, access to drinking water, shelter etc.)* | 12 | 30.0% |
| Community preservation *(Art, culture, history etc.)* | 9 | 22.5% |
| Working with adults *(Vocational training, education, health, microfinance etc.)* | 9 | 22.5% |
| Creativity and arts *(with adults, children or people with special needs etc.)* | 5 | 12.5% |
| Skills transfers to communities or organisations *(Business and commerce, healthcare, engineering etc.)* | 4 | 10.0% |

*Note: As volunteer tourism trips sometimes include more than one type of volunteer activity, respondents were encouraged to select all of the applicable options. Consequentially, the percentage values in the 'Percent' column are only indicative of the of respondents who chose each option, and do not add up to 100%.

Most of the respondents expected to undertake environment-related work in the course of their trips, including activities associated with cleaning up resources, environmental preservation, reforestation and environmental research. A similarly high percentage anticipated working with animals on their upcoming trip. This aspiration encompassed activity goals such as habitat preservation, species protection and animal research. Similarly, the majority (55%) expected to undertake environmental related work in the course of overseas volunteering, including activities associated with. Approximately 40% of the respondents also expected their volunteer trip to involve working with children in some capacity, either through education, health issues, childcare or recreational activities. This was much higher than the number who anticipated working with adults (22.5%). When chosen as a part of the consideration process prior to committing to a volunteer tourism trip, these activities may indicate the types of activities sought by volunteer tourists.

### 5.5.3 Past experiences in travel, volunteering and travel volunteering

Along with other factors past experience plays an integral role in forming expectations (Gnoth 1997). The following table illustrates the past experiences of respondents

related to overseas travel, local volunteering, domestic travel volunteering, and overseas volunteering. Although the questions relating to overseas travel, volunteer tourism (referred to as 'overseas volunteering' in the questionnaire) and domestic travel volunteering were phrased with a view to eliciting the number of occasions, the question relating to local volunteering required a different measurement. This is because local volunteering, generally considered more accessible to respondents than the other options posed which involved travel, is not usually measured as discrete experiences, one-off in a lifetime. Instead, it is common to volunteer in some capacity over a period of time, regardless of the consistency or regularity of these occasions. Hence respondents were asked to think back on the past year (2013-2014) to ascertain their level of volunteering, as the more recent time frame indicated their propensity to volunteer in close succession to their volunteer tourism trip.

**Table 19: Past experiences in travel, volunteering and travel volunteering**

| Question | Answer | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|
| How many times have you travelled overseas prior to your upcoming trip? | 0 | 6 | 15.0% |
| | 1 | 7 | 17.5% |
| | 2 | 6 | 15.0% |
| | 3 | 2 | 5.0% |
| | 4 | 2 | 5.0% |
| | 5 | 3 | 7.5% |
| | >5 | 14 | 35.0% |
| How many times have you volunteered overseas prior to your upcoming trip? | 0 | 28 | 70.0% |
| | 1 | 6 | 15.0% |
| | 2 | 2 | 5.0% |
| | 3 | 0 | N/A |
| | 4 | 1 | 2.5% |
| | 5 | 0 | N/A |
| | >5 | 3 | 7.5% |
| | 0 | 29 | 72.5% |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| How many times have you participated in domestic travel volunteering? | 1 | 4 | 10.0% |
| | 2 | 3 | 7.5% |
| | 3 | 2 | 5.0% |
| | 4 | 0 | N/A |
| | 5 | 0 | N/A |
| | >5 | 2 | 5.0% |
| Over the past year, on average, how many hours per month have you volunteered in your local community? | 0 | 15 | 37.5% |
| | 1 to 3 | 14 | 35.0% |
| | 4 to 6 | 2 | 5.0% |
| | 7 to 9 | 4 | 10.0% |
| | 10 to 12 | 3 | 7.5% |
| | >12 | 2 | 5.0% |

87% of the respondents had some overseas travel experience. From this finding it may be inferred that their upcoming trip, whilst still exciting, would not be entirely unfamiliar to them in terms of the travel experience component. Furthermore, just over 22% of the respondents had travelled overseas on more than 5 trips, increasing the probability of familiarity with overseas travel processes such as customs clearance and air travel. In regard to partaking of volunteer tourism and domestic travel volunteering, over 70% of respondents indicated that they had experienced neither. In addition, the numbers for local volunteering indicate that 37.5% of the respondents were not involved in spending time volunteering in their local communities. When examined together, these results indicate that the respondents may be more inclined to participate in overseas travel than in overseas or local volunteering.

### 5.5.4 Pre-departure behavioural intentions

It was important to understand the pre-departure behavioural intentions of the respondents, as it provided a reference point for the possible changes in intentions after the volunteer tourism experience. These behavioural intentions, referred to as

'$BI_1$' in the proposed quantitative analysis, indicate travel and volunteering related intentions in the minds of respondents prior to embarking on their volunteer tourism trip. Four types of behavioural intention were measured on a 5-point Likert scale reflecting their likelihood, with '1 – Extremely Unlikely' and '5 – Extremely Likely' at each extreme and 'Neither likely nor unlikely' in the middle. These results are displayed in Table 20.

**Table 20: Behavioural intentions (Pre-departure) – $BI_1$**

| Question | Mean | Standard deviation | Minimum | Maximum |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| How likely are you to travel overseas again after this upcoming trip? | 4.85 | 0.362 | 4 | 5 |
| How likely are you to volunteer overseas again after this upcoming trip? | 4.00 | 0.784 | 3 | 5 |
| How likely are you to start or continue domestic travel volunteering? | 3.78 | 0.891 | 2 | 5 |
| How likely are you to start or continue volunteering in your local community in the next 12 months? | 3.92 | 0.997 | 2 | 5 |

As air travel has become more accessible to would-be explorers, it is unsurprising that respondents generally expressed strong intentions to travel overseas again after their trips, as is indicated in Table 20 with a mean of 4.85 out of a maximum of 5, and a standard deviation of 0.36. The minimum of 4 indicates that all respondents agreed that they were likely to travel overseas again, differing only in the strength of their likelihood. With most respondents being aged under 30, the responses received are indicative of their belief that travel will remain accessible and affordable into the future.

Secondly, most respondents expressed an intention to participate in volunteer tourism trips again after their upcoming trip, with a mean of 4.00 out of a maximum of 5. This

optimism is tempered slightly with a standard deviation of 0.784, representing a greater range of responses for this item. The minimum response of ‘3 – Neither likely nor unlikely’ indicates that respondents were at least undecided, if not amenable, to future volunteer tourism trips. This behavioural intention is likely to be impacted by the experience itself, and the effect of the volunteer tourism experience on this variable will be explored with the data collected in round 2 of the questionnaire. This behavioural intention was most similar to the repurchase intentions commonly tested in customer satisfaction studies (Yi & La 2004).

In consideration of the respondents originating from geographically larger countries such as Australia who have the opportunity to travel to other communities or states within their countries to volunteer, respondents were also asked about their intentions to participate in domestic travel volunteering. While there was an above neutral level of likelihood in response to this item, with a mean of 3.78, the standard deviation of 0.891 a wider range of respondents with diverse intentions to participate in this form of volunteering.

Finally, interest in participation also diminished when the respondents were asked to consider the likelihood of starting or continuing with volunteering activities within their local community beyond their volunteer tourism trip. Most expressed a belief that they were likely to start or continue local volunteering, as indicated by the mean of 3.92, but a larger proportion of respondents viewed it as unlikely, as evidenced by the standard deviation of 0.997 and the minimum response of ‘2 – Unlikely’ as chosen by the respondents. This was the area of greatest concern in the present study in testing the effects of expectation disconfirmation on this form of behavioural intentions. This effect will be analysed further, in relation to the results collected in round 2 of this phase.

An overall trend was evident across the four types of behavioural intentions that were measured. No respondents rated with '1 - Very unlikely' in relation to their intentions to participate in a future travel or volunteering activity. The vast majority preferred to express some measure of likelihood or uncertainty when expressing their behavioural intentions. There are many possible reasons for those findings: respondents may prefer to present themselves in a favourable light even when their identities are kept confidential, they may be optimistic about their future behaviour in light of the upcoming volunteer tourism experience, or – as in the case of consistently highly rated expectations (Babakus & Boller 1992) – simply prefer to rate their behavioural intentions highly to meet their aspirations. These explanations may be supported by the literature on Assimilation Theory, but are not explored as part of this study. However, the possible relationship between such behavioural intentions and previous respondent experiences will be explored in the next section.

### 5.5.5 Post-return behavioural intentions

After the respondents' return from their volunteer tourism trip, they were asked to respond to the repeat behavioural intention variables. These measured their intentions to start or continue the same four types of behavioural intention that were measured in the pre-trip questionnaire. The same Likert-type scale ranging from 1 – Extremely unlikely to 5 – Extremely likely was used, with the variable labelled '$BI_2$' in the quantitative analysis. The results are described below:

**Table 21: Behavioural intentions (Post-return) – $BI_2$**

| Question | Mean | Standard deviation | Minimum | Maximum |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| How likely are you to travel overseas again? | 4.88 | .648 | 1 | 5 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| How likely are you to volunteer overseas again? | 4.33 | .694 | 2 | 5 |
| How likely are you to start or continue with domestic travel volunteering? | 3.90 | .871 | 2 | 5 |
| How likely are you to start or continue with volunteering in your local community over the next 12 months? | 3.87 | .853 | 2 | 5 |

The findings that were observed in the pre-departure behavioural intentions were still evident in the post-return responses, with overseas travel behavioural intentions at the top of the list and local volunteering at the bottom. However, there were slight changes in the mean calculations for the behavioural intention items. While the means scores for overseas travel, overseas volunteering and domestic travel volunteering increased in mean, thereby indicating an overall increase in likelihood to participate in these activities in the future, the mean for local volunteering decreased between the pre-departure and post-return measurements. The implication of this decrease will be discussed in detail later in this section, where paired tests will be undertaken to determine the significance of these findings.

## 5.6 RQ1: Analysing behavioural intentions in respect to expectations, disconfirmation and satisfaction

The two rounds of questionnaires were designed with the multinomial logistic regression (MLR) analyses proposed in Chapter 5's discussion on methodology. However, with a final respondent total that was below the minimum of 200 respondents required by the proposed MLR analysis, a different test was proposed to analyse the data. Other tests considered included the chi-square test, t-test and MANOVA. Based on the research questions proposed, the data gathered and the sample size, t-tests

were considered most suitable. However, given the high computed means of the responses concerning behavioural intentions, it is unsurprising that they were skewed towards the higher end of each scale, towards 5 – Extremely likely and 4 – Likely. In view of this abnormal distribution, non-parametric analysis techniques were conducted. The non-parametric equivalent of the t-test, the Mann-Whitney U-test, was therefore selecting for analysing the data.

### 5.6.1 The Mann-Whitney U-test

The Mann-Whitney U-test may be viewed as a non-parametric equivalent to the t-test and identifies differences between two independent groups (Corder & Foreman 2014). It ranks all response values from 1 to *n*, where *n* represents the total number of values in the two groups. The ranks applicable to each group are then averaged and these findings are reported. A substantial difference between the means that are reported for the two groups of average rankings yields a small p-value.

The p-value estimates the probability that a randomly chosen subject from one population will be more highly ranked than a randomly chosen subject from another population. The null hypothesis is expressed as having no tendency for the ranks of one group to be significantly higher or lower than the other ($H_0$). The alternative hypothesis is that the ranks of one group are higher or lower than the other ($H_1$). A small p-value indicates a significant difference between the means for the average rankings of two groups.

A Mann-Whitney U-test is applicable when four assumptions are met:

Assumption 1. The dependent variable is at least ordinally scaled;

Assumption 2. The independent variable has only two levels;

Assumption 3. A between-subjects design is used (independence); and

Assumption 4. The subjects are randomly drawn from a target population. (Nachar 2008)

In the present case each Mann-Whitney U-test was conducted on independent variables that were derived from the raw responses to form two levels, as required by Assumption 2 above. The two levels differed for each research question, and will be described prior to the discussion of results. As nearly 400 Mann-Whitney U-tests were run, only significant test statistics will be shown in the interest of brevity.

Mann-Whitney U-tests were used to address the following research questions:

*RQ2: How do the expectations, disconfirmation and overall satisfaction of volunteer tourists affect their repeat purchase intentions?*

*RQ3: How do the expectations, disconfirmation and overall satisfaction of volunteer tourists affect their intentions to travel overseas, to undertake volunteer travel domestically and to volunteer locally?*

*RQ4: Do disconfirmation and satisfaction alter behavioural intentions pre- and post-travel?*

*RQ5: Do past experiences of travelling overseas and volunteering overseas and locally have an effect on changes in behavioural intentions?*

The research questions will be presented in the following sections, with particular emphases on significant results from the proposed analyses.

#### 5.6.1.1 RQ 2: Effects on repeat purchase intentions

In addressing research question 2, the researcher recoded post-return behavioural intentions that related to volunteer tourism ($BIVO_2$) into two levels: **Positive** (5 - Strongly agree/4 - Agree) and **Negative** (1 - Strongly disagree/2 - Disagree). The neutral response variable (3 – Neither agree nor disagree) was excluded from this analysis as it fits neither the positive nor the negative response categories.

No significant differences were evident in the scores applicable to expectations, disconfirmation and satisfaction between those who expressed likelihood to participate in future volunteer tourism activities, and those who were disinclined to undertake volunteer tourism in future. This is represented by the large p-values that resulted from this set of analyses, all of which exceeded the 95% confidence interval. While this result is not exact in its ranking of the two groups, due to the prevalence of ties amongst the results, it is evident that there were no significant differences between their average rankings.

#### 5.6.1.2 RQ 3: Effects on volunteer and travel intentions

As was outlined in the discussion about research question 2, post-return behavioural intentions relating to travelling overseas ($BITO_2$), domestic travel volunteering ($BIDTV_2$) and local volunteering ($BILV_2$) were recoded into **Positive** (5 - Strongly agree/4 – Agree) and **Negative** (1 - Strongly disagree/2 – Disagree). The neutral response variable (3 – Neither agree nor disagree) was excluded.

In evaluating scores applicable to expectations, disconfirmation and satisfaction for $BITO_2$, no significant differences were evident between respondents who were likely to travel overseas in future, and those who were unlikely to do so

However, the $BIDTV_2$ and $BILV_2$ analyses each yielded one significant result. In the case of $BIDTV_2$, the results for disconfirmation variable 'This trip changed my perspective of the world around me' are shown below.

**Ranks**

| | **BIDTV2 without neither/nor** | **N** | **Mean Rank** | **Sum of Ranks** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| This trip transformed my perspective of the world around me | Strongly Agree/Agree | 27 | 15.93 | 384.50 |
| | Strongly Disagree/Disagree | 2 | 25.25 | 50.50 |
| | Total | 29 | | |

**Test Statistic[a]**

| | **This trip changed my perspective of the world around me** |
|---|---|
| Mann-Whitney U | 2.000 |
| Wilcoxon W | 5.000 |
| Z | -2.353 |
| Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) | .019 |
| Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)] | .020[b] |

a: Grouping Variable: BIDTV2 without neither/nor
b: Not corrected for ties

This result indicates a significant difference for the disconfirmation variable response 'This trip transformed my identity' between those who were disinclined to participate in domestic travel volunteering and those who were so inclined (Mann-Whitney U = 2.00, Z = -2.35, $p < 0.05$). The disinclined exhibited a significantly higher mean rank (25.25) than those who were likely to do so (15.93). This implies an inverse relationship between this disconfirmation variable and the likelihood of engaging in domestic travel volunteering.

The disconfirmation variable 'This trip transformed my identity' also had response distributions that significantly differed between those who had positive intentions and those who had negative intentions to local volunteering ($BILV_2$).

**Ranks**

| | **BILV2 without neither/nor** | **N** | **Mean Rank** | **Sum of Ranks** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| This trip transformed my identity | Strongly Agree/Agree | 27 | 14.15 | 382.00 |
| | Strongly Disagree/Disagree | 2 | 26.50 | 53.00 |
| | Total | 29 | | |

**Test Statistic[a]**

| | **This trip transformed my identity** |
|---|---|
| Mann-Whitney U | 4.000 |
| Wilcoxon W | 382.000 |
| Z | -2.064 |
| Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) | .039 |
| Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)] | .044[b] |

a: Grouping Variable: BILV2 without neither/nor
b: Not corrected for ties

The result implies a significant difference in the mean rank between those who were likely to participate in domestic travel volunteering and those who were unlikely to do so (Mann-Whitney U = 4.00, Z = -2.064, $p < 0.05$). The mean rank for the latter group

(26.50) far exceeded what was reported by those who were likely to do so (14.15. This implies that those who were unlikely to participate in domestic travel volunteering in the future were more likely to indicate have had their expectations positively fulfilled for this variable.

#### 5.6.1.3 RQ 4: Changing behavioural intentions pre- and post-travel

The use of the Mann-Whitney U-test was also applicable to research question 4. A new variable was computed with a view to determining the changes in behavioural intentions ($\Delta BI$) between the pre-trip ($BI_1$) and post-return ($BI_2$) responses as follows:

$$\Delta BI = BI_2 - BI_1$$

Two options were considered when dichotomising this new variable, as is required by the Mann-Whitney U-test. Drawing upon positive and negative results, the first allowed the researcher to explore the different responses between those who either strengthened or weakened their behavioural intentions upon return. When considering negative results as a category and using non-negative results (i.e., positive and zero) as the other, the second allowed the researcher to explore the differences between those who experienced stable or increasing behavioural intentions, and those who experienced a diminution of intentions to volunteer locally. Though the former was suited to an examination of the vector changes in behavioural intentions – i.e., taking into account positive and negative changes only – the latter was chosen for analysis once the following factors were considered.

The literature review on expectations has identified the so-called ‘ceiling’ problem (Yi 1990; Yüksel & Yüksel 2001). Sometimes described as an expectancy ceiling, this problem is relevant for the measurement of behavioural intentions. The social desirability effect, which encourages respondents to choose answers that present

them favourably (Joinson 1999), could have contributed to high proportion of responses that were most positively inclined towards starting or continuing to travel or volunteer. In the responses that were received there is an evident bias towards these intentions, which were skewed towards positive intentions (5 – Strongly agree/4 – Agree), contributing the non-normal distribution of the behavioural intention variables. To illustrate this point, $BITO_1$ had a mean of 4.85 out of 5.00, and a median of 5.00 out of 5.00, indicative that a large proportion of the respondents had reached the behavioural intentions ceiling.

**Table 22: Descriptive analysis of responses to $BI_1$ questions**

| | | How likely are you to travel overseas again after this upcoming trip? ($BITO_1$) | How likely are you to volunteer overseas again after this upcoming trip? ($BIVO_1$) | How likely are you to start or continue domestic travel volunteering? ($BIDTV_1$) | How likely are you to start or continue volunteering in your local community in the next 12 months? ($BILV_1$) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| N | Valid | 40 | 40 | 40 | 40 |
| | Missing | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Mean | | 4.85 | 4.00 | 3.78 | 3.93 |
| Median | | 5.00 | 4.00 | 4.00 | 4.00 |
| Mode | | 5 | 4 | 3 | 5 |

Those who had previously indicated the most positive behavioural intention (5 – Strongly agree) may be constrained by this ceiling, lacking the means of expressing even stronger intentions than the 5-point scale allowed (Cramer & Howitt 2004). Therefore, the inclusion of all non-negative changes in behavioural intentions as a category in the Mann-Whitney U-tests was strategic, as it considered respondents who may have been affected by the ceiling. This ceiling can be avoided in future through the use of a more extensive scale to measure behavioural intentions, such as a nine-

point scale instead of the current five-point scale. The expanded scale could aid the scattering of the responses that were clustered at the top by providing more degrees of likelihood for consideration (Cramer & Howitt 2004). However, this suggestion is theoretical and may not scatter the responses as expected because the combination of social desirability and a genuine desire to participate may still result in responses clustering at the top of the scale.

In the series of Mann-Whitney U-tests that is relevant to research question 4, ∆BI was classified into two levels – **Non-negative** and **Negative**. The analyses for these were conducted for each type of behavioural intention measured (BITO, BIVO, BIDTV and BILV) against the dependent variables of disconfirmation and satisfaction. This analysis yielded the following results:

There were no significant differences in the disconfirmation and satisfaction variables for the independent variables of ∆BITO, ∆BIVO and ∆BILV. However, for the independent variable of ∆BIDTV, while there were no significant differences in the mean ranks related to satisfaction, two significant results were found in relation to disconfirmation.

The dependent disconfirmation variable 'The sending organisation had staff local to my host destination who were contactable at all times' resulted in a significant difference when examined against the negative and non-negative categories of ∆BIDTV:

**Ranks**

| | **ChgBIDTV split into non-negative vs negative(∆BIDTV)** | **N** | **Mean Rank** | **Sum of Ranks** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| The sending organisation had staff | Positive changes and no changes | 31 | 22.61 | 701.00 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| local to my host destination who were contactable at all times | Negative changes | 9 | 13.22 | 119.00 |
| | Total | 40 | | |

**Test Statistic[a]**

| | **The sending organisation had staff local to my host destination who were contactable at all times** |
|---|---|
| Mann-Whitney U | 74.000 |
| Wilcoxon W | 119.000 |
| Z | -2.223 |
| Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) | .026 |
| Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)] | .034[b] |

a: Grouping Variable: ChgBIDTV split into non-negative vs negative
b: Not corrected for ties

These results showed a statistically significant difference between mean ranks for those who were computed to have positive or no changes in their behavioural intentions, and those who had negative changes in their behavioural intentions (Mann-Whitney = 74.00, Z = -2.223, $p < 0.05$). It implies that those who had positive or no changes in their behavioural intentions (mean rank = 22.61) reported more positive fulfilment of their expectations relative to those who had negative changes to their behavioural intentions (mean rank = 13.22). This may indicate the possibility of a positive relationship between this disconfirmation variable and ∆BIDTV.

The second significant result involving ∆BIDTV was in relation to the disconfirmation item ‘This trip changed my perspective of the world around me’:

**Ranks**

| | **ChgBIDTV split into non-negative vs negative(∆BIDTV)** | **N** | **Mean Rank** | **Sum of Ranks** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Positive changes and no changes | 31 | 22.84 | 708.00 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| This trip changed my perspective of the world around me | Negative changes | 9 | 12.44 | 112.00 |
| | Total | 40 | | |

**Test Statistic[a]**

| | **This trip changed my perspective of the world around me** |
|---|---|
| Mann-Whitney U | 67.000 |
| Wilcoxon W | 112.000 |
| Z | -2.529 |
| Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) | .011 |
| Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)] | .018[b] |

a: Grouping Variable: ChgBIDTV split into non-negative vs negative
b: Not corrected for ties

These results imply that the mean ranks for those who had positive or no changes to their ΔBIDTV exceeded those for whom the results were negative (Mann-Whitney = 67.00, Z = -2.529, $p < 0.05$). It was concluded that there may be a positive relationship between ΔBIDTV and the fulfilment of expectations related to respondents' perspectives of the world around them. Hence, those who found their perspectives changed as expected or more than expected were likely to also report an increase in their intentions to participate in domestic travel volunteering.

#### 5.6.1.4 RQ 5: Effects of past experiences on changes in behavioural intentions

In order to determine its influence on behavioural intentions, previous experience was used as the independent variable for the applicable Mann-Whitney U-test analyses. The various past experience variables are represented by PXOT (past experience in overseas travel), PXVO (past experience in volunteering overseas), PXDTV (past experience in domestic travel volunteering), and PXLV (past experience in local volunteering). The responses were regrouped into two levels, **Yes** and **No**, as required

for this test. Each variable of past experience was then assessed against the results applicable to the corresponding ΔBI variable.

In cases where no significant differences were evident, the PX variables were then tested against the results of their corresponding $BI_2$ values, thereby allowing a comparison of the mean ranks for the two categories. The test results indicated the potential influence of past experiences on post-trip behavioural intentions. Though no significant differences were evident between most groups, there was one exception as follows:

**Ranks**

| | **Previous experience in local volunteering (Yes/No)** | **N** | **Mean Rank** | **Sum of Ranks** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| How likely are you to start or continue volunteering in your local community over the next 12 months | No | 15 | 15.43 | 231.50 |
| | Yes | 25 | 23.54 | 588.50 |
| | Total | 40 | | |

**Test Statistic[a]**

| | **How likely are you to start or continue volunteering in your local community over the next 12 months** |
|---|---|
| Mann-Whitney U | 111.500 |
| Wilcoxon W | 231.500 |
| Z | -2.254 |
| Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) | .024 |
| Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)] | .033[b] |

a: Grouping Variable: Previous experience in local volunteering (Yes/No)
b: Not corrected for ties

These results indicate that participants in local volunteering (mean rank = 23.54) had a higher mean rank than those who with no previous experience of volunteering (mean

rank = 15.43). This statistically significant result (Mann-Whitney = 111.50, Z = -2.254, $p < 0.05$) indicates a prospectively positive relationship between prior experience of local volunteering and future volunteering intentions.

#### 5.6.1.5 Summary of the Mann-Whitney U-tests

Of the four statistically significant test results, three were related to respondents' perspectives and identities. In an age where consumption – of which volunteer tourism can be seen as a form – is increasingly representative of one's identity and values (Cherrier 2007), it is unsurprising that these factors have presented significant results. While the positive changes in perspectives and identities presented an inverse relationship with final behavioural intentions, it was the positive fulfilment of expectations relating to respondents' perspectives of the world that influenced the most significant change in domestic travel volunteering intentions. The stronger relationship between behavioural intentions and disconfirmation, instead of expectations, is also supported by the literature on modified expectations in the comparison process (Gronroos 1993; Zwick, Pieters & Baumgartner 1995). This change in the way the respondents relate to the world could also have implications on their pro-social tendencies, with external stimuli such as volunteer tourism experiences producing a diminishment of the self and its concerns (Piff et al. 2015). This reframing of respondents' view of the world in relation to their selves could induce more ethical decision making and pro-social behaviours (Piff et al. 2015). It emphasises how volunteer tourism trips can influence the way participants relate to the world around them, and can have far-reaching effects beyond the duration of the trips.

Despite being tested against all the behavioural intention variables, there was a conspicuous lack of statistically significant results related to satisfaction. While the sample size may have contributed to this lack of significant results, the absence may

likewise point to behavioural intentions being more strongly influenced by perspectives and identities than to satisfaction in general. This lack of statistically significant relationships between behavioural intentions and satisfaction could warrant further investigation, as satisfaction is general considered to be a reliant predictor of repeat purchase intentions (Yi & La 2004).

### 5.6.2 Paired tests (The Wilcoxon signed-rank test and paired-samples rank test)

Paired tests were performed to explore whether there were any significant changes in each type of behavioural intention between pre-trip and post-return. As each variable was measured longitudinally, once before embarking on the trip and once after the respondent had returned, paired tests were required to understand if the changes observed in the sample were significant. Three types of paired tests were explored for this analysis – the paired samples t-test, the paired samples sign test and the Wilcoxon signed-rank test. As a primary assumption of the paired samples t-test was normal distribution with the data (Hair et al. 2010), this test was not considered appropriate. The paired samples sign test and the Wilcoxon signed-rank test remained within consideration as they were suitable for the non-parametric data collected (Corder & Foreman 2014). Both these tests are mainly used to determine whether there is a median difference between paired observations, and are commonly deployed to test the same individuals on two different occasions, or to test two different conditions on the same dependent variable.

To determine the appropriate analysis for the data collected, the assumptions of each were considered. Both tests required that:

Assumption 1. The dependent variable be measured at the continuous or ordinal level, and

Assumption 2. The independent variable was to consist of two categorical, related groups or match pairs.

These were both fulfilled by the research design, in which measurements for $BI_1$ and $BI_2$ were at interval levels. The last assumption was the final determinant that depended on the nature of the data collected.

Assumption 3. The difference between the two related groups is symmetrically distributed.

In the case of a symmetrical distribution of the differences, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test would be suitable (Corder & Foreman 2014). However, if the differences are asymmetrically distributed, the paired samples sign test is more appropriate. Thus, histograms were plotted for the four ΔBI variables which were computed earlier for the Mann-Whitney U-tests. These histograms are presented in turn:

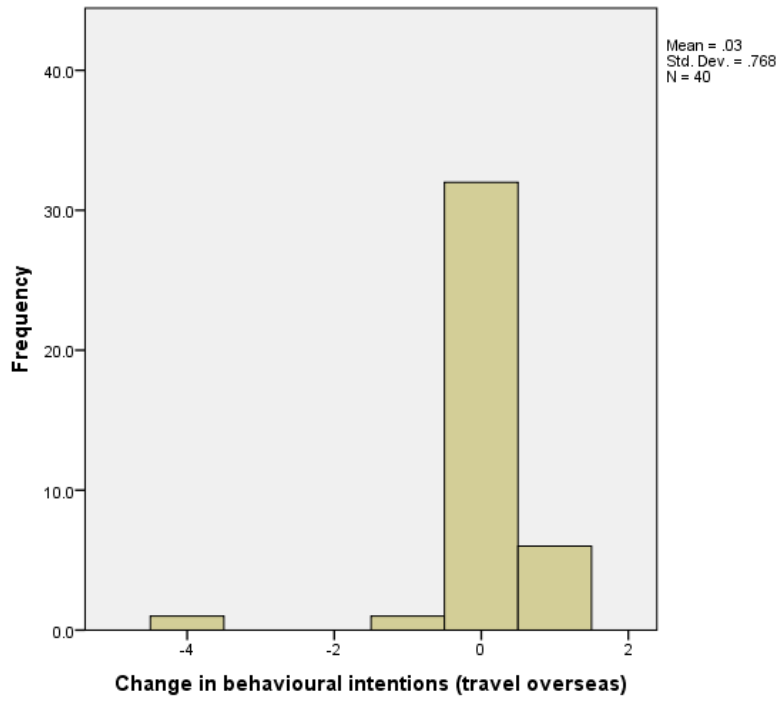


**Figure 7: Histogram for ΔBITO**

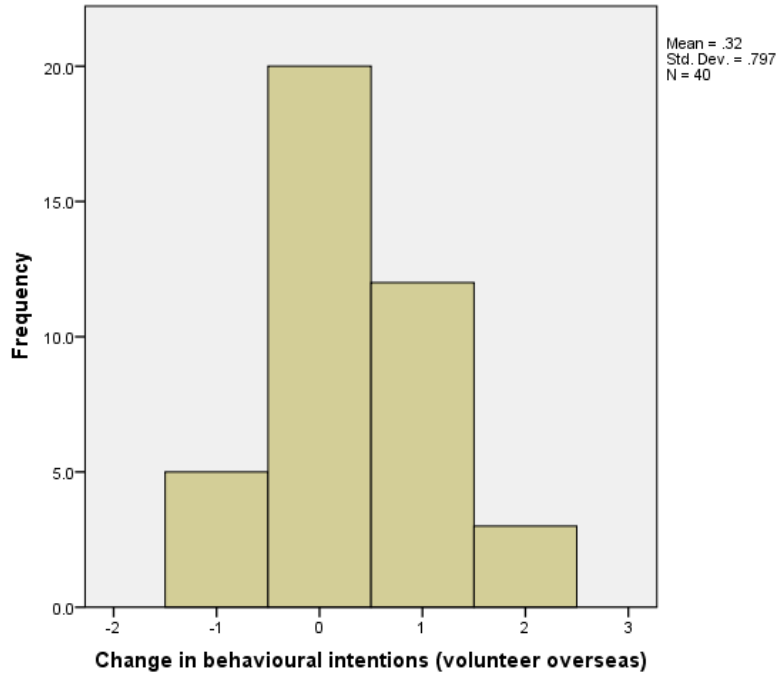


Figure 8: Histogram for ΔBIVO

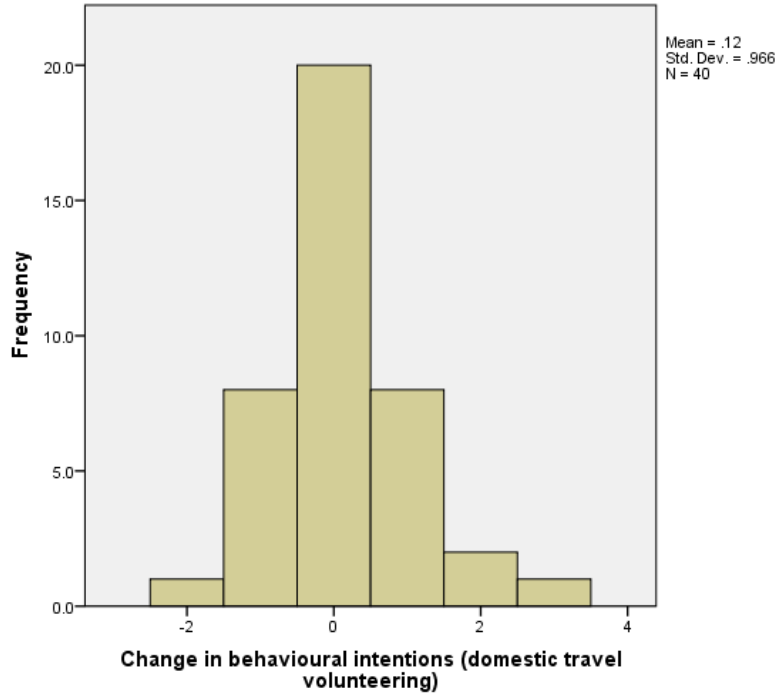


Figure 9: Histogram for ΔBIDTV

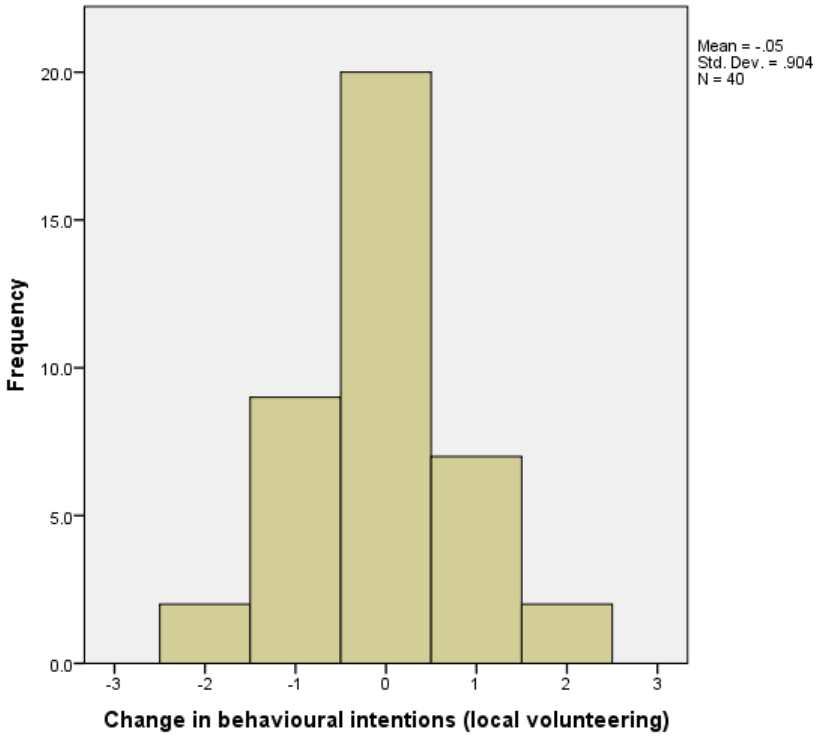


**Figure 10: Histogram for ΔBILV**

Based on these four histograms, those representing changes in behavioural intentions for overseas travel (ΔBITO) and overseas volunteering (ΔBIVO) appear to be asymmetrical, therefore the paired-samples sign test was used to analyse these variables. However, the histograms generated from differences in domestic travel volunteering and local volunteering behavioural intentions approximate symmetry, and therefore the Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used.

Both the Wilcoxon signed-rank test and paired-samples signed test were used to determine whether the median of differences between $BI_1$ and $BI_2$ was equal to zero ($H_0$), utilising the behavioural intentions reported by each respondent pre and post-trip. The alternative hypothesis ($H_1$) was therefore that the median of differences between $BI_1$ and $BI_2$ was not equal to zero. The confidence interval was set at 95%.

The hypotheses for both these tests were identical, and expressed thus:

$H_0$: median difference = 0

$H_1$: median difference ≠ 0

To begin both tests, an examination of the descriptive statistics was required. As indicated in Table 23, the means for each behavioural intention item increased after travel, with the exception of local volunteering which decreased slightly.

**Table 23: Descriptive statistics for behavioural intentions**

| Pre-trip behavioural intentions ($BI_1$) | | | | | | Post-return behavioural intentions ($BI_2$) | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Min. | Max. | Max. | Min. | Std. Deviation | Mean | N | |
| $BITO_1$ | 40 | 4.85 | .362 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 1 | .648 | 4.88 | 40 | $BITO_2$ |
| $BIVO_1$ | 40 | 4.00 | .784 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 2 | .694 | 4.33 | 40 | $BIVO_2$ |
| $BIDTV_1$ | 40 | 3.78 | .891 | 2 | 5 | 5 | 2 | .871 | 3.90 | 40 | $BIDTV_2$ |
| $BILV_1$ | 40 | 3.92 | .997 | 2 | 5 | 5 | 2 | .853 | 3.87 | 40 | $BILV_2$ |

The following table (Table 24) presents a calculation and ranking of the directional changes in each pair of behavioural intentions. It provides details about the number of negative and positive ranks, as well as ties, for each pair of behavioural intention response. 'Negative Rank' indicates the number of respondents who reported lower behavioural intentions after their return from travel compared with their pre-trip aspirations. Each mention of 'Positive Rank' represents a respondent who indicated a post-return behavioural intention that was stronger than what was expressed pre-trip. Each reference to 'Ties' indicates that the number of respondents who expressed the same levels of behavioural intentions pre- and post- travel.

**Table 24: Ranks of behavioural intentions changes**

| | | N | Mean Rank | Sum of Ranks |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| $\Delta BITO = BITO_2 - BITO_1$ | Negative Ranks | 2 | 6.00 | 12.00 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Positive Ranks | 6 | 4.00 | 24.00 |
| | Ties | 32 | | |
| | Total | 40 | | |
| $\Delta BIVO = BIVO_2 - BIVO_1$ | Negative Ranks | 5 | 9.00 | 45.00 |
| | Positive Ranks | 15 | 11.00 | 165.00 |
| | Ties | 20 | | |
| | Total | 40 | | |
| $\Delta BIDTV = BIDTV_2 - BIDTV_1$ | Negative Ranks | 9 | 9.56 | 86.00 |
| | Positive Ranks | 11 | 11.27 | 124.00 |
| | Ties | 20 | | |
| | Total | 40 | | |
| $\Delta BILV = BILV_2 - BILV_1$ | Negative Ranks | 11 | 10.32 | 113.50 |
| | Positive Ranks | 9 | 10.72 | 96.50 |
| | Ties | 20 | | |
| | Total | 40 | | |

These descriptive and directional change calculations were common across both the Wilcoxon signed-rank test and paired-samples sign test. It was at this point at the tests deviated, so that the variables with asymmetrical differences were tested using the paired-samples sign test, while their symmetrical counterparts were tested using the Wilcoxon signed-rank test. The test statistics that were generated from these tests are shown below in Table 25 and Table 26 respectively:

**Table 25: Paired-samples sign rank test statistics for BITO and BIVO**

| | $BITO_2 - BITO_1$ | $BIVO_2 - BIVO_1$ |
|---|---|---|
| Exact Sig. (2-tailed) | .289[a] | .041[a] |

a. Binomial distribution used.

**Table 26: Wilcoxon signed-rank test statistics for BIDTV and BILV**

| | $BIDTV_2 – BIDTV_1$ | $BILV_2 – BILV_1$ |
|---|---|---|
| Z | -.756[a] | -.338[b] |
| Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) | .450 | .735 |

a. Based on negative ranks.

b. Based on positive ranks.

Based on the test statistics, the null hypotheses that the median difference between pre-trip and post-return behavioural intentions = 0 were accepted in the case of intentions to travel overseas, domestic travel volunteering and local volunteering. However, the null hypothesis was rejected for intentions to volunteer overseas again, as there was a statistically significant median difference in behavioural intentions ($p < 0.05$).

While there were 20 people whose ΔBIVO was zero, 15 experienced a positive change in behavioural intentions, and 5 indicated a negative change. This resulted in a directional change of behavioural intentions, which had a median of 0.50. It was evident that there was a statistically significant median increase of 0.5 in post-return behavioural intentions compared to pre-trip behavioural intentions, indicating an overall increase in intentions to volunteer overseas after return.

### 5.6.3 Observations from the computed data

Aside from the Wilcoxon signed-rank and paired-samples sign tests, the data computed for the change in behavioural intentions revealed something pertinent to the researcher's primary reason for conducting this study, which was outlined earlier in this study. One of the key impetuses for this study was to explore the possibility of expectations, disconfirmation and satisfaction with volunteer tourism trips as an effective conduit for other forms of volunteerism. Implicit in this motivation was an

assumption that the volunteer tourism experience could provide a positive experience that would inspire local and domestic travel volunteering, functioning as a springboard for volunteer participation. One of the main research outcomes was anticipated to be an understanding of how expectations, disconfirmation and satisfaction could be leveraged by sending organisations in providing avenues for continued volunteering behaviour that would contribute positively to the community organisations they operated in. The data, observed without manipulation from various analyses, tells a different story.

While behavioural intentions related to volunteer tourism were positively affected by the trips, those relating to domestic travel volunteering and local volunteering presented a less rosy picture. In the calculations presented above (in Table 24), domestic travel volunteering behavioural intentions had nine respondents becoming less likely to participate, which was balanced out by the 11 who were more likely to participate. In the same table, while local volunteering had 11 respondents reporting lower intentions to participate, only nine respondents reported higher intentions to participate. This is in contrast to the responses received for the other behavioural intentions, wherein there the number of people whose intentions to travel overseas or volunteer overseas increased upon return was higher than those whose intentions decreased. In total, there were only two negative ranks in intentions to travel overseas in comparison to the six positive ranks for the same item, and five negative ranks for intentions to volunteer overseas compared to the 15 whose intentions were higher for the same form of volunteering. The significance in the number of negative ranks in local volunteering and domestic travel volunteering was obscured in the previous Wilcoxon signed-ranks tests as the test only indicated significance if there was a lot more respondents who had ranked positive changes compared to those who ranked

negative changes (or vice versa) in their behavioural intentions. The relatively close number of respondents who presented negative and positive ranks in both domestic travel volunteering and local volunteering behavioural intentions resulted in the non-significant results in the Wilcoxon signed-ranks tests, as the effect of each negative rank was cancelled out by a similar number of positive ranks.

As this study concerns itself not just with the final behavioural intentions of volunteer tourism participants ($BI_2$), but also the impact volunteer tourism trips have on their behavioural intentions ($\Delta BI$), these numbers challenged the researcher's previous assumptions. Volunteer tourism experiences, while previously assumed as a logical conduit for local volunteering, were found to have an inverse effect on propensities to volunteer locally and in a domestic travel capacity. Instead of turning participants to further volunteering activities, more respondents were put off local volunteering than were encouraged. The negative impact on domestic travel volunteering was also sizeable, with nine out of 40 respondents computing weakened intentions to participate. Even though the sample size for this research study is too small to generalise the findings beyond the immediate sample, it is an area of research worthy of future exploration. The mechanisms behind this effect would provide insight into this potential inverse relationship, and the mediating factors that might influence it. This information could then be used to shape the evolution of volunteer tourism, at the same time addressing a key criticism of volunteer tourism as a temporally limited activity without positive longer term benefits to communities.

## 5.7 Encouraging continued volunteering beyond the trip

Apart from measuring respondents' behavioural intentions for each form of volunteering, the post-return questionnaire also requested that respondents elaborate

on their answers to each volunteer-related behavioural intention (i.e., volunteer tourism, domestic travel volunteering and local volunteering). This request consisted of a text box in which respondents could freely express their reasons for their stated intentions, and therefore comprised a mix of responses expressed in regard to positive, negative or neutral intentions. These qualitative responses were analysed using NVivo 10, extracting key themes for each set of responses. The themes were broadly grouped into those that encouraged further volunteering and those which are barriers to the same. They are presented in these two categories below, and accompanied by recommendations to encourage each form of volunteering. Unlike the quantitative analyses, the three free response questions related to the different forms of volunteering were not compulsory, thus not all respondents provided answers to them. Furthermore, one participant may mention reasons pertaining to more than one reason for participation, and these were coded accordingly. For these two reasons, the number of respondents coded under the themes does not equate the total number of respondents the returned sample (40 respondents).

It is also pertinent to note here that although overseas travel behavioural intentions were measured, respondents were not asked to elaborate on this aspect as the key research aim was to explore how volunteer tourism trips could influence behavioural intentions related to volunteering. The researcher was also mindful of the potential for respondent fatigue in the post-return questionnaire, having already asked participants to respond to the 20 disconfirmation variables and satisfaction variable by this point. Therefore the elaboration question for overseas travel behavioural intentions was excluded in the hopes of receiving richer responses from respondents for the other, more relevant, behavioural intentions related to volunteering.

### 5.7.1 Returning to volunteer tourism

In stating their behavioural intentions with regard to volunteer tourism, 37 out of the total sample of 40 respondents expressed that they were either likely or extremely likely to participate in such trips in the future. The responses received in relation to this question were therefore strongly in favour of future participation, with sporadic mentions of barriers to participation offered as conditions for their responses.

**Table 27: Reasons for participating in volunteer tourism**

| Reasons for participating in volunteer tourism | No. of respondents who mentioned this reason |
|---|---|
| Meaningful or rewarding work | 19 |
| Cultural exchange | 13 |
| Enjoy travelling | 8 |
| Different type of helping | 5 |
| Good volunteer tourism experience | 4 |
| Life-changing | 4 |
| Money (Barrier) | 4 |
| Enjoy volunteering | 3 |
| Good sending organisation | 2 |
| Time (Barrier) | 1 |

The most commonly mentioned reason for respondents to participate in future volunteer tourism trips was that they found the volunteering work meaningful or rewarding. This was expressed in various forms by 19 respondents, nearly half the r returned. They included responses such as ‘most importantly, [it] felt like I was really able to see the tangible benefits of my work, which was extremely rewarding and encourages me to volunteer again in the future’ and ‘it makes me feel as though through my travel I can make a difference’.

The second most commonly mentioned reason, as brought up by 13 respondents, was the cultural exchange they experienced from volunteer tourism. Many of these respondents thought that the depth of their interactions with the host community was more noteworthy than those they would have experienced as non-volunteering tourists, with comments such as 'you get a far more intimate experience with who and where you are volunteering'. This was also expressed as a result of the freedom respondents had on their trips that enabled them to speak to their hosts, contrasted by the experience of being herded from one activity to the next, as one might be on a conventional travel package ('I love the first hand cultural integration you experience in volunteering and getting to know people from a foreign place than sticking with one group and following schedules').

Eight respondents expressed their willingness to continue participating in volunteer tourism as they enjoyed travelling ('This trip made me realise just how much I enjoy travel'). This was sometimes accompanied by an explanation that their propensity to also volunteer made volunteer tourism trips an attractive future option ('I have done volunteer work in the past, yet this project was one of the greatest I have ever participated in. I have also done a lot of travelling and enjoy it so much. Now I would rather combine the two in my future travels.'). Furthermore, volunteer tourism allowed them to engage in a form of helping that was different from what they were used to, with five respondents reporting this difference as a key reason for their likely continued participation in volunteer tourism. They were accompanied by statements such as 'this opportunity provided me a different way of volunteering than what I'm used to' and 'felt more beneficial than just donating money to a charity'.

Other reasons proffered for respondents' willingness to go on another volunteer tourism trip included the good experience they had just returned from (four

respondents), the fact that they viewed it as a life-changing experience (four respondent), and the positive impressions they had of their sending organisations' organisational ability (two respondents).

Less encouraging were the barriers that respondents also raised, possibly in light of lower behavioural intention scores (1 – Strongly disagree/2 – Disagree). The two barriers mentioned were money and time. In regard to the former, five respondents acknowledged the high cost of their recent trips, and expressed that their future participation was contingent on having sufficient funds ('will likely do this in the future once I have more money as I did find this trip a little over priced' and 'I will seriously consider it in the future when I'm more set up financially and vocationally'). Aside from the issue of cost, one respondent also brought in time as a barrier, qualifying that future participation 'all depends on my financial situation and time'.

In summary, the key reason offered for participating in volunteer tourism beyond their recent trip was the prospect of contributing to causes that were important to the respondents. This is consistent with a key motivation of volunteers in other settings who choose to continue volunteering (Batson, Ahmad & Tsang 2002; Clary et al. 1998; Dolnicar & Randle 2007, 2009; Flanagan & Levine 2010). In addition, the second key reason offered, that of cultural exchange, is indicative of how important the travel component of volunteer tourism was to respondents. From the perspective of effective altruism, although this form of volunteering may not be considered the most effective in terms of benefits provided to the beneficiary, it is intrinsically tied to the curiosity of volunteer tourists who seek to experience different cultures and explore the world (McIntosh & Zahra 2007).

### 5.7.2 Participation in domestic travel volunteering

In the pre-departure survey, only 11 respondents had participated in domestic travel volunteering trips before, indicating that 72.5% of the respondents had not experienced the phenomenon before. Coupled with the post-return responses in which 95% of the respondents indicated they were either likely to start/continue domestic travel volunteering, or undecided about it, it is a worthwhile venture to understand the reasons that may propel returning volunteer tourists towards a more domestic form of tourism volunteering.

**Table 28: Reasons for participating in domestic travel volunteering**

| Reasons for participating in domestic travel volunteering | No. of respondents who mentioned this reason |
|---|---|
| Making a difference in their own country | 8 |
| Accessible opportunities | 5 |
| Working for a cause they believed in | 5 |
| Allow them to explore their own country | 3 |
| No overseas travel component (barrier) | 3 |
| Overseas volunteering is more rewarding (barrier) | 3 |
| Their trip had allowed them to see how volunteering helps | 3 |
| Personal growth | 2 |

The most frequently mentioned reason for participating in domestic travel volunteering was that respondents wanted to make a difference within their own country or community (8 respondents). The explanations offered were predominantly linked with recognising the need for volunteers in the wider community, such as ‘I would like to volunteer in rural communities such as indigenous communities and try and make a difference in improving their health’ and ‘Not only do I want to impact others internationally, I also want to make an impact in my own country’. Their responses

were sometimes linked to another reason, such as the trip allowing them to see how volunteering helps people (3 respondents), in which a respondent offered that 'volunteering overseas opened my eyes to consider volunteering back home more often'.

Accessible opportunities (5 respondents) were also important in deciding their domestic travel volunteering intentions, as some may not actively seek out opportunities to do so, but may participate if the opportunity arises. This was reflected in participants' responses that 'I am more likely to consider giving it a go if an opportunity arises' and 'if opportunities present themselves I will partake but if they don't I will probably not actively seek them out'. There was also a sentiment that this form of volunteering was not widely known, with sentiments such as 'I hadn't realised the opportunities before' and '[it] is something I never really thought of doing or participating in'.

The causes they were likely to contribute to in considering domestic travel volunteering opportunities were also mentioned by 5 respondents as a reason to participate. These causes included animal conservation and Aboriginal rights. The responses coded under this theme also included an instance in which a respondent felt that the type of work they were interested in appeared to be more common in overseas volunteering trips than domestic travel volunteering, however, no details were offered as to the type of activities these involved. The opportunity to explore their own country was also mentioned (3 respondents) alongside the belief that participating in this type of volunteering was anticipated to aid personal growth (2 respondents).

The one of the key barriers faced in relation to the domestic travel volunteering behavioural intention was the fact that there was no overseas travel involved (3

respondents), and therefore ‘the benefit of international volunteering is that you get to travel overseas at the same time as volunteer (*sic*)’. This lack of overseas adventure diminished the attractiveness of domestic travel volunteering, alongside a perception that volunteer tourism was more rewarding when performed overseas (3 respondents). It is a theme which is further explored in the context of local volunteering in the next section.

### 5.7.3 Participation in local volunteering

The question of how to convert volunteer tourists’ involvement in volunteerism beyond their trips is central to this study. To answer this, the study approached returned volunteer tourists’ propensities from several angles. The first was presented previously, in the quantitative measurement of behavioural intentions pre-trip and post-return, which yielded significant results pertaining to volunteer tourists’ identity transformation and their past experience in local volunteering. In addition, respondents were asked to rate factors that may have positively influence their decision to start or continue local volunteering, as well as to express the barriers that they felt prevented them from doing so. They were also asked to specify the types of activities they thought they would undertake while volunteering locally, the responses for which were used to understand the anticipated contributions these volunteer tourists might make to their communities. This analysis will start with a discussion of the most influential reasons for respondents to start or continue local volunteering, then move on to an exploration of the key barriers mentioned, and the types of activities the returned volunteer tourists would undertake. Lastly, recommendations will be presented based on the results of these analyses with the aim of presenting a well-rounded perspective that takes into account various aspects of the volunteer tourism experience in encouraging returned volunteer tourists to similarly contribute to their local communities.

#### 5.7.3.1 RQ 6: Encouraging local volunteering

Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement to each reason presented in a list, ranging from 1 – Strongly disagree to 5 – Strong agree, with a middle option 3 – Neither agree nor disagree. These items were compiled from the volunteerism literature (refer to Table 1 on page 38), and provided a wide range of options for respondents to rate their agreement. The mean and standard deviation of the responses was calculated and is presented in the table below, sorted in order of mean results from the highest to the lowest:

**Table 29: Key influences that encourage local volunteering**

| Rank according to mean | Variables | Mean | Std Dev |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | For a cause that I am interested in serving | 4.68 | 0.474 |
| 2 | If it allows me to develop a skill I am keen on | 4.38 | 0.667 |
| 3 (tie) | If it is a convenient commitment that fits easily into my schedule | 4.20 | 0.883 |
| 3 (tie) | If it allows me to see the direct impact of my volunteering efforts on the beneficiary | 4.20 | 0.723 |
| 4 (tie) | As an opportunity to contribute to my local community | 4.15 | 0.700 |
| 4 (tie) | If it is an opportunity to volunteer with a reputable community organisation | 4.15 | 0.700 |
| 5 | If it helps me find employment | 4.05 | 0.986 |
| 6 | If I am invited by relatives, friends or organisations to volunteer | 4.03 | 0.974 |
| 7 (tie) | As an opportunity to interact with like-minded individuals (other volunteers) | 4.00 | 0.877 |
| 7 (tie) | As a result of the positive experience I had this overseas volunteering trip | 4.00 | 0.816 |
| 8 | As an opportunity to get to know those I volunteer for | 3.78 | 0.800 |
| 9 | If it requires a skill or area of knowledge that I already possess | 3.75 | 0.927 |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 10 (tie) | To model the behaviours I would like to see in those around me (for children, siblings etc.) | 3.73 | 0.987 |
| 10 (tie) | If it earns me academic credits | 3.73 | 1.109 |

The most highly rated reason for participating in local volunteering was ‘For a cause that I am interested in serving’. This was commensurate with the responses for domestic travel volunteering, being one of the most commonly mentioned reasons for starting or continuing that form of volunteering as well. It was also consistent with the literature as one of the most commonly cited reasons for volunteering (Batson, Ahmad & Tsang 2002; Clary et al. 1998; Clary, Snyder & Stukas 1996; Flanagan & Levine 2010). Respondents were also more likely to participate in local volunteering if it helped them develop skills that they were interested in, but had yet to acquire. Time was also important to the respondents, as represented by those that were more likely to participate if volunteering fit easily into their schedule, indicating an unwillingness to schedule other commitments around local volunteering. Equally influential was whether the volunteer activity allowed them to see the impact of their work on beneficiaries, possibly contributing to a sense of accomplishment upon completion.

The opportunity to contribute to communities that were geographically proximate to the respondent was the fifth highest reason for influencing local volunteering participation, a reason that is similar to the top response for participating in domestic travel volunteering. Tied in fifth place was the consideration of reputable volunteer organisations, which highlights its moderate importance in relation to the decision to volunteer locally. Given the age of the respondents, with 81% below the age of 30, it is unsurprising that volunteer opportunities that led to employment were viewed as valuable. Such volunteers might make use of the network developed while

volunteering to access employment vacancies that might not have been open to them otherwise. The notion of the invitation was also well ranked in the results, indicating the encouragement as a result of peer or family influence may convince some to take up local volunteering. The attraction of being invited by people known to the respondents was also matched by the prospect of meeting like-minded volunteers with similar interests, who could possibly become friends or companions through volunteering. Most respondents also thought that the experience they had with volunteer tourism was a good reason to start volunteering locally, with an average response of 4.00 out of a maximum of 5.00.

The lowest-ranking reasons influencing returned volunteer tourists to volunteer locally had means that were lower than 4.00 out of 5.00, which is still a relatively high mean. These represented reasons which respondents thought were less compelling , including the opportunity to get to know those they were volunteering with which only computed a mean of 3.78. Respondents were also less interested in volunteering commitments that made use of skills they already had, and did not see the opportunity to model positive behaviours (such as contributing to the community) as strong reasons to participate. Lastly, despite the skewness of the respondents towards youth, the prospect of earning academic credits as a result of volunteering locally was not seen as a strong incentive for participation.

The key influencers that encourage local volunteerism as summarised above provide perspective for the analysis of the barriers to volunteering below, and will be used in the recommendations at the end of this chapter.

#### 5.7.3.2 RQ 6: Barriers to local volunteering

While respondents were asked to express their agreement to various possible reasons for local volunteering, a different approach was taken with analysing the barriers. Instead of suggesting barriers to volunteering, the question was asked in an open-ended format. This was designed to encourage respondents to think about the reasons that would realistically put them off volunteering and express these in their own words. The qualitative results were then analysed in NVivo 10, with key themes used to group similar answers. These themes and the corresponding number of respondents who mentioned them are expressed in the table below:

**Table 30: Barriers to local volunteering**

| Rank according to mentions | Barriers to local volunteering | No. of respondents who mentioned this reason * |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | Time | 21 |
| 2 | Location or transport reasons | 6 |
| 3 (tie) | Awareness of opportunities | 4 |
| 3 (tie) | Cost of volunteering | 4 |
| 4 (tie) | Commitment required | 3 |
| 4 (tie) | Interest in the volunteer activity | 3 |
| 4 (tie) | Lack of abilities | 3 |
| 4 (tie) | Perceived lack of needs | 3 |
| 5 | Lack of peers or friends | 2 |

* Note: As respondents may have skipped this open-ended question or provided more than one barrier in their responses, the number of mentions does not add up to the total returned sample of 40 respondents.

The most often mentioned barrier was that of time. This was brought up by more than half the respondents in the returned sample, and largely revolved around fitting volunteering around other existing commitments such as work and studies. These responses were also indicative of a lack of interest, as volunteering was not considered as important a priority as work and studies. They included comments such as ‘lack of time’, ‘As a full time student, it is hard to spare the hours needed’, and ‘I

don't have that much free time between uni (*sic*) and work'. The barrier of time commitment was also mentioned alongside the second most frequently described barrier – location or transport reasons. Those who cited location or transport as a reason felt that getting to volunteering locations was inconvenient or impractical, sometimes due to their reliance on public transport. These respondents provided comments such as 'it is hard…to find transportation to some places', and 'even if I am able to find an organisation where I can contribute a few hours a week, it has to be nearby as I don't drive thus making it much harder to travel to.'

Many also thought that a lack of awareness of suitable volunteer positions that may be were of interest to them was a notable barrier. These respondents thought that there was a 'lack of opportunities due to limited volunteer events and local services', with some acknowledging that it was a lack of effort on their part to find out about such opportunities that created this barrier ('I am very unaware of any volunteer organisations and/or services in my local community. If I was more able to find out information then I would be able to make a decision on what I would do.')

While some mentioned cost and commitment in general, they did not elaborate on which particular aspects they were referring to, simply mentioning that 'initial financial requirements' and 'level of commitment' were barriers to their participation in local volunteering. There was also a perception that what was available was not congruent with their interests, expressing this either in the form of a lack of interest ('I need to find something im (*sic*) really interested in. Limited options') or a perceived lack of needs within their local communities ('I have never participated in work with my local community before, mainly due to finding that there may not be enough work since areas are already protected such as the local park, and I feel that most members do respect the environment here'). The perceived lack of needs also extended to the

perception that countries needed help were being served in volunteer tourism trips, and hence, ‘In Australia, these basics (*sic*) needs are not much of an issue. Therefore, I would rather spend my time in a less fortunate country.’

Where there were needs that were identified, respondents sometimes hesitated to participate in local volunteering due to a lack of abilities, be it in terms of relevant skills that would contribute to the causes they desired to help, or a general lack of confidence in their abilities. There were also respondents who pointed out that their hesitance stemmed from not having peers or friends who were interested in volunteering locally, thereby reducing its attractiveness as a committed activity (‘Also, no one I know volunteers, therefore there is no positive influeces (*sic*) that I am directly involved with to encourage this type of work.’)

Some of these barriers related to the top reasons proffered for encouraging participation in local volunteering. These were:

1. Volunteering for a cause I’m interested in (Reasons for local volunteering – Rank 1; Barriers – Rank 5).
2. Finding a convenient commitment, in terms of time, location and finances (Reasons for local volunteering – Rank 3; Barriers – Rank 1, 2 and 3 (Cost of volunteering and Commitment required)).
3. Interaction with or invitation by other volunteers (Reasons for local volunteering – Rank 8 and 9 (As an opportunity to interact with like-minded individuals); Barriers – Rank 9).

These three reasons that were mentioned in both the reasons that influenced respondents to participate in local volunteering and the barriers that prevented them from doing so will form the focus for the recommendations to encourage local

volunteering proposed in the next chapter. These recommendations will also take into account the other reasons and barriers that did not overlap, contributing to a well-rounded perspective in this analysis.

In addition to the discussion above on the factors that encourage or impede local volunteering, it is pertinent to note that the behavioural intention responses may have been influenced by the hypothetical nature of questionnaire administration. This may have given rise to phantom desires to participate, with respondents giving answers to the affirmative but having no plans to do so in actuality (Lawton & Weaver 2008)

## 5.8 RQ 7: Sources of information for expectations

With respect to research question 7 – 'What are the sources of information that inform volunteer tourists' expectations? – this question was only asked in round 1. The full sample of 68 was therefore used to determine the key sources of information that influenced respondents' expectations. Although all 68 respondents answered this question, two respondents only ranked the two most influential sources of information for their expectations, instead of the three most influential sources. These two respondents were excluded from this ranking, with a total of 66 remaining in the sample for analysis. As none of the respondents selected the 'Other – Please specify' option, the ranking results will reflect this by excluding it.

In this analysis, each respondent's ranking was taken into account by converting their top three choices into votes. A vote was registered against each source of information in the ranking column that corresponded to that respondent's choice. For example, if a respondent ranked 'Sending organisation' as the most influential source of information, a vote was placed for 'Sending organisation' under the 'Rank 1' column.

Converting the rankings into individual votes allowed the data to retain its ranking positions, without ascribing numerical values to each rank. Table 31 shows the total number of votes received by each source of information, in their respective ranking positions. The results are sorted by the frequency of votes received by each source of information, in descending order.

**Table 31: Ranking of information sources by total votes**

| | Source of information | Rank 1 | Rank 2 | Rank 3 | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Sending organisation | 21 | 15 | 13 | 49 |
| 2 | Online (e.g., blogs, reviews, opinion articles) | 10 | 16 | 10 | 36 |
| 3 | Word of mouth (Recommendations from family or friends) | 11 | 12 | 10 | 33 |
| 4 | Personal needs (e.g., life goals) | 12 | 8 | 13 | 33 |
| 5 | Previous travel experience(s) | 4 | 10 | 10 | 24 |
| 6 | Previous volunteering experience(s) | 8 | 2 | 4 | 14 |
| 7 | Television (e.g., documentaries, news programs) | 0 | 1 | 3 | 4 |
| 8 | Print (e.g., biographies, newspaper articles) | 0 | 2 | 1 | 3 |
| 9 | Audio (e.g., radio programs, podcasts) | 0 | 0 | 2 | 2 |

The first few sources of information in this table represent the more influential options, as the total number of votes per source indicates the total number of respondents who deemed them influential enough to include as one of their three ranking options. The four most highly voted sources of information comprised of three external sources of information and one internal. It is unsurprising that Sending Organisation is at the top of the list, with 49 out of 66 respondents ranking it in their top three. The marketing and program design of sending organisations were likely to have encouraged participation in the upcoming volunteer tourism trip (Yüksel & Rimmington 1998). Furthermore, pre-departure briefings and detailed itinerary information would likely

have contributed to the expectations of volunteer tourists, providing the framework for what they should anticipate during their trips. This underscores the role of sending organisations in managing the expectations of volunteer tourists. The balance between promising benefits and the realities of volunteering abroad is a delicate one that needs to be carefully managed, as over-promising or under-delivering will inadvertently lead to dissatisfaction with volunteer tourism experiences.

More than half the respondents also voted for online sources of information, such as blogs and opinion articles about volunteer tourism, while word of mouth recommendations from people they knew were also highly rated. The ease of internet access allows participants to find out about the potential difficulties of their upcoming experiences and correspondingly informs their expectations (Moore 2014). It is also rife with personal testimonials of how volunteer tourism has not been as successful for host communities as they have been for individual tourists, cautioning others to think twice before they participate (Biddle 2014). Returning volunteer tourists, as with other tourists, often return with stories of their experiences, which may have served to inform the respondents' pre-trip expectations. It could fuel their enthusiasm for a positive experience, or serve as a warning to expect limited contributions in their time volunteering overseas, as evidenced by Interviewee 3 from Phase 1, who returned to Australia cautioning others against volunteer tourism. Respondents also thought that their internal source of information, in the form of personal needs, was influential in informing expectations about their upcoming trips. This may have been because personal goals are sometimes the key motivation for participating in volunteer tourism, a finding that is congruent in the study of motivations in this area (Chen & Chen 2011; Rehberg 2005) and relevant to the expectations of participants.

# Chapter 6 Discussion of results

The aim of this study was to explore the effects of the volunteer tourism experience on future travel and volunteering behaviours. The focus on volunteering behaviours was considered in relation to the prospect of subsequent acts of altruism. The study was informed by a review of the literature relevant to volunteer tourism and its parent fields of tourism and volunteering. This review, defined in Chapter 2, identified relevant knowledge gaps. While the motivations of volunteer tourists have been widely explored by researchers, their expectations leading up to these trips have yet to be examined in depth. The volunteer tourism literature revealed a lack of research relating to the exploration of post-return behavioural intentions. With most of the post-trip literature focused on the effects of volunteer tourism on host communities (Sin 2010) and volunteer tourists' unfamiliarity with their home upon return (Alexander 2009; Grabowski & Wearing 2008; 2010; 2011), the further-reaching effects of volunteer tourism on related volunteering activities in local and easily accessible settings had not been explored. As such, given the growing body of literature on volunteer tourism, it was considered timely to investigate the expectations and post-return behavioural intentions of volunteer tourists.

In Chapter 3, the selection of the EDP as a theoretical framework to underpin this study was discussed and justified. A review of the relevant literature explored current EDP applications, identifying expectations from the parent scholarly fields of tourism and volunteering to support the exploratory phase of the study on volunteer tourist expectations. Chapter 4 outlined the research questions arising from the literature review, followed by an explanation of the proposed research methods. An exploratory mixed method approach was used, wherein the results of an initial qualitative phase

informed the design of the quantitative data collection instrument. Interviews were conducted with sending organisations and returned volunteer tourists in order to determine volunteer tourist expectations about their trips. These expectations were then used in the measurement of expectations and disconfirmation during the two-round quantitative phase. A questionnaire was designed to measure expectations, disconfirmation, satisfaction and behavioural intentions. The results of both the qualitative and quantitative phases were discussed in Chapter 5. The chapter outlined volunteer tourist expectations, as well as their effects, disconfirmation and subsequent satisfaction levels on behavioural intentions related to volunteering and tourism.

The present chapter will therefore draw upon these findings to discuss the study's contribution to EDP and the fields of study. It will provide a high level summary of the results as they pertain to the research questions proposed for this study, then proceed to reconsider the literature in light of the findings to situate the contribution of this study and propose recommendations that will contribute to volunteer tourism practice, particularly in encouraging further volunteer participation.

## 6.1 Expectations of volunteer tourists, and theoretical contributions

For the purpose of examining expectations in volunteer tourism, the expectations held by volunteer tourists needed to be established in the first instance. Hence, in respect to research question 1 ('What do volunteer tourists expect from their travel experience?'), eight broad categories of expectations were compiled from the literature relating to expectations in the parent fields of tourism and volunteering. These were accommodation, activities, destination exploration, interaction with locals, interaction with other participants, safety, skills and support from staff. In addition to these existing categories, the interviews conducted with sending organisations and returned

volunteer tourists produced two additional categories of expectations – meaningful experience, and personal growth and learning. These two additional categories of experience underscored the relationship of volunteer tourism to its key aim of benefitting other communities overseas. While volunteer tourists sought and expected to make positive contributions to other communities, they also expected their worldviews and preconceptions to be challenged through this often-transformative experience.

While other studies have briefly touched on the topic of expectations in volunteer tourism as a complement to studies that primarily focus on motivations and image (Andereck et al. 2012; Chen & Chen 2011; Lee & Yen 2015; Reas 2015), the in-depth exploration of volunteer tourist expectations and their fulfilment is one of the key theoretical contributions to knowledge of the current study. It was by establishing these expectations in an exploratory manner that the concepts could be examined quantitatively, thereby providing insight into the effects they may have on behavioural intentions. The use of EDP in this exploratory study was a departure from the prevalence of SERVQUAL and similar questionnaires in the area of expectation studies in tourism (Khan 2003; Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry 1988; Tribe & Snaith 1998). This approach shifted the focus away from a service provider-centric perspective to the experience itself, an extension that is crucial to this study given its focus on how the experience affects prospective acts of altruism and travel. The trends in consumption have emphasised the importance of experiences, and as younger generations of consumers continue to seek increasingly interesting and impactful experiences, it reinforces the experience-oriented direction needed for future research. As a result of this focus on experience, this study extended the examination of expectations beyond the organisational discussion that has dominated EDP and

Expectancy Theory in general (Oppermann 2000; Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry 1988; Yoon & Uysal 2005).

By employing EDP, this study contributes to the development of psychological perspectives in tourism. In tourism, expectations about personal benefits include the interactions of tourists with host communities and fellow travellers, and the enjoyment that they derive from destinations. Service provider expectations have generally included accommodation, itinerary-related obligations and support provided to tourists (Husbands 1994; Kim 1997; Luk et al. 1994). Other commonly measured expectations include those of motivations and destination image, which have been emphasised in a number of studies (del Bosque et al. 2009; Otto & Ritchie 1996; Ye & Tussyadiah 2011). As a result, it is by incorporating the impact and meaning of volunteer tourism that this study has extended the psychological examination of tourism beyond the previous studies of expectations that have focused solely on personal benefits and the service provider perspective.

Through the inclusion of conceptions of the self within the study of expectations, in the form of respondents' identities and how they perceive the world around them, the current study has widened the discussion of expectations beyond its original hedonistic leisure orientation (Oh, Fiore & Jeoung 2007). The findings have shown significance in the associations between such self-concepts and respondent intentions to participate in volunteer activities, as has been shown in previous studies relating to volunteering (Haski-Leventhal & Bargal 2008) and volunteer tourism (Lee & Yen 2015). This study has emphasised the importance of moving the discussion of expectations towards the transformative potential of experiences. While the emphasis towards an experience-based economy continues to grow (Pine & Gilmore 2011), understandings of satisfaction with such experiences should determine how they affect participants

rather than describing the service encounter (Oh, Fiore & Jeoung 2007). By incorporating volunteer tourist expectations that relate to causes and beneficiaries, this study is also in line with the progressive shift in focus towards the study of the impacts of tourism and its long term sustainability in the face of increasing scarcity of resources (Ong et al. 2014; Yeoman 2012).

## 6.2 Repeat purchase, travel and volunteering intentions

Beyond ascertaining the types of expectations held by volunteer tourists, this study utilised a 'will be' comparative standard to explore the relationship between these expectations, their corresponding disconfirmation and resultant changes in behavioural intentions for volunteer tourism, tourism and volunteering. The use of 'will be' or predictive expectations was consistent with the study's aims, eliciting the comparative standards of respondents that were closest to their anticipated experiences. This was chosen in contrast to alternative comparative standards as elaborated in Chapter 3 – ideal ('should be'), minimum tolerable ('must be') and idealistic ('can be') as discussed in the literature review (Gilly, Cron & Barry 1982; Kalamas, Laroche & Cézard 2002; Oliver 1980; Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry 1988). The 'will be' predictive expectation is usually the realistic standard that consumers use as a basis for comparing their consumption experiences, and was therefore chosen over the other comparative standards. This distinction was made clear to respondents in the phrasing of the expectation variables, carefully avoiding mention of the other alternative comparative standards to minimise confusion. The expectation variables were constructed around the key phrase 'will be' in order to elicit predictive responses.

In answering research question 2 ('How do expectations, disconfirmation and overall satisfaction of volunteer tourists affect their repeat purchase intentions?'), this study

found that these variables – expectations, disconfirmation and satisfaction – had very little effect on repeat purchase intentions. Regardless of their experience and satisfaction, most respondents indicated high likelihood of participating in volunteer tourism beyond their most recent trip. The independence of repeat purchase intentions from other variables provides a hint that respondents were willing to participate in volunteer tourism again, regardless of their experiences on their recently-concluded trip. This finding is similar to Lee and Yen's (2015) examination of repeat purchase intentions using motivational factors, for which respondents also indicated a strong likelihood of future volunteer tourism participation. However, while Lee and Yen (2015) were able to ascertain a positive relationship between volunteer tourists' interactions with fellow volunteers and their intention to participate, this study did not find a similarly significant association as these were not part of the study design.

Other behavioural intentions were also measured in this study to provide data for research question 3 ('How do the expectations, disconfirmation and overall satisfaction of volunteer tourists affect their intentions to travel overseas, to undertake volunteer travel domestically and to volunteer locally?'). The post-return behavioural intentions related to domestic travel volunteering and local volunteering yielded significant relationships with disconfirmations under the category of personal growth and learning. Those who were disinclined to participate in domestic travel volunteering and local volunteering indicated higher levels of positive disconfirmation related to changed perspectives and identity transformation respectively. Although the exact magnitude of this relationship could not be established in this study, the possible inverse relationships between participation and some disconfirmation variables are nevertheless significant. The tentative conclusions provided by this study negate the initial assumption that volunteer tourism could serve as a recruitment conduit for other

forms of volunteering, a key objective of this study. Volunteering has been shown to have a positive effect on volunteers' worldviews (Haski-Leventhal & Bargal 2008), and the corresponding effect of worldviews on volunteer rates was also positive.

However, in the context of this research study, the transformational experiences of volunteer tourists, which has been reported in other studies (Lee & Yen 2015), appeared to diminish volunteer tourists' intentions to continue volunteering. It is possible that the starting point of this study which assumed that volunteer tourism would positively impact on recruitment for other forms of volunteering was overly presumptuous. Where volunteer tourism experiences are negative the impact of the experience on intentions may have manifested differently. The deliberately neutral phrasing of the relevant disconfirmation variables ('This trip transformed my perspective of the world around me' and 'This trip transformed my identity') may have prompted respondents to respond to both positive and negative transformations of their world view and identity. Without knowing the correlation coefficients of these transformations, it would be impossible to draw definitive conclusions regarding the effects these personal transformations had on behavioural intentions. Insofar as the results show, however, there is a tentative indication of inverse relationships between some of these transformational variables and intentions to volunteer closer to home.

By examining expectations and disconfirmation alongside behavioural intentions pre-departure and post-return, the results provide some support towards the view that disconfirmation has a stronger influence on satisfaction than pre-experience expectations (Zwick, Pieters & Baumgartner 1995). This could have been result of the assimilation that may take place to adjust expectations post-experience, in order to increase its congruence to reality. It also indicated that disconfirmation may have a stronger influence on repeat purchase intentions than pre-experience expectations, as

indicated by the significant associations described in the previous chapter. These tests comparing the expectation, disconfirmation and satisfaction with behavioural intentions produced statistically significant results with disconfirmation variables, and not with the expectation or satisfaction variables. Though most repeat purchase variables were unaffected by expectations and satisfaction, the disconfirmation of two variables hints at the potentially more impactful role of disconfirmation on changing behavioural intentions. While the predictive potential of expectations, disconfirmation and overall satisfaction on behavioural intentions could not be ascertained because of the small sample size, this study concluded that the volunteer tourists were highly likely to participate in volunteer tourism in the future regardless of the levels of expectation, disconfirmation or satisfaction reported.

## 6.3 Changes in behavioural intentions

Data relating to expectations and behavioural intentions is typically collected at a single point during the consumption experience process (Yüksel & Yüksel 2001). The resultant debate has centred on whether pre- or post-consumption measurement of expectations are more suitable for the study of satisfaction (Carmen 1990; Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry 1998). In various encounters, it has been shown that post-consumption disconfirmation or post-consumption measurement of expectations are stronger predictors of satisfaction and behavioural intentions (Carmen 1990; Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry 1998). The longitudinal measurement of behavioural intentions conducted in the current study, comprising pre-trip and post-return behavioural intentions, also provided tentative evidence into the stability of behavioural intentions, in the context of volunteer tourism experiences.

In regard to research question 4 (‘Do disconfirmation and satisfaction alter behavioural intentions pre- and post-travel?’), the results of this study in Chapter 5 did not find significant differences in disconfirmation and satisfaction that could explain the changes in behavioural intentions for overseas travel, overseas volunteering and local volunteering. However, for changes in behavioural intentions related to domestic travel volunteering, statistically significant results were found with two disconfirmation variables (‘The sending organisation had staff local to my host destination who were contactable at all times’ and ‘This trip changed my perspective of the world around me’). The results provided an indication of a possible positive relationship between these disconfirmation variables and increased likelihood of participating in domestic travel volunteering. While seemingly contradictory to the prior result of a negative relationship between behavioural intentions to participate in domestic travel volunteering and the disconfirmation variable of ‘This trip changed my perspective of the world around me’ in research question 3, it is worth noting that the behavioural intention independent variables measured in research question 4 were computed differences between the pre-trip and post-return measurements, in contrast to the post-return behavioural intentions used as independent variables in research question 3. Therefore, this result is not a contradiction of the associations described in relation to research question 3. Instead, it provides tentative exploration into the complexity of volunteer tourism experiences. There were respondents who reported positive disconfirmation for their change in perspective of the world intersected with a significant proportion who said they were unlikely to participate in domestic travel volunteering. In spite of this, there was still an overall increase of intentions to volunteer even if some of them were remained unlikely to do so. These could have been represented by respondents whose initial ‘Extremely unlikely’ answer to the post-

return behavioural intention ($BI_2$) variable ‘How likely are you to start or continue with domestic travel volunteering?’ was changed to ‘Unlikely’ after their experience, indicating a milder disinclination to volunteer post-return.

Those who experienced a positive change in behavioural intentions related to domestic travel volunteering were more likely to have reported positive disconfirmation for the two statistically significant results. The appearance of the personal growth and learning category variable of ‘This trip changed my perspective of the world around me’ in this set of significant results points to the possible impact personal transformation has in influencing behavioural intentions.

In regard to research question 5 (‘Do past experiences of travelling overseas and volunteering overseas and locally have an effect on changes in behavioural intentions?’), the solitary statistically significant finding related to this research question was that those who had previous experience in local volunteering were more likely to continue local volunteering. This echoes previous research in the field of volunteering, in which those who have previous or current involvement in volunteering are more likely to express intentions to volunteer in the future (Clary & Snyder 1999; Lee & Brudney 2012; Stukas, Snyder & Clary 1999).

## 6.4 Reasons for and contributions to volunteering

The main aim of this study was to explore volunteer tourism as a conduit for encouraging participation in other forms of volunteering, an area which has not been researched previously. The participation of returned volunteer tourists in similar or disparate forms of volunteering within communities closer to home can increase their sense of connection with other members of their communities, and allow them to reap the benefits of frequent social interactions (Haski-Leventhal & Bargal 2008; Wilson &

Musick 1999). From the results relating to research question 6 ('What factors encourage or discourage returning volunteer tourists from participation in different forms of volunteering?'), three areas of the volunteer tourism experience emerged as important in encouraging future volunteering, whether overseas, domestic travel or within their own local communities. These three areas were psychological fulfilment in terms of meaningful experience and learning, the way returned volunteer tourists relate to the world around them, and practical considerations relating to volunteer logistics. These three areas will be discussed in detail, accompanied by suggestions to enhance experiences in each area, thereby stimulating further participation in all forms of volunteering.

In exploring the expectations of volunteer tourists during the qualitative research phase, a new category emerging from the interviews was meaningful experience. In this category, interviewees expected that their experiences would be meaningful in a variety of ways – through contributing to causes they believed in, witnessing the benefits of their work for the host community, and through an awareness of enduring benefits for the host community long after conclusion of their involvement. From the responses received when respondents were asked to elaborate on their behavioural intentions relating to volunteer tourism (refer to Table 27), it was evident that close interactions with host community members were important for participants to see the fruits of their labour, as it imbued them with a sense of learning and achievement that they may seek to replicate in future volunteer tourism experiences. As one of the more motivation-oriented forms of travel (Weaver 2006), expectations of meaningful contributions to host communities are unsurprising in volunteer tourism.

In this respect, the efficacy and continuity of volunteer tourism projects may be instrumental in instilling a stronger sense of volunteering in post-return volunteer

tourists. The management of this aspect spans the entire volunteer tourism experience, from selecting applicable projects to post-trip updates about progress. Since the communication of volunteer tourism program objectives and anticipated outcomes can guide expectations (Gnoth 1997), clarity is paramount at the pre-purchase stage. Furthermore, the findings of this study demonstrates that interactions between host community members and volunteer tourists is a key expectation, a finding consistent with earlier studies from researchers such as Andereck et al. (2012) who found that contact with residents was key to differentiating between clusters of volunteer tourists. Therefore the encouragement of such contact, along with clear communication about the progress and benefits of projects, may produce positive effects on volunteer tourist sentiments towards volunteering. It can aid the evolution of volunteer tourism through offering clear objectives that potential volunteer tourists can use to align with their personal goals.

The conscious decision to ensure relevance between host community and volunteer tourist benefits can also contribute to the longer term relevance of volunteer tourism as a phenomenon (Ong et al. 2014), simultaneously addressing the criticism that it is a temporally short activity with limited community benefits (Guttentag 2009). Communication of project progress and benefits to host communities, when continued post-return, could encourage volunteer tourists to consider further involvement in volunteering, leveraging off their original expectation to participate in meaningful work to serve as an impetus for further volunteer participation. This is in line with the findings for research question 3, in respect to the disconfirmations under the category of personal growth and learning producing statistically significant results when tested against behavioural intentions. Respondents made frequent mention of the vulnerable as prospective beneficiaries of their assistance. The vulnerable, as expressed in terms

of the responses of the current study, included young children, the elderly as well as animal populations. While volunteer organisations may be hard pressed to attract more volunteers based on this finding, as the beneficiaries of their services are driven by the core mission of the organisation, it remains relevant to sending organisations that take a longer term view of their participants' involvement in volunteering. Underscoring the expectations of personal growth and learning, the finding that these variables are important to volunteer tourists could signal the need for alignment between sending organisations and volunteer organisations to promote continuity in helping the vulnerable. A myriad of roles made available to returned volunteer tourists through partnerships with local volunteer organisations could help to overcome this gap, simultaneously dealing with the lack of opportunity awareness that impedes local volunteerism (Clary & Snyder 1999; Hustinx & Lammertyn 2003). Therefore, by promoting volunteer opportunities available with local volunteer organisations, sending organisations can contribute to local volunteering recruitment efforts.

The other new category of expectations which arose from the interviews was personal growth and learning, encompassing those who related differently to abstract social issues such as poverty and disability after witnessing it firsthand on their trip, as well as those who felt that they had come to better that of their personal identity. From the survey results, the disconfirmation variables which showed significant differences in comparing the various volunteering behavioural intentions of respondents included those to do with changes in volunteer tourists' perspectives of the world around them, as well as their identities, supporting the importance of including this new category of expectations in future research. The significant results indicate that, consistent with the volunteering literature, volunteer tourism may have the potential to transform how volunteer tourists relate to the world around them, promoting a feeling of personal

growth in their enhanced awareness (Haski-Levethal & Bargal 2008). It is hard to influence such perspectives because they relate primarily to individual encounters, and the unknown correlation between these transformations and behavioural intentions impeded deeper examination of this relationship. The responses that were received in the survey were indicative of deeper self-awareness towards the impact of individuals on the world around them. This awareness of the wider impacts of volunteer tourism trips was accompanied by a strong sense of relationship, with many indicating that they were more likely to participate in local volunteering if their friends or family members participated (Clary et al. 1998). This reinforces the existing understanding in the volunteer literature that the camaraderie is important in choosing to volunteer, pointing to the socialisation (or solidary) motivations of volunteers (Clary et al. 1998; Prestby et al. 1990). This finding also underscores the significance of the invitation as a means to encouraging family and friends to volunteer, and is an area in which volunteer organisations can concentrate with a view to boosting the recruitment of volunteers (Barraket et al. 2013). Leveraging the influence of existing volunteers on the people around them can strengthen the recruitment strategy of myriad volunteer organisations, reducing the time and effort expended on untargeted, and often inefficient, recruitment of volunteers (Barraket et al. 2013; Dolnicar & Randle 2007).

While the less tangible aspects of psychological impact and worldview are pertinent to the discussion of continued volunteering, the practical considerations of volunteering locally are equally worthy of attention. These require the examination of the everyday barriers that are faced by those who consider volunteer opportunities. As the trends in volunteering continue to favour episodic commitment (Cnaan & Handy 2006; Dunn, Chambers & Hyde 2015; Handy, Brodeur & Cnaan 2006), convenience plays a large part in lowering the barriers to volunteering. Responses to the questionnaire indicated

that work and social activities were higher priorities than volunteering. In this context, volunteering was viewed as an activity that would be undertaken in circumstances where it could be fitted between the other two priorities. While volunteering opportunities with finite commitments may encourage participation, this approach may not be realistic for many volunteer organisations because of the nature of the work that they demand of their volunteers. Often, volunteer roles that involve helping individuals or groups, such as working in a soup kitchen or tutoring the underprivileged, require the physical presence of volunteers to fulfil these roles.

Geographic location was also a consideration for the convenience of volunteering, insofar as it affects those who commute via public transport and may not be able to reach volunteering locations easily. The financial aspects of volunteering were mentioned in relation to daily expenses and the expenses of moving away from family homes to start lives as young adults, and were sometimes seen to be prohibitive in the minds of the respondents. Where appropriate and enabled by technology, volunteer organisations that have roles that do not require a physical presence, or only require temporally finite occasions of help, should emphasise these attributes in recruiting for volunteers (Hustinx, Handy & Cnaan 2010). The time and location flexibility available for such roles may make them attractive volunteer opportunities (Musick & Wilson 2008), thereby allowing volunteer organisations to take advantage of a wider pool of potential volunteers, which could be persuaded to deeper commitments once they have started volunteering with the organisation.

In relating these practical constraints and recommendations to overcome them, it is also pertinent to consider the possibility of phantom interest (Lawton & Weaver 2008). Phantom interest, the expression of interest without the intention to act on it, could stem from respondents' unwillingness to admit that they would not continue

volunteering. While financial and geographical location were mentioned as barriers to local volunteering, the expensive and geographically distant volunteer tourism trips respondents had just returned from is suggestive that these were not truly barriers. Further exploration of the behavioural intentions and actual behaviour of returned volunteer tourists through longitudinal studies is warranted to explore the strength of these barriers more thoroughly.

## 6.5 Methodological contribution

Although the use of EDP is not unique in the fields of tourism and volunteering, this study makes a methodological contribution through its use of longitudinal data to study volunteer tourism experiences. One of the key critiques of EDP has been the measurement of expectations and disconfirmation taking place at a single point in time (Yüksel & Yüksel 2001). This single-stage form of data collection has been criticised for limiting observation of the effects that expectation and disconfirmation have on behavioural intentions over period of time. It is also affected by adjustments to assimilate dissonant outcomes when measured together. By measuring expectations pre-departure and disconfirmation post-return, and then comparing them to behavioural intentions at both stages of the experience, this study has contributed to the literature on measuring expectations in volunteer tourism. The two-stage longitudinal data collected for this study facilitated the comparison of expectations and disconfirmation with the same behavioural intention outcome variables collected from the same respondents pre-trip and post-return, enabling this methodological contribution.

Through the use of longitudinal data, albeit over the course of single volunteer tourism experiences rather than over longer periods of time, this study has enabled an

exploration of the variables that influence changes in behavioural intentions. By opting to limit the longitudinal data over the course of a single experience, it was anticipated that changing behavioural intentions would be confined to the effects of the experience and limit the influence of other external factors (Ruspini 2002). The collection of longitudinal data is a methodological contribution because it complements the sparse literature on longitudinal expectations and behavioural intentions research in the tourism and volunteering contexts.

Through the qualitative and quantitative approaches, this study made contributions to EDP, the application of longitudinal data collection techniques in EDP, and to volunteer tourism. This chapter outlined those contributions, including a detailed discussion of how this study has contributed to the literature on volunteering, tourism and volunteer tourism. Aside from these contributions, the main aim of this study – to explore the effects of volunteer tourism on future travel and volunteering behaviours – was also achieved. While expectations levels did not have a noticeable impact on volunteering and travel behavioural intentions, some of the disconfirmation variables measured showed significant relationships with some behavioural intentions. Notably, it was the disconfirmation in respondents' perspectives of the world and their identity transformation that were most likely to influence behavioural intentions. Despite being unable to assess the exact nature of this influence due to the small sample size, the results of this study indicate a relationship between these variables that could be further explored. The next chapter will recommend some of the avenues that could be pursued for future research by acknowledging the limitations of this study and leveraging these limitations to guide the recommendations. The chapter will also conclude the study with a statement of the researcher's journey through this study.

# Chapter 7 Conclusions

The main objective of this study was to discover the effects of expectations and their subsequent disconfirmation on future volunteer tourist behavioural intentions. The previous chapter included a detailed discussion of the contributions of the study to knowledge in the areas of EDP and volunteer tourism, guided by the study's research questions. The contributions of the research to practice were also outlined, particularly in the context of volunteering. The study confirmed previous findings about the strong influence attributable to disconfirmation on behavioural intentions. It provides support for the similarities between volunteer tourism and volunteerism experiences through the impact of their transformational potential on participant identities. This transformational potential was also explored in a study published just prior to the submission of this research, which found that strong internal transformations experienced by volunteer tourist were not necessarily accompanied by behavioural changes (Coghlan & Weiler 2015). Similarly, this study found that expectations did not impact significantly on behavioural intentions, but the findings about how disconfirmation influences behavioural intentions have provided significant insights into the expectation and disconfirmation processes for volunteer tourists. However, the transformative learning expectations of volunteer tourists may yield segments of participants who could be targeted for their desire to engage in greater dialogue and reflection on their trips, requiring targeted strategies from sending organisations to maximise their learning experiences (Knollenberg et al. 2014).

Despite these contributions, several limitations of this study should be acknowledged. These limitations, which emerged through the course of undertaking the study, will be accompanied by suggestions to mitigate them in future research. Recommendations will also be made about a future research agenda, considering the broader

perspectives of volunteer tourism, EDP and its parent fields. The study will be concluded by some observations about the personal impact of the study experience on the researcher.

## 7.1 Limitations of this research

The acknowledgment of limitations in this study can guide future researchers. Three key limitations are identified in the following section, along with three associated recommendations.

The first limitation is the small sample size. While the original proposed analyses for Phase 2 required a minimum of 200 respondents to complete both the pre-trip and post-return questionnaires, the study obtained 40 completed responses in total. The smaller sample size necessitated a change in analyses, and was an impediment to answering the research questions in-depth. Despite the demanding nature of longitudinal studies, and the validity of the statistical analyses that were eventually chosen, the results could have been enriched by a different set of analyses using a larger sample size. To this end, instead of attempting to garner the most responses by approaching a larger number of sending organisations, a key suggestion is that future administration of similar surveys should be undertaken in collaboration with one or two key sending organisations over an extended period. The establishment of a consistent working relationship with one or two sending organisation could circumvent the obstacle of non-participation due to unfamiliarity, and enable the questionnaire to be sent to tourists on multiple trips over a period of time. Aside from the longitudinal nature of the two-round questionnaire, data collected over a lengthier period could also indicate the changing nature of expectations from volunteer tourists over time. However, there is research to support a maximum of three rounds of longitudinal data

collection for episodic volunteering, of which volunteer tourism is a type, as respondents tended to move on from these experiences, thereby reducing the relevance of such longitudinal studies (Smith & Dickson 2013).

The second limitation is associated with the variables measured. While behavioural intentions are worthy of examination, the importance of acting on these intentions should not be overlooked. Therefore, aside from the two-round questionnaire that was used in this study, additional rounds could be designed to measure the actual rates of volunteering six months or a year after return. This would provide extra data points for researchers to examine the effects of volunteer tourism on volunteer behaviour, thereby enriching the study of volunteer tourism and its associated effects. Ideally, a third data point measuring actual behaviour post-return could provide a clearer picture of the effects of volunteer tourism on actual volunteering rates amongst returned volunteer tourists, an area which has not been explored in the other longitudinal studies of volunteer tourism (Lee & Yen 2015; McGhee 2002). However, it is worth noting that increasing the number of data collection rounds will correspondingly result in higher rates of respondent dropout, with respondent fatigue setting in (Loeber & Farrington 1994). Recommendations to increase respondent rates could be approached from two perspectives. Firstly, respondents could be recruited through paid panels, providing a wider reach and greater numbers (Menard 2007). Secondly, in response to respondent fatigue, an attractive financial incentive could be awarded directly to each respondent so as to encourage continued participation (Menard 2007).

Lastly, the demographic profile of the sample indicates a large proportion of female respondents (87.5%) who were young (87.5% below the age of 30) and Australian (82.1%). The dominant Australian nationality was an effect of the research design as the researcher was based at an Australian university, therefore the dominance of

female respondents is reflective of the gender divide in participation rates (Andereck et al. 2012; GeckoGo 2009; Tourism Research and Marketing Group 2008). However, the age of the respondents could have been more diverse, as the present sample was dominated by young respondents, revealing a distinct lack of respondents aged 40 and above. Sampling to include more age groups could contribute to the richness of discussion in a study such as this, by gathering people with diverse experiences and at different life stages to examine the differences in their behavioural intentions as a result of those factors. Furthermore, with ageing populations around the world and the rise of grey nomads as post-retirement travellers (Leonard & Onyx 2009), the experience of older volunteer tourists deserves more attention. In response to this limitation, the recommendation is consistent with the first limitation – the merit of working with one or two sending organisations over a longer period of time – with the express purpose of selecting a sending organisation with diverse participants in their volunteer tourism programs.

## 7.2 Recommendations for further research

Aside from the practical limitations faced by this study, certain theoretical limitations were also encountered. In an attempt to reduce respondent burden and resultant attrition in the two rounds of questionnaire data collection (Boys et al. 2003), only 20 items were measured in the final questionnaire, necessitating the use of more general items instead of detailed ones. These 20 items represented the ten categories of expectations that emerged from the literature and interviews. In addition to the measurement of behavioural intentions, a repeat measurement of expectations would have provided an additional data point for determining the relationship between pre-trip expectations, post-return expectations, post-return disconfirmation and the various behavioural intentions. The use of more detailed expectation items could have added

depth to the methodological and theoretical contributions of this study. Similarly, the use of a 7-point scale may illuminate the differences between responses more clearly than the current 5-point scale, adding further depth to the study's contributions (Fink 2009; Rea & Parker 2005).

In the study, disconfirmation was assumed to be a proxy of post-return adjusted expectations, a relationship outlined by researchers who support one-stage collection of expectation, disconfirmation and satisfaction data (Parasuraman, Zaithaml & Berry 1998). The argument for post-experience measurement of expectations was presented in the literature review of EDP in Chapter 3, wherein the process of expectation adjustment was explained as an iterative process in response to positive or negative disconfirmation outcomes (Devlin, Gwynne & Ennew 2002). This adjustment, a response dissonance in the consumption process, was aimed at reducing the associated discomfort of disconfirmation. Thus the limitation of only measuring one set of expectations constrained the capacity of the study to contribute to this topic area. Instead, it is suggested that future studies should include a post-return measurement of expectations, to advance understanding of changes in the areas of expectation and satisfaction studies.

The analysis conducted in this study was outlined and explained at the end of Chapter 4 as an alternative analysis. However, this was not the original proposed analysis. The original analysis was aimed at discovering the nuances of the relationships between expectation, disconfirmation and behavioural intention, and its accompanying justification and epistemological discussions were included in Chapter 4. However, this analysis was not conducted due to the limited sample size, thereby requiring the alternative analysis strategy. The sampling limitations discussed in the previous section were instrumental in the decision to use the alternative analysis. Therefore

with the strategies recommended as a response to this limitation, a larger sample size would enable future research to conduct the originally proposed set of analyses, thereby providing what is anticipated to be a more detailed examination of the relationships between expectation, disconfirmation and behavioural intention. Situating this study within the wider contexts of volunteering, tourism and effective altruism, there are other areas that can be explored in these domains. Despite this research making contributions to the use of EDP within volunteer tourism, and the exploration of changing behavioural intentions over the course of a volunteer tourism trip, the study is ultimately an examination of volunteer tourism using single comparison standard. Other researchers in studies of EDP have postulated that the processes of satisfaction operate under multiple standards of comparison (Yüksel & Yüksel 2001). On this basis, future research could be encouraged to utilise multiple theories of comparison as gateways to developing more holistic frameworks of comparison, cognisant of the effect this will have on requiring larger sample sizes to do so.

In examining the relationship between volunteer tourism experiences and behavioural intentions, satisfaction-related theories were similarly restrictive in illuminating the processes that mediate experiences and behavioural intentions, thereby limiting the recommendations that can be used to encourage the connection between volunteer tourism and other forms of volunteer activities in the current study. The use of other theories in future research, such as those in the area of social exchange, may be able to provide more insight into the relationship between volunteer tourism experiences and volunteer tourists' propensities to continue engaging in volunteer behaviours post-return. Social exchange theories, which are predicated on two-sided, mutually rewarding processes (Mitchell & Cropanzano 2005), may help to extend our

understanding of how interaction between volunteers and beneficiaries may affect expectations and subsequent behavioural intentions. Others, such as Psychological Contract Theory (Farmer & Fedor 1997; 1999) may also shed light on individuals' perceived promises and terms of relationships with sending organisations, and how these affect their propensity to participate in volunteer behaviours post-trip. By expanding beyond commerce-drive satisfaction theories, a richer discussion can be developed beyond the presumption of volunteer tourists as perpetual consumers, allowing their other motivations and expectations to be explored.

This study took inspiration from the concept of effective altruism, providing a useful philosophical perspective through which a connection between volunteer tourism and local volunteering could be made. In its current form, effective altruism is primarily based on financial principles, with the quantification of help per unit of money used as a measure of the effectiveness of an altruistic act (Singer 2015). It seeks the greatest good that can be done with money, and its practitioners have enacted it in myriad ways such as seeking charities that have proven financial records of lean operations that benefit large numbers of people to donate money to, or by undertaking high paying jobs and donating large portions of the resulting incometo charities (Singer 2015). Effective altruism is unconventional in rejecting the notion that good intentions and volunteering for the less fortunate are worthy, regardless of efficiency. It takes a number-driven, utilitarian stance in applying calculations of help rendered per dollar unit and concepts of opportunity cost and argues that donations to well-run charities can sometimes produce better outcomes than the donors volunteering time and effort for charity operations. In particular, the donation of money across geographical borders to fund locally-run charities that have a deep understanding of and networks

in the communities in which they operate is considered far more effective than a volunteer being parachuted into the community to help (Singer 2015).

This form of efficiency-driven help is an example of leveraging differences across geographical boundaries to make the greatest contribution to others. Instead of focusing on the benefits to oneself, the global citizenship driven by this philosophy seeks to maximise other-centric benefits, without the need to glorify the donor. The adoption of this primarily financial concept has not precluded it from being adopted as a philosophical standpoint for this study, as its spirit forms the basis for the argument against expensive overseas volunteer tourism trips in lieu of contributions to their own communities. The benefits of volunteering in one's own community, including social cohesion and stronger mental health, have longer term effects on volunteers (Haski-Leventhal & Bargal 2008; Wilson & Musick 1999). The pursuit of satisfaction through volunteer tourism may replicate some of these effects, but are arguably harder to maintain over a long period of time,identified as one of the key barriers in this study.

This study was initiated with the aim of exploring ways in which expectation fulfilment could be used to influence returned volunteer tourists to contribute beyond their overseas experience. Instead of encouraging participants to view global citizenry as requiring their presence at host destinations, this study set out to explore ways in which volunteer tourists could be encouraged to participate as global citizens through contributing to their local community, without feeling the compulsion to be overseas in the name of global citizenry. It is a tentative exploration for answers in the face of critics who decry volunteer tourism as expensive and ultimately hedonistic undertakings that are inefficient in the outcomes they provide (Biddle 2014; Guttentag 2009). This search for an alternative means of contribution took inspiration from effective altruism in looking beyond the assumption that doing something is better than

nothing, and searching for alternatives. However, the use of effective altruism as a personal philosophy in this study is insufficient to develop it beyond its current financial roots. Future research should be conducted to develop it into a philosophy used to examine the propensities of volunteers and volunteer tourists to entertain such utilitarian concepts in their decision-making processes. The application of such a concept in volunteer tourism could diminish its participation in the future, but could also spur the development of more effective sending organisations as their less well-run counterparts exit the market for the lack of participants.

## 7.3 Concluding statement

This study aimed to understand the expectations of volunteer tourists, and the effects these expectations and their consequent fulfilment on volunteer tourist propensities to travel and volunteer upon returning from their trips. Adopting the EDP was one avenue of exploring the research questions, resulting in the contribution of this study towards broadening the use of EDP beyond the organisational context to experiences. Through the interviews conducted in Phase 1 in response to research question 1, two categories of expectations – meaningful experience and personal growth and learning – were identified to augment the existing categories of expectations identified in the tourism and volunteering literature. By providing some initial evidence in research questions 2 and 3 for the effects of transformed self-perceptions on behavioural intentions, this study has suggested some actions that may assist volunteer tourism stakeholders, particularly sending organisations, to enable volunteer tourists to return with more meaningful experiences. Through the changes in behavioural intentions analysed in relation to research questions 4 and 5, it has also provided some support for the strong influence disconfirmation has been shown to have on behavioural intentions. While research question 6 has also reinforced the reasons returned

volunteer tourists volunteer post-trip and the barriers that prevent them from doing so, research question 7 provided insight into the sources of information used to influence expectations that were instrumental in affecting behavioural intentions.

The future of volunteer tourism is contingent on its continued relevance to the communities it serves, and the legacy it leaves for volunteer tourists in its wake (Ong et al. 2014), hence this exploration into expectation and fulfilment in volunteer tourism. Despite previous intentions to conduct this study as a journey to convert volunteer tourists into more effective altruists by encouraging returnees to volunteer domestically and within their own communities instead of engaging in more volunteer tourism trips, the findings have produced tentative opposition to this notion. While volunteer tourism experiences turned some towards continuing altruistic acts in their communities, it also turned a similar number of volunteer tourists away from local volunteering. Therefore, while the idea of volunteer tourism as a conduit for recruitment of local volunteers may sound logical, the study suggests that it is a more complicated relationship in reality. However, given the limitations identified of this study, there is a possibility that future studies building upon this work could provide more definitive insights into the relationships between expectations, disconfirmation and behavioural intentions related to volunteer tourism. As volunteer tourism continues to evolve, its contribution to volunteer tourist experiences may yet prove to be beneficial to communities at home and abroad.

## 7.4 Epilogue

Although I set out to discover the role that volunteer tourism expectations and experiences could play in encouraging volunteer behaviour beyond those trips, this study has broadened my view of what volunteer tourism can do for participants. I still

question the efficacy of people from developing countries participating in short term projects overseas, and believe that there are more effective ways to express altruism and use our limited resources efficiently with a view to narrowing the opportunity gaps that exist between developed and developing countries. It may have seemed logical to assume that volunteer tourism could function as a conduit for other forms of volunteering, but the results of this study indicate a complexity that makes this assumption appear naive. The practice of altruism is seldom pure, and its inextricable linkage with personal benefits in the area of volunteer tourism was emphasised by the significant relationships between changing volunteer tourist perspectives of the world and their propensity to volunteer beyond their trips. While my initial goal was to make use of expectations and their fulfilment as a basis for recommendations in the way sending organisations could organise their programs to encourage local volunteering, it is now apparent that the volunteer tourism experience is transformational in ways that could be both beneficial and detrimental to their future volunteering behaviour intentions. My main motivation for starting this study was an interest in the volunteer tourism phenomenon because of my personal experience. However, in the course of conducting this study, I have extended this into the wider phenomenon of volunteering and the individual's role in society. This morphing of interest has been paralleled in my personal life, where I find myself undertaking an increasingly wider variety of volunteer roles and actively seeking occasions to contribute to my community. It is apt that the volunteer tourism experiences of my younger years have taken their time to reveal their transformational impacts over the progression of this study.

# Appendices

# Appendix A Interview schedule – Volunteer tourists

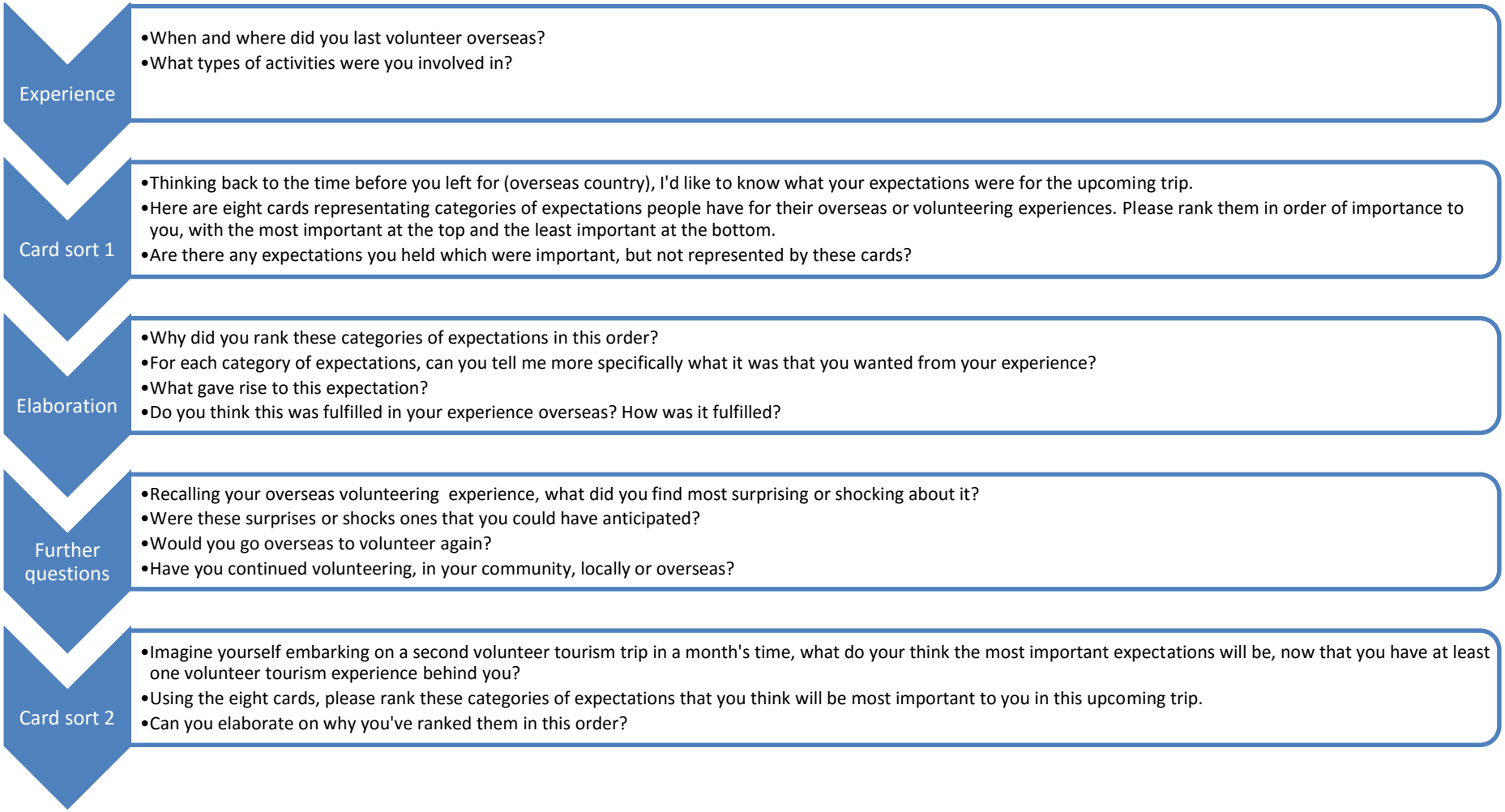


**Figure 11: Interview schedule - Volunteer tourists**

# Appendix B Interview schedule – Sending organisations

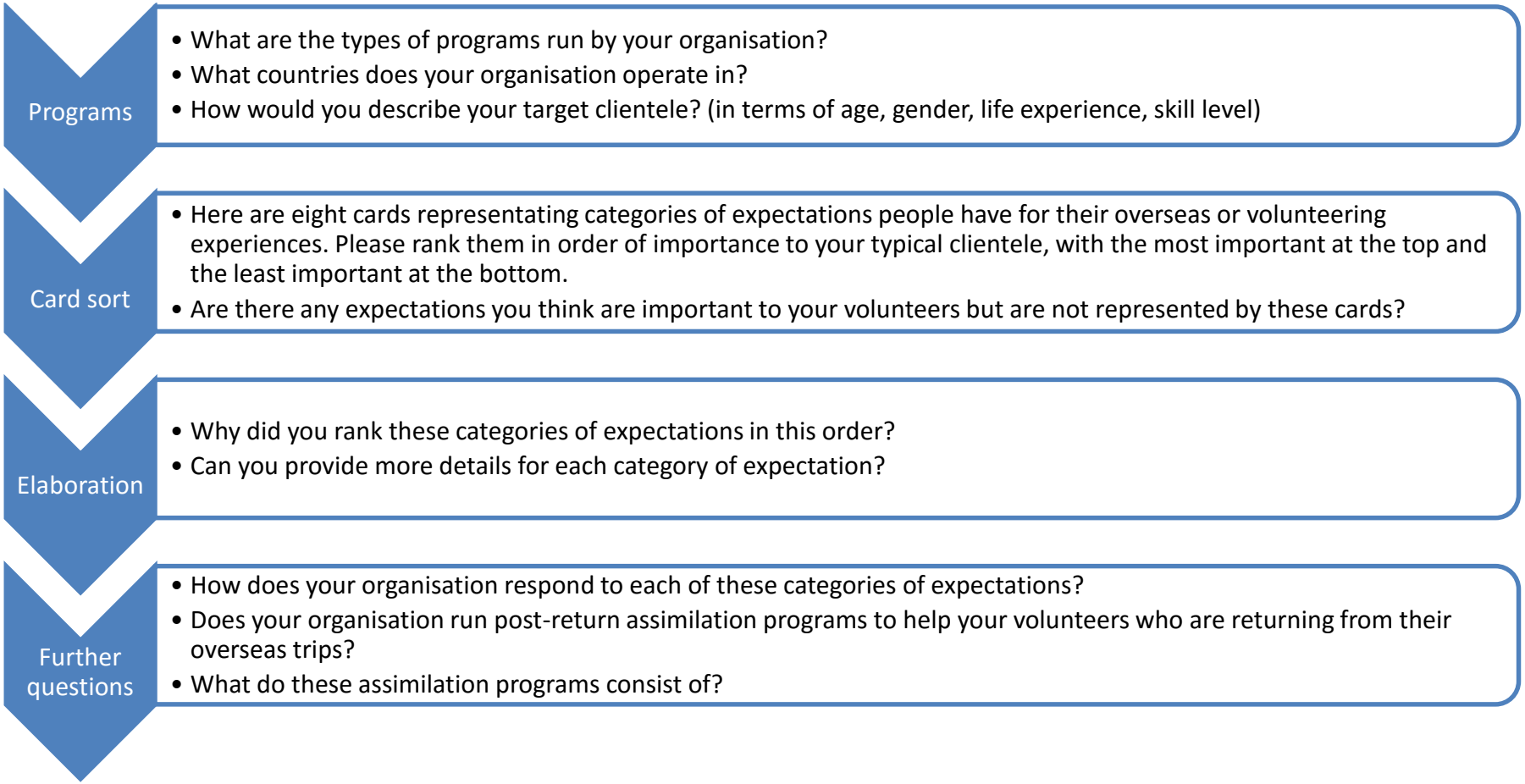


Figure 12: Interview schedule - Sending organisations

# Appendix C Questionnaire: Pre-departure

Thank you for taking part in this research. We are exploring the effects of overseas volunteering on participants' future intentions to participate in various activities. You will be asked about your upcoming trip, past experiences relating to travel and volunteering, and future intentions. Here are the key terms that will be used in the questionnaire:

- **Domestic travel volunteering**: Unpaid activities that you have travelled to undertake outside of your local community in Australia.
- **Host destination**: This is the community to which you will contribute during your overseas volunteering trip.
- **Local volunteering**: Unpaid activities which contribute to your immediate local community in Australia.
- **Overseas travel**: Trips involving travel outside Australia.
- **Overseas volunteering**: Trips in which you have travelled outside Australia for the express purpose of volunteering, though some form of work or leisure may have been included.
- **Sending organisation**: The organisation that has organised your current overseas volunteering trip.

**Past experiences**

With a common understanding of these key terms, we will ask you to outline your past experiences of overseas travel, overseas volunteering, domestic travel volunteering, and local volunteering.

1. How many times have you travelled overseas prior to your upcoming trip?

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- More than 5 times

2. How many times have you volunteered overseas prior to your upcoming trip?

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- More than 5 times

3. How many times have you participated in domestic travel volunteering?

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

- More than 5 times

4. Over the past year, on average, how many hours per month have you volunteered in your local community?
   - 0
   - 1 to 3
   - 4 to 6
   - 7 to 9
   - 10 to 12
   - More than 12

---

**Upcoming overseas volunteer trip**

Now that we have a brief outline of your past experience, please tell us more about your upcoming overseas volunteering trip.

5. What is the main country you will be volunteering in?
   _____

6. How many days will you be volunteering overseas?
   _____

7. On what date will you be returning to Australia? (DD/MM/YYYY)
   _____/_____/_____

8. How much did you pay for this trip? (inclusive of activities, airfare and accommodation)
   - Less than A$1,000

- A$1,000 to A$1,999
- A$2,000 to A$2,999
- A$3,000 to A$3,999
- A$4,000 to A$4,999
- A$5,000 or more

9. What types of volunteer activities will you be undertaking? (Tick all that apply)
   - Working with adult men and women (Vocational training, education, health, microfinance etc.)
   - Working with children (Education, childcare, health, recreation etc.)
   - Working with animals (Habitat preservation, species protection, research etc.)
   - Skills transfers to communities or organisations (Business and commerce, healthcare, engineering etc.)
   - Creativity and arts (with adults, children or people with special needs etc.)
   - Basic human needs (Adequate clothing, food, access to drinking water, shelter etc.)
   - Environmental work (Clean up, preservation, reforestation, research etc.)
   - Community preservation (Art, culture, history etc.)

---

**Expectations**

Thank you for describing your upcoming overseas volunteering trip. In the next section, we would like to understand more about what you expect from this trip. Listed below are some expectations commonly held by overseas volunteers. Please indicate your

level of agreement with each item. If you find that a particular item is not applicable to you, please select ‘N/A’ for that item.

| I expect that… | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Agree | Strongly agree | N/A |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| My accommodation will be comfortable. | | | | | | |
| Our volunteer activities will be planned and structured, with all relevant materials and tools provided. | | | | | | |
| I will explore the rest of the country or region, aside from the area in which I am volunteering. | | | | | | |
| I will have opportunities to learn about my host destination's culture. | | | | | | |
| I will be interacting with host community members (working with them, sharing meals, attending local community events, etc.). | | | | | | |
| I will meet like-minded travellers. | | | | | | |
| I will be volunteering in a safe environment. | | | | | | |
| I will pick up new skills on this trip. | | | | | | |
| I will practise existing skills on this trip. | | | | | | |
| I will be transferring my knowledge and/or skills to the host community. | | | | | | |
| I will have quick access to assistance should an emergency arise. | | | | | | |
| The sending organisation will have staff from its Australian office contactable at all times. | | | | | | |
| The sending organisation will have staff local to my host destination who are contactable at all times. | | | | | | |
| The sending organisation will provide site familiarisation activities, such as understanding | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| the work environment and surroundings. | | | | | | |
| I will contribute to a specific cause on this trip (such as to contribute to environmental conservation or to make a positive contribution to social justice, etc.) | | | | | | |
| I will fulfil my personal goal of helping others. | | | | | | |
| I will be able to witness how my volunteer work benefits the host community. | | | | | | |
| This trip will transform my identity. | | | | | | |
| I will find inspiration for my life goals on this trip. | | | | | | |
| This trip will change my perspective of the world around me. | | | | | | |

| What are the main sources of information that contributed to these expectations? Please rank the **top three** information sources, with '1' being the most influential.<br><br>If you relied on a source of information which is not represented on this list, please fill in the 'Others' option and specify this additional source.<br>**Source of information** | **Ranking (1 to 3 only)** |
|---|---|
| Word of mouth – Recommendations from family or friends | |
| Television (e.g., documentaries, news programs) | |
| Online (e.g., blogs, reviews, opinion articles) | |
| Print (e.g., biographies, newspaper articles) | |
| Sending organisation (e.g., briefing sessions, email communications, face-to-face chats) | |
| Audio (e.g., radio programs, podcasts) | |
| Personal needs (e.g., life goals) | |
| Previous volunteering experience(s) | |
| Previous travel experience(s) | |
| Others (Please specify)_____ | |

**Future intentions**

Thank you for helping us to understand your pre-trip expectations. In the next section, you will be asked about your intentions to participate in overseas travel, overseas volunteering, domestic travel volunteering and local volunteering after you return. You will also be asked some basic demographic information about yourself.

10. How likely are you to travel overseas again after this upcoming trip?

- Extremely unlikely
- Unlikely
- Neither likely nor unlikely
- Likely
- Extremely likely

11. How likely are you to volunteer overseas again after this upcoming trip?

- Extremely unlikely
- Unlikely
- Neither likely nor unlikely
- Likely
- Extremely likely

12. How likely are you to start or continue domestic travel volunteering?

- Extremely unlikely
- Unlikely
- Neither likely nor unlikely

- Likely
- Extremely likely

13. How likely are you to start or continue volunteering in your local community in the next 12 months?

- Extremely unlikely
- Unlikely
- Neither likely nor unlikely
- Likely
- Extremely likely

**Demographics**

14. What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

15. What year were you born in?

_____

16. What is your nationality?

_____

17. What is your highest level of education obtained?

- Postgraduate degree level
- Bachelor degree level
- Advanced diploma or diploma level

- Certificate level
- Secondary education
- Primary education
- Others (Please specify)

  _____

18. As explained in the Information Sheet, this is the first of two questionnaires that we will ask you to complete for this research. Please provide your email address so that we can send you the follow-up questionnaire after your return.

    Name:

    _____

    Email address:

    _____

**End**

Thank you for participating in this study. We hope you have an enjoyable and fulfilling trip, and look forward to catching up with you upon your return.

# Appendix D Questionnaire: Post-return

1. Respondent number: _____

*(You can find this number in the email sent to you containing the hyperlink to this questionnaire. This respondent number ensures that your pre-trip questionnaire responses are correctly matched to your post-return responses. If you are unsure of your respondent number, please contact Faith Ong at faith.ong@vu.edu.au.)*

Welcome back! This is a follow-up to the questionnaire you completed before your trip. You will be asked about how well the trip fulfilled your expectations and what your future intentions are in relation to overseas travel, further overseas volunteering, domestic travel volunteering and local volunteering.

Here are some of the key terms used that you may wish to familiarise yourself with again:

- **Domestic travel volunteering**: Unpaid activities that you have travelled to undertake outside your local community in Australia.
- **Host destination**: This is the community you will be contributing to on your overseas volunteering trip.
- **Local volunteering**: Unpaid activities undertaken to contribute to your local community in Australia.
- **Overseas travel**: Trips in which you have travelled outside of Australia.
- **Overseas volunteering**: Trips in which you have travelled outside of Australia for the expressed purpose of volunteering, although some form of work or leisure may have been included.

- **Sending organisation**: The organisation that has organised the current overseas volunteering trip you will be participating in.

**Expectation fulfilment**

Before you embarked on your overseas volunteering trip, you were asked about your expectations regarding various aspects of it. Now that you have experienced your overseas volunteering trip, please indicate to what extent your expectations were fulfilled. If you find that a particular item did not apply to your experience, please select 'N/A'.

Tick the option which best describes how well your expectations were fulfilled in relation to the following aspects:

| | Much worse than expected | Slightly worse than expected | As expected | Slightly better than expected | Much better than expected | N/A |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| My accommodation was comfortable. | | | | | | |
| Our volunteer activities were planned and structured, with materials and tools provided for our use. | | | | | | |
| I was able to explore the rest of the country, aside from the area in which I was volunteering. | | | | | | |
| I had opportunities to learn about my host destination's culture. | | | | | | |
| I was able to interact with host community members (working with them, sharing meals, attending host community events, etc.) | | | | | | |
| I met like-minded travellers. | | | | | | |
| The environment I volunteered in was safe. | | | | | | |
| I picked up new skills on this trip. | | | | | | |
| I practised existing skills on this trip. | | | | | | |
| I transferred my knowledge and/or skills to the host community. | | | | | | |
| I had quick access to assistance in times of emergency. | | | | | | |
| The sending organisation had staff from its Australian office contactable at all times. | | | | | | |
| The sending organisation had staff local to my host destination who were contactable at all times. | | | | | | |
| The sending organisation provided site familiarisation activities, such as understanding the work environment and surroundings. | | | | | | |
| I fulfilled a specific cause on this trip (such as contributing to environmental conservation or making a positive contribution to social justice, etc.) | | | | | | |
| I fulfilled my personal goal of helping others | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I witnessed how my volunteer work benefitted the host community | | | | | | |
| This trip transformed my identity | | | | | | |
| I found inspiration for my life goals on this trip | | | | | | |
| This trip changed my perspective of the world around me | | | | | | |

2. Overall, how satisfied were you with your overseas volunteering trip?

- Very dissatisfied
- Moderately dissatisfied
- Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied
- Moderately satisfied
- Very satisfied

---

**Future intentions**

In the following section, you will be asked about your intentions to participate in certain activities, now that you have returned from your overseas volunteering trip, as well as the reason(s) for these intentions. You will also be asked about the factors that will prompt you to volunteer locally, as well as the barriers that will prevent you from doing so. If you already have a local volunteer organisation or activity in mind, you are encouraged to elaborate on these in the final question.

3. How likely are you to travel overseas again?

- Extremely unlikely
- Unlikely

- Neither likely nor unlikely
- Likely
- Extremely likely

4. How likely are you to volunteer overseas again?
   - Extremely unlikely
   - Unlikely
   - Neither likely nor unlikely
   - Likely
   - Extremely likely

5. Please elaborate on your reasons for the above response to volunteering overseas.

   _____

   _____

6. How likely are you to start or continue with domestic travel volunteering?
   - Extremely unlikely
   - Unlikely
   - Neither likely nor unlikely
   - Likely
   - Extremely likely

7. Please elaborate on your reasons for the above response to domestic travel volunteering.

_____

_____

8. How likely are you to start or continue with volunteering in your local community over the next 12 months?

- Extremely unlikely
- Unlikely
- Neither likely nor unlikely
- Likely
- Extremely likely

9. Please find a list of factors that may influence you about volunteering in your local community. Please indicate your level of agreement for each item.

| **I will volunteer in my local community…** | **Strongly disagree** | **Disagree** | **Neither agree nor disagree** | **Agree** | **Strongly agree** | **N/A** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| For a cause that I am interested in serving. | | | | | | |
| As an opportunity to interact with like-minded individuals (other volunteers). | | | | | | |
| As an opportunity to get to know those I volunteer for. | | | | | | |
| As an opportunity to contribute to my local community. | | | | | | |
| If it is a convenient commitment that fits easily into my schedule. | | | | | | |
| If it requires a skill or area of knowledge that I already possess. | | | | | | |
| If it allows me to develop a skill I am keen on (Batson, | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ahmad & Tsang 2002; Bussell & Forbes 2002) | | | | | | |
| If it allows me to see the direct impact of my volunteering efforts on the beneficiary. | | | | | | |
| As a result of the positive experience I had this overseas volunteering trip. | | | | | | |
| If it is an opportunity to volunteer with a reputable community organisation. | | | | | | |
| To model the behaviours I would like to see in those around me (for children, siblings etc.) | | | | | | |
| If I am invited by relatives, friends or organisations to volunteer. | | | | | | |
| If it helps me find employment. | | | | | | |
| If it earns me academic credits. | | | | | | |
| Others (please specify) _____ _____ | | | | | | |

10. What are the main barriers that may prevent you from continuing (or starting) to volunteer in your local community?

_____

11. If you intend to volunteer in your local community in the future, what types of local volunteering activities do you anticipate undertaking and with which organisation(s) or association(s)?

_____

**End**

**Thank you for completing both the pre-departure and post-return questionnaires. If you would like to download a copy of the information sheet, you are welcome to do so at <URL for information sheet>.**

**To thank you for your participation, all respondents who have completed both questionnaires will be entered into a draw. There are three prizes worth A$100 to be won, and winners can choose to either receive it as a gift card or donate the prize money to a charity of their choice. The draw will take place in June 2015, and winners will be notified via email.**

Please provide your email address if you wish to be entered for the draw:

_____

## Appendix E Information sheet provided to experienced volunteer tourists prior to interviews

# INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANTS INVOLVED IN RESEARCH

**You are invited to participate**

---

You are invited to participate in a research project entitled 'Towards global citizens: Harnessing the expectations of volunteer tourists'.

This project is being conducted by a student researcher, Faith Ong, as part of her research for a Doctor of Philosophy at Victoria University under the supervision of Dr Leonie Lockstone-Binney from the College of Business at Victoria University.

**Project explanation**

---

This project aims to examine the formation and re-formation of volunteer tourists' expectations through the experience of volunteering overseas, and will propose a framework to enhance the outcomes of their volunteer tourism trips. In this phase of data collection, the researcher will explore the expectations that participants have before embarking on their overseas volunteering trip.

**What will I be asked to do?**

---

Participate in an interview that will last approximately 45 to 60 minutes. You will be asked about the expectations you had of your most recent trip, the unexpected encounters you experienced during this trip and how these have affected your future decisions to participate in volunteering, locally or overseas. You will also be asked to

rank a series of existing expectations that have emerged from the academic literature in order of importance.

**What will I gain from participating?**

---

Your involvement will be in Phase 1 of data collection. A further phase will be conducted with other participants who are undertaking volunteer trips overseas. It is expected that with your input into this under researched topic, the researcher can assess the changing nature of volunteer tourists' expectations and how these affect future intentions to volunteer. In the process of providing this input, you'll likely have the opportunity to reflect upon your volunteer tourism experiences and their personal value to you.

**How will the information I give be used?**

---

The information you give will be used in writing up the researcher's doctoral thesis and subsequent journal articles and conference papers. All data provided will be de-identified in the reporting of the results, thereby ensuring respondent confidentiality. The results of the Phase 1 analysis will inform the design of a questionnaire which will be administered in Phase 2 of this research.

**What are the potential risks of participating in this project?**

---

There are negligible risks to participating in this project. The identity of all interviewees will be kept confidential and participants have the right to withdraw at any stage.

**How will this project be conducted?**

---

The project will be conducted in accordance with Victoria University's ethical research standards. The interviews will be conducted at an office or public venue that is

convenient for you and take approximately 45 to 60 minutes and will be audio-recorded for transcription purposes. The data collected will subsequently be analysed to explore key themes that will inform the later phases of the project.

If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Ethics Secretary, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Office for Research, Victoria University, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, VIC, 8001, email researchethics@vu.edu.au or phone (03) 9919 4781 or 4461.

**Who is conducting the study?**

---

This project is conducted by Victoria University, College of Business.

The Chief Investigator of this project is:

**Dr Leonie Lockstone-Binney**

Senior Lecturer at Victoria University

Phone: 9919 5316

Email: leonie.lockstone@vu.edu.au

The Student Investigator in this project is:

**Ms Faith Ong**

Phone: 9919 4152 (Office) / 0404 654 280 (Mobile)

Email: faith.ong@vu.edu.au

The Associate Investigator of this project is:

Prof Brian King

Associate Dean at Hong Kong Polytechnic University

Email: brian.king@hkpolyu.edu.hk

Any queries about the administration of this project may be directed to the Chief Investigator listed above.

## Appendix F Consent form provided to experienced volunteer tourists prior to the commencement of interviews

# CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS INVOLVED IN RESEARCH

**INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANTS:**

We would like to invite you to be a part of a study titled ‘Towards global citizens: Harnessing the expectations of volunteer tourists’, which aims to explore the formation and re-formation of volunteer tourists’ expectations through the experience of volunteering overseas.

You are invited to participate in an interview that will last approximately 45 to 60 minutes. You will be asked about your expectations of your volunteer tourism trip before its commencement, the unexpected encounters you experienced during this trip and how these have affected your future decisions to participate in volunteering, locally or overseas. You will also be asked to rank existing expectations that have emerged from the academic literature in order of importance.

**CERTIFICATION BY SUBJECT**

I, "[Click here & type participant's name]"

Of "[Click here & type participant's suburb]"

certify that I am at least 18 years old and that I am voluntarily giving my consent to participate in the study:

'Towards global citizens: Harnessing the expectations of volunteer tourists' being conducted at Victoria University by: Dr Leonie Lockstone-Binney

I certify that the objectives of the study, together with any risks and safeguards associated with the procedures listed hereunder to be carried out in the research, have been fully explained to me by: Faith Ong

and that I freely consent to participation involving the below mentioned procedures:

- An interview about the expectations and experiences of my past overseas volunteer trip
- A ranking of the expectations I held about volunteering overseas
- Audio recording of the interview

I certify that I have had the opportunity to have any questions answered and that I understand that I can withdraw from this study at any time and that this withdrawal will not jeopardise me in any way.

I have been informed that the information I provide will be kept confidential.

Signed:

Date:

Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to the researcher

| | |
|---|---|
| Dr Leonie Lockstone-Binney | Ms Faith Ong |
| (03) 9919 5316 | (03) 9919 4152 / 0404 654 280 |

If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Ethics Secretary, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Office for Research, Victoria University, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, VIC, 8001, email Researchethics@vu.edu.au or phone (03) 9919 4781 or 4461.

## Appendix G Information sheet provided to sending organisations prior to interviews

# INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANTS INVOLVED IN RESEARCH

**You are invited to participate**

---

You are invited to participate in a research project entitled 'Towards global citizens: Harnessing the expectations of volunteer tourists'.

This project is being conducted by a student researcher, Faith Ong, as part of her research for a Doctor of Philosophy at Victoria University under the supervision of Dr Leonie Lockstone-Binney from the College of Business at Victoria University.

**Project explanation**

---

This project aims to examine the formation and re-formation of volunteer tourists' expectations through the experience of volunteering overseas, and will propose a framework to enhance the outcomes of their volunteer tourism trips. In this phase of data collection, the researcher will explore your understanding of the expectations that participants have before embarking on their overseas volunteering trip.

**What will I be asked to do?**

---

Participate in an interview that will last approximately 45 to 60 minutes. You will be asked about what your organisation views as the most pertinent expectations your participants have of their overseas volunteering trip prior to its commencement. Further anecdotes regarding the surprise elements commonly encountered by volunteers

when they arrive overseas are also sought. You will also be asked to rank a series of expectations that have emerged from the academic literature in order of importance to your target audience.

**What will I gain from participating?**

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Your involvement will be in Phase 1 of data collection. A further phase will be conducted with other participants who are undertaking volunteer trips overseas. It is expected that with your input into this under-researched topic, the researcher can assess the changing nature of volunteer tourists' expectations and how these affect their future intentions to volunteer. In the process of providing this input, you'll likely have the opportunity to reflect the expectations held by your participants and possible strategies to manage them as a means of ensuring participant satisfaction.

**How will the information I give be used?**

---

The information you give will be used in writing up the researcher's doctoral thesis, as well as subsequent journal articles and conference papers. All data provided will be de-identified in the reporting of the results, thereby ensuring respondent confidentiality. The results of the Phase 1 analysis will inform the design of a questionnaire which will be administered in Phase 2of this research.

**What are the potential risks of participating in this project?**

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There are negligible risks to participating in this project. The identity of all interviewees will be kept confidential and participants have the right to withdraw from the project at any stage.

**How will this project be conducted?**

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The project will be conducted in accordance with Victoria University's ethical research standards. The interviews will be conducted at an office or public venue that is convenient for you and take approximately 45 to 60 minutes and will be audio-recorded for transcription purposes. The data collected will subsequently be analysed to explore key themes that will inform the later phases of the project.

If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Ethics Secretary, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Office for Research, Victoria University, PO Box 14428. Melbourne, VIC 8001, email researchethics@vu.edu.au or phone (03) 9919 4781 or 4461.

**Who is conducting the study?**

---

This project is conducted by Victoria University, College of Business.

The Chief Investigator of this project is:

**Dr Leonie Lockstone-Binney**

Senior Lecturer at Victoria University

Phone: 9919 5316

Email: leonie.lockstone@vu.edu.au

The Student Investigator in this project is:

**Ms Faith Ong**

Phone: 9919 4152 (Office) / 0404 654 280 (Mobile)

Email: faith.ong@vu.edu.au

The Associate Investigator of this project is:

Prof Brian King

Associate Dean at Hong Kong Polytechnic University

Email: brian.king@hkpolyu.edu.hk

Any queries about the administration of this project may be directed to the Chief Investigator listed above.

## Appendix H Consent form provided to sending organisations prior to the commencement of interviews

# CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS INVOLVED IN RESEARCH

**INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANTS:**

We would like to invite you to be a part of a study titled ‘Towards global citizens: Harnessing the expectations of volunteer tourists’, which aims to explore the formation and re-formation of volunteer tourists’ expectations through the experience of volunteering overseas.

You are invited to participate in an interview that will last approximately 45 to 60 minutes. You will be asked about what your organisation views as the most pertinent expectations your participants have of their overseas volunteering trip prior to its commencement.

**CERTIFICATION BY SUBJECT**

I, "[Click here & type participant's name]"

Of "[Click here & type participant's suburb]"

certify that I am at least 18 years old and that I am voluntarily giving my consent to participate in the study:

‘Towards global citizens: Harnessing the expectations of volunteer tourists’ being conducted at Victoria University by: Dr Leonie Lockstone-Binney

I certify that the objectives of the study, together with any risks and safeguards associated with the procedures listed hereunder to be carried out in the research, have been fully explained to me by: Faith Ong

and that I freely consent to participation involving the below mentioned procedures:

- An interview about the expectations and experiences of the overseas volunteers managed by your organisation
- A ranking of the expectations held by these volunteers in order of importance
- Audio recording of the interview

I certify that I have had the opportunity to have any questions answered and that I understand that I can withdraw from this study at any time and that this withdrawal will not jeopardise me in any way.

I have been informed that the information I provide will be kept confidential.

Signed:

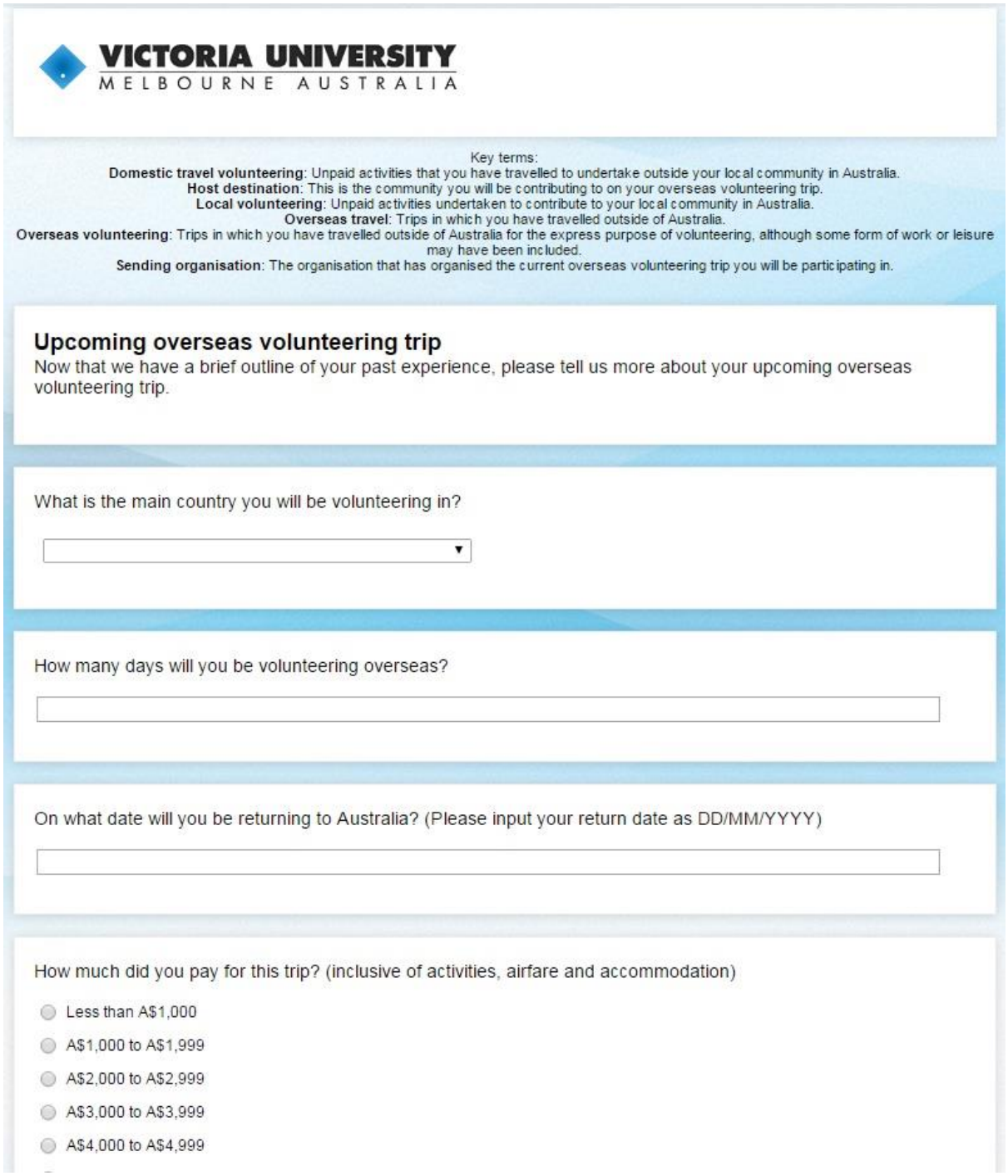
Date:

Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to the researcher

| | |
|---|---|
| Dr Leonie Lockstone-Binney | Ms Faith Ong |
| (03) 9919 5316 | (03) 9919 4152 / 0404 654 280 |

If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Ethics Secretary, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Office for Research, Victoria University, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, VIC, 8001, email Researchethics@vu.edu.au or phone (03) 9919 4781 or 4461.

# Appendix I Screenshot of key terms as it appears on the header of the online questionnaire



# Appendix J Full profile of interviewees in Phase 1

1. Interviewee 1 is a university student in her early 20s. She participated in an overseas volunteer program teaching English in Vietnam for four months in late 2012. Her students ranged from ages 6 to 50 and she was hosted by a centre for continuing education. Interviewee 1 undertook the volunteer program offered by a youth-oriented sending organisation with a Melbourne office, and was sponsored by a foundation she was affiliated with. She also undertook one month of independent travel around the country at the end of her volunteer placement.

2. Interviewee 2 is a retired in her mid-60s. She undertook volunteering in a Kenyan orphanage for seven weeks in 2013. She was involved in the care of young children, some of whom were school-aged, and her responsibilities included playing with them, changing their clothes and putting them to bed for afternoon naps. While she went on a safari trip with the sending organisation, her only other travel beyond Kenya was a one-day trip to a different city to Kenya. The sending organisation she travelled with is a commercial operator with an office in Melbourne.

3. Interviewee 3 is a community worker in her early 30s who spent a year volunteering in East Timor from 2011 to 2012. Driven by a desire to effect change beyond her community, interviewee 3 joined a grassroots organisation as a volunteer through a government-linked intermediary. In her role with the organisation, she led capacity-building and advocacy efforts to enhance the effectiveness and ability the organisation possessed to support human rights

for the disadvantaged. While she may have undertaken short trips when invited by the local community, her job remained her focus during her volunteer period.

4. Interviewee 4 is a fresh graduate in her mid-20s. She taught conversational English for 4 weeks at the Galapagos Islands as a part of her volunteer trip overseas in 2012. Her students were of school-going age and required a native speaker of English to help them with their conversational skills, as many of them aspired to be tour guides for the Galapagos Islands. This volunteer experience was organised as one segment of a longer trip around South America, and was with a for-profit sending organisation that has an office in Melbourne.

5. Interviewee 5 is a social justice advocate in her early 30s. Her first overseas volunteering stint was an independently-organised experience in partnership with a local non-governmental organisation in Bolivia in 2011. This experience was one segment in a trip around South America and involved educational interaction and emotional support for young patients who may not receive many visitors otherwise in their long periods of hospitalisation. She has since gone on two more overseas volunteering trips to developing countries, concentrating on community development and under the auspices of an international not-for-profit sending organisation with an office in Melbourne.

6. Interviewee 6 is an early educator in her early 50s. She has participated in three overseas volunteering trips to Cambodia from 2009 to 2013. All three trips were independently organised and led by Interviewee 6, in collaboration with various educational programs, orphanages and child centres in Cambodia. While some

fundraising was involved to donate to these programs and centres, Interviewee 6 and her teams focused on education through music and travelled to different parts of the country to contribute to these programs.

7. Interviewee 7 is a management consultant in her early 30s. Her first overseas volunteering experience was in Kenya in 2010, with two subsequent experiences in 2013 in India. All three volunteer experiences involved community development activities aimed at facilitating children's participation in education as a means to a brighter future, and were approximately 2 weeks long each. No independent travel was undertaken due to the structured nature of the overseas volunteering programs offered by the not-for-profit sending organisation, which also had a charitable foundation supporting education in developing countries.

A. Organisation A is a sending organisation based in Sydney, Australia, that organises two to six week volunteer programs in developing countries in South-East Asia and Africa. They offer a highly customisable experience, with choices of activities, accommodation, and exploration across all the destinations offered. The vast majority of their clientele consists of females between 18 and 25 years old, though they have a few volunteers who are male or above the age of 40. Their worldwide operations are based in Sydney, though they have team leaders and country managers in each country. Organisation A is a commercial sending organisation.

B. Organisation B is based in Melbourne, Australia, and functions as the Australian arm of a larger not-for-profit international sending organisation that organises the trips offered. It offers overseas volunteer opportunities as leadership development programs, with programs for adults which are about one week long, and youth programs targeted at those up to the age of 23, lasting between one to three weeks. They offer programs in six developing countries in Asia, Africa and South America. Volunteering experiences are positioned as small projects that lend a hand to existing host-led community development programs, where cultural experiences with the hosts are built into the itinerary.

C. Organisation C is a development charity that offers gap year programs for school leavers, lasting 6 to 11 months. It has a Melbourne office and three others around the world. The organisation offers programs in 13 countries around the world, including both English and non-English speaking countries. Their programs concentrate on activities related to education, community development and outdoor activity. Organisation C emphasises on the volunteer aspects and allows its participants the freedom to negotiation with their country managers or program managers if they wish to travel independently.

D. Organisation D is a government-linked non-governmental organisation that sends volunteers to aid the development of capacity in foreign countries. Its volunteer programs range from six months to two years, and provide its participants with small living and accommodation allowances due to the length of involvement. The organisation does not arrange non-volunteer travel for its participants, but allows participants to arrange their independent travel plans.

Its selection criteria emphasises professional skills which are matched to the countries which require them, with volunteers averaging at 48 years old.

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