

**Volunteer Tourists' Intended Participation:  
Using the Revised Theory of Planned Behavior**

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## **ABSTRACT**

Volunteer tourism as an alternative to mass tourism has grown significantly since the 1970s, sparking research interest in the subject. However, there is little research that has examined future potential volunteer tourists' various perceptions, needs and wants. The purpose of this study was to understand how and in what way various potential volunteer tourists' beliefs, including attitudes, subjective norms, self-efficacy and motivation, influence their future intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience using the revised theory of planned behavior. Moreover, the potential moderating effect of past volunteer tourism experience was examined as well. The study collected 291 usable responses from potential volunteer tourists who were active members of volunteer tourism organizations. The study used second order confirmatory factor analysis, structural equation modeling and hierarchical multiple regression analysis to test study hypotheses. The study also used meta-analysis to examine the effect size of the predicting variables and compared it with that of previous tourism research. The results of structural equation modeling indicated that two constructs, both attitudes and subjective norms, appeared to be statistically significant, while self-efficacy and motivation were not statistically significant in predicting potential volunteer tourists' intended participation. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis found a moderating effect of past volunteer tourism experience on motivation toward intended participation in a negative direction. In addition, the motivation factor "altruism" moderated in a negative direction. Meta-analysis found a large effect of attitudes, a medium

effect of subjective norms, and a small effect of self-efficacy in relation to intended participation. In conclusion, the results did not validate the theory of planned behavior in the context of volunteer tourism research. Interestingly, the theory of reasoned action was found to be validated. Implications for volunteer tourism providers and organizations are also discussed.

## **DEDICATION**

This dissertation is dedicated to my family members, the foremost my wife, Hyounsuk Sue Booh, Hye Joon and Seo Joon. I would also like to dedicate this work to my beloved people – my father, SungMoo Lee; my mother, SanMoon (Young Choon) Lee; Sister, MiSuk Lee; Brother, SeungGyu Lee and father-in-law, mother-in-law, sisters-in-law and brother-in-law. Thanks for all of my college colleagues, a special thank to Gyumin. For this study, special thanks go to Joshua Davis, my best friend and Global Outreach Director at First Methodist Church in Tuscaloosa, Alabama; Theresa Higgs, Vice President of Global Operations, United Planet; Clemmons David, Founder of VolunTourism.org in San Diego, California.

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# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

### Introduction

Tourism is the world's largest industry. Mobility, disposable income, communication technologies and more discretionary time have all contributed to the diversification of tourism (Wearing, 2001). In general, people have more opportunities to travel away from their daily routine. In 2005, tourism generated around US\$ 735 billion (UNWTO, 2007). This revenue is most often attributed to mass tourism. As a result, much of tourism research has focused on mass tourism. Mass tourism still dominates the travel industry, but various forms of non-mass tourism are growing as well. While these alternatives still occupy only a small segment of the overall tourism market, they are increasingly attracting attention.

Non-mass tourism has been studied in many different contexts, including alternative tourism (Ellis, 2003), sustainable tourism (Kwan, Eagles, & Gebhardt, 2008; Schianetz & Kavanagh, 2008), agritourism (McGehee & Kim, 2004; Nickerson, Black, & McCool, 2001), and ecotourism (Choo & Jamal, 2009). Wyllie (2000) defined alternative tourism as being a viable option "to the exploitive and destructive elements of mass tourism and to ensure that the economic benefits of tourism are equitably shared with the people of the host communities" (p, 170). Volunteer tourism is one type of alternative tourism (Wearing, 2001).

Wearing (2001) defined volunteer tourists as "those tourists who, for various reasons, volunteer in an organized way to undertake holidays that might involve aiding or alleviating the material poverty of some groups in society, the restoration of certain environments or research

into aspects of society or environment” (p, 1). Brown (2005) defined volunteer tourism as “type of tourism experience where a tour operator offers travelers an opportunity to participate in an optional excursion that has a volunteer component, as well as a cultural exchange with local people” (p. 480). McGehee and Santos (2005) defined volunteer tourism as “utilizing discretionary time and income to travel out of the sphere of regular activity to assist others in need” (p. 760). While all of these definitions have merit, this final definition will be utilized for this study for several reasons. For example, volunteer tourism is a volitional concept that a tourist is willing to volunteer while traveling out of his/her routine. In this regard, Brown’s definition seems non-volitional because a tour operator rather than a tourist determines an opportunity of volunteer tourism experiences. In addition, volunteer tourism activities are not always restricted to aiding or alleviating the material poverty (Wearing, 2001), rather the scope of volunteer tourism activities can extend to spiritual poverty for a tourist to volunteer at his/her will. Therefore, McGehee and Santos did not limit any specific scope of volunteer tourism activities and left wider range of rooms to volunteer tourism activities.

Volunteer tourism as an alternative to mass tourism has arguably been around for hundreds of years, but has gained momentum the latter 20<sup>th</sup> century, resulting, in part, from the relatively negative consequences of mass tourism. In particular, volunteer tourism has grown significantly since the 1970s (Ellis, 2003; Wearing, 2004). Brown (2005) reported that the US Bureau of Labor Statistics indicated 63.8 million people participated in volunteer tourism from September 2002 to September 2003, accounting for a seven percent increase from the previous year. Brown (2005) found that the number of volunteer tourism organizations grew from 75 in 1987 to 275 in 2003. As of 2010, Clemmons (founder of VolunTourism.org) alleged that there are more than 10,000 volunteer tourism organizations available worldwide.

A number of researchers have stressed why volunteer tourism is important (Broad, 2003; Brown & Morrison, 2003; McGehee, 2002; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Wearing, 2001). One of the primary reasons for the recent interest in volunteer tourism research is that it is perceived as a more responsible form of tourism, aligned with that of sustainable tourism (Raymond & Hall, 2008). More specifically, the volunteer tourist seeks a unique experience such as traveling overseas to provide assistance to the poor, which is different from the mass tourist. Volunteer tourism focuses both on interpersonal and personal factors such as giving back to the host community, participating in community development, increasing awareness of the host environment and eliminating potential “otherness” of members of the community. Those who participate claim that volunteer tourism enhances self-development, encourages altruism, fosters world peace, encourages cultural/historical restoration, provides medical assistance, educational support, ecological conservation, and can potentially alleviate irreversible environmental changes (Brown & Morrison, 2003; Butcher, 2003; Callanan & Thomas, 2005; Coghlan, 2005; Gray & Campbell, 2007; McIntosh & Zahra, 2007; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Uriely, Reichel & Ron, 2003; Wearing, 2001). But volunteer tourism is not without potential negative impacts, including 1) draining valuable resources that might otherwise go to local residents, 2) exceeding the carrying capacity of the community if not properly managed, 3) disregarding the dignity of local residents, and 4) increasing dependency on volunteers (McGehee & Andereck, 2008). Additionally, the authors argued that if individuals stay home and save the travel cost and time, they can then use those resources (time and money) toward local volunteer efforts as well as eliminate the environmental impact of travel.

Research identifying the volunteer tourist has been limited thus far. While no definitive research has been conducted that identifies a profile of the volunteer tourist, existing research

can be analyzed in aggregate as a way to identify trends amongst volunteer tourists. In terms of demographics, in general, women are more likely to participate in volunteer tourism than men (Brown & Morrison, 2003; McGehee, 2002; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004). Kellicker (2004, cited in Brown, 2005) found that a large portion of volunteer tourists are a combination of gap year and young seniors, but other research indicates that volunteer tourists' ages are diverse, ranging from early 20s to senior citizens (Brown & Morrison, 2003; Coghlan, 2008; McIntosh & Zahra, 2007; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004).

Volunteer tourists come from a variety of walks of life. Their education levels vary, but many volunteer tourists have a college education (Ari, Mansfeld & Mittelberg, 2003; McGehee, 2002; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004). In terms of occupation, a broad spectrum is represented (Brown & Morrison, 2003; Coghlan, 2008; Deery, et al., 1997; Lyons, 2003; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004). In relation to preferences for types of volunteer work, respondents indicated that they engage in a variety of activities. Arts and crafts, helping orphans, educational activities, construction, physical exercise activities, and medical assistance are some of the most popular activities (Brown & Morrison, 2003; Zahra & McIntosh, 2007; Wearing, 2001). Some volunteer tourists have experienced volunteer work at home (Brown & Morrison, 2003; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004), but most have not (McGehee, Clemmons, & Lee, 2009). Many international volunteer tourists have previously traveled internationally as mass tourists (McGehee, 2002). Volunteer tourism destinations vary, but they are literally found on every continent (Broad, 2003; Broad & Jenkins, 2008; Brown, 2005; Campbell & Smith, 2006; Lyons, 2003; McIntosh & Zahra, 2007; Sin, 2009; Soderman & Snead, 2008; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Urilely & Reichel, 2000; Wearing, 2001).

While the body of literature is growing that targets volunteer tourists, it is still in its infancy. In particular, there is very little research that has focused on *potential* volunteer tourists. Very little is known about what influences people participating in a volunteer tourism experience and whether a moderating variable exists that strengthens the relationship between influencing variables and dependent variables. It is important to understand potential volunteer tourists because they are more likely to act upon their interests than general populations when a condition is met. Therefore, it is worthwhile to study various factors that can influence the decision making process of potential volunteer tourists.

#### Statement of the Problem

The potential volunteer tourist is a largely unknown and understudied entity. For example, even though volunteer tourism has been examined using a number of theoretical lenses, there is little research that identifies a theoretical approach toward influencing factors on potential volunteer tourists and their behavior. Secondly, no research was discovered that has examined the potential volunteer tourists' behavior holistically rather than in isolation. Thirdly, there is little research that has cultivated a sample population of a mix of potential and existing volunteer tourists' behavior. The following is a brief discussion of each of these three issues.

Though research in volunteer tourism using diverse theoretical models has increased, including social movement theory (McGehee, 2002), development theory (Simpson, 2004), postmodernism (Uriely, Reichel & Ron, 2003), social exchange theory (McGehee & Andereck, 2009) and grounded theory (Halpenny & Caissie, 2003), given the relative newness of this area of research, there is still room for growth, particularly in terms of theory aimed at potential

volunteer tourists. There is a need to balance this newness by examining potential volunteer tourists utilizing an appropriate well-established and time-tested theoretical foundation. The theory of planned behavior meets these criteria that is well-established and time-tested.

In terms of the need for a holistic approach, much volunteer tourism research has focused on concepts and components of the phenomenon individually, including attitudes (Broad, 2003; Christie, 2004; Kelly, 2006), motivation (Brown, 2005; Campbell & Smith, 2006; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004), and self-efficacy (Callanan & Thomas, 2005; Coghlan, 2005; McGehee, 2002; Zahra & McIntosh, 2007). There is little research that has simultaneously examined volunteer tourists' perspectives toward these various volunteer tourism components. Nor has there been much work that examines the influence of outside the realm of volunteer tourism behavior on potential participation in volunteer tourism, including mainstream travel experience and volunteer experience. Finally, much of the previous volunteer tourism research has been limited to relatively narrow sample population. As a result, samples have been, in general, very homogeneous and/or located within a single volunteer tourism organization or volunteer tourism destination. Nearly all previous research in volunteer tourism has focused on existing volunteer tourists, leaving much room for an empirical examination of the potential volunteer tourist.

### Objective of the Study

This study investigates how and in what ways potential volunteer tourists' current travel and volunteer behavior influence their intended participation in volunteer tourism using the theory of planned behavior (TPB). Specifically, this study adds an additional behavior predictor (motivation) to three existing predictors previously utilized in TPB – attitudes, subjective norms,

and perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy). Hence, this study examines the role of the TPB with motivation as a fourth predictor both individually and collectively to measure the ultimate dependent variable – potential volunteer tourists’ intended participation in volunteer tourism. Moreover, this study explores a moderating effect of tourists’ past volunteer tourism experience to each of the four components toward intended participation. Much detailed information about the three components of the TPB and motivation is discussed in Chapter II and III. Therefore, the objective of this study is to test potential volunteer tourists’ behavior using a revised version TPB as well as to examine the potential moderating effect of tourists’ past volunteer tourism experience within the TPB.

## Research Questions

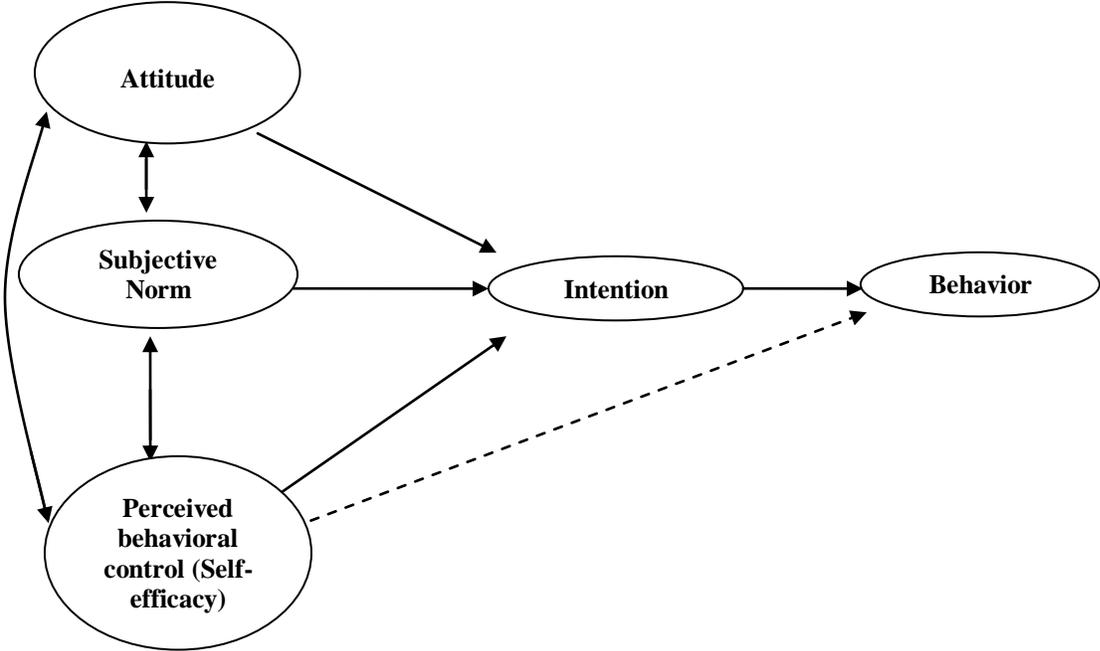
This study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. How and in what ways does an aggregation of the three components of the theory of planned behavior – attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy) – affect future intended participation in volunteer tourism?
2. How does motivation increase the predictive power of the theory of planned behavior in the context of volunteer tourism?
3. Does past volunteer tourism experience act as a moderator of the relationship between the four influencing variables (attitudes, subjective norms, self-efficacy and motivation) and intended participation? If so, how and in what ways does past volunteer tourism experience moderate the relationship between the four influencing variables and intended participation?

## Theoretical Foundation

The theoretical foundation of this study rests upon the theory of planned behavior (TPB), an expanded version of the theory of reasoned action (TRA) (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). In its infancy, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) developed the two-component independent construct (TRA) that consisted of attitudes and subjective norms as a way to predict the ultimate dependent variable known as intention. Later, Ajzen (1988, 1991) added another construct – perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy) and named it the theory of planned behavior (Figure 1). According to Ajzen (1991), “the more favorable the attitude and subjective norm with respect to a behavior, and the greater the perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy), the stronger should be an individual’s intention to perform the behavior under consideration” (p. 188). Ajzen (1991) argued that the TPB is not the exclusive model to predict intention or behavior so Ajzen suggested that the TPB remain flexible enough to include additional predictors that can capture a significant proportion of the variance in intention. Ajzen (1987) argued that “intentions are assumed to capture motivational factors that have an impact on behavior” (p. 44), but intentions may not be exhaustive. It can be argued that not only do the three existing components of the TPB affect behavioral intention, but motivation can also play a significant role in predicting behavioral intention and perhaps capturing factors that were previously missed. Hence, this study includes motivation as a fourth predictor of the TPB model to examine behavioral intention. Much detailed information regarding the three existing independent constructs – attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy) – within the TPB and an additional predictor – motivation – to the study dependent variable (intended participation) will be discussed in Chapter II.

Figure 1. Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991)



## Contribution in the Theoretical Model

The TPB has been studied extensively in various academic fields, including social-psychology (Brenes, Strube, Storandt, 1998; Conn, Tripp-Reimer, & Maas, 2003; Greenslade & White, 2005; Kaiser & Gutscher, 2003; Lemmens, Abraham, Hoekstra, Ruiter, De Kort, Burg, & Schaalma, 2005; Okun & Sloane, 2002), marketing (Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006), and tourism (Brown, 1999; March & Woodside, 2005; Moshin, 2005). However, the TPB model has not been examined in the specific area of volunteer tourism (Gray & Campbell, 2007; Uriely, et al., 2003). According to Ajzen (1991), the TPB model can and should be applied to a variety of phenomenon, which will in turn extend and enhance the model through its application to other research subjects. In other words, the result of this application should be mutually beneficial. Ajzen also argued that the relationship between the three components of the TPB and the ultimate dependent variable (intention) could vary depending upon behaviors and situations. In some applications it may be found that attitudes could be a significant predictor to human behavior, in others that subjective norms and perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy) could make significant contributions; thus findings are not always consistent. Therefore, application of this theoretical model to volunteer tourism with the addition of a new predictor variable could have a positive effect toward the TPB.

## Contribution to the Literature

As volunteer tourism gains popularity, it is obvious that more findings about volunteer tourists' perspectives toward various components of volunteer tourism could benefit both academic research and the management of volunteer tourism organizations.

In academic research, findings from this study can contribute to future research in the area of volunteer tourism in a number of ways. First, much of the previous volunteer tourism research has been studied using only volunteer tourists who have participated in volunteer tourism experiences. This current study examined whether differences exist between experienced and potential volunteer tourists. Findings of this study can provide a comparison of between experienced and potential volunteer tourists in the context of influencing factors (attitudes, subjective norms, self-efficacy and motivation) toward their intended future participation in a volunteer tourism experience. Second, newly developed measurement items of attitudes, subjective norms, and motivation in the context of volunteer tourism can be useful for future researchers to conduct empirical quantitative research. Third, much of the previous volunteer tourism research was conducted using qualitative techniques, including interviews, focus groups and observations, which were effective for their purpose, but a balance of quantitative, large sample, survey-based studies lacked. Fourth, much of the previous volunteer tourism research was conducted using small samples. Findings from this study, which were based on a large sample size, can inform the research in a unique way. Fifth, to date no one has tested potential volunteer tourists' behavior using the TPB model while adding a potential moderating variable of past volunteer tourism experience on the four predictors of behavioral intention. Sixth,

findings from this study will help volunteer tourism providers to develop or enhance their marketing strategies to promote their volunteer tourism programs to future volunteer tourists.

### Organization of the Study

This study is organized into five chapters. This introduction begins with a statement of the problem, and then provides research questions. The theoretical perspective to be used in this study is also presented and it is concluded with a discussion of the contributions of this study.

Chapter II comprehensively reviews the literature, including tourism research in general, volunteering research, and specifically volunteer tourism research. It also closely examines the theory to be used in this study.

Chapter III begins with the study of research design, including the survey instrument, study samples and data collection method. It also describes the measurement variables for this study, followed by propositions and hypotheses as well as an explanation of a statistical analysis to be used in this study.

Chapter IV describes the pretest results and tests the study hypotheses with statistical techniques, including second-order confirmatory factor analysis, structural equation modeling, and hierarchical multiple regression analysis.

Chapter V includes the study findings, all of the study hypotheses, the study limitations, implications for the theoretical model, recommendations for volunteer tourism research, and contribution to the industry.

## Summary

The first chapter of this study provided an introduction to the research topic of volunteer tourism. The statement of the problem in the area of volunteer tourism, study research questions, and contribution of this study were also discussed briefly.

## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE**

#### Introduction

Many researchers have examined various components of volunteer tourism (also known as voluntourism). Researchers have approached the phenomenon with a variety of theoretical models. Researchers have asked questions regarding volunteer tourism primarily in terms of the relationships between and amongst the volunteer tourists, the volunteer tourism sending and receiving organizations, and the host communities.

This chapter is focused on a review of existing literature pertaining to the study of volunteer tourism. It begins with a review of the diverse theoretical models used in volunteer tourism research and then focuses on a specific model for this present study, which is the theory of planned behavior. The reason for the choice of the theory of planned behavior as the model to be used in this study is explained, followed by additional review and critique of the volunteer tourism literature, then concluding with the subsequent research propositions.

## Theory and Volunteer Tourism

According to McGehee and Andereck (2009), a variety of theoretical models have been used in the domain of volunteer tourism, including social movement theory (McGehee, 2002), development theory (Simpson, 2004), postmodernism (Uriely, Reichel, & Ron, 2003), social exchange theory (McGehee & Andereck, 2009) and grounded theory (Halpenny & Caissie, 2003). These various theoretical models are necessary to examine the diverse phenomena in the study of volunteer tourism: volunteer tourists (McGehee & Santos, 2005), residents (McGehee & Andereck, 2009), and volunteer organizations (Lamoureux, 2009). It is beyond the scope of this research to describe in detail each of the aforementioned theoretical models. However, it is useful to briefly discuss how and in what way the theories were used in the study of volunteer tourism.

Several researchers have examined how volunteer tourists are affected by volunteer activities (McGehee, 2002; McGehee & Norman, 2002; McGehee & Santos, 2005). McGehee (2002) used networks (resource-mobilization) and self-efficacy (social psychological) theories to examine changes in social movement participation. She argued that volunteer tourism participation increased self-efficacy and networks and hypothesized that the two factors brought about by volunteer tourism involvement would affect volunteer tourists' social movement participation. In general, she found that networks played a significant role in predicting post-trip social movement participation, while the self-efficacy independent variable did not support post-trip social movement participation. However, McGehee and Norman (2002) found that both networks and self-efficacy developed during an Earthwatch expedition were found to be

significant predictors to support volunteers' consciousness-raising. In other words, the findings indicated that consciousness-raising was significantly affected by both networks and self-efficacy. McGehee and Norman (2002) concluded that consciousness-raising based on networks and self-efficacy of social movement theory was supported. McGehee and Santos (2005) examined the relationship between social networks and consciousness-raising toward social movement participation. McGehee and Santos argued that social networks and consciousness-raising are prerequisite of social movement participation. Findings revealed that study participants in the focus group expressed that their behavior and belief systems changed as a result of a volunteer tourism experience. The study participants also became more interested in social concerns. In other words, the participants tended to become more involved in social movements after a volunteer tourism experience.

Unlike the aforementioned researchers who have investigated how volunteer tourism activities affect volunteer tourists' social engagement in a relatively positive way, several researchers (Guttentag, 2009; Richter & Norman, 2010; Simpson, 2004; Sin, 2005) used development theory as a way to caution that volunteer tourism may not benefit the receiving destination. In fact, findings indicated that volunteer tourists, through their excessive use of limited resources, may burden the receiving countries and/or increase the level of dependency of the receiving countries upon the volunteer sending nations.

In addition to the volunteer tourist, the destination resident has also been the focus of research. Residents participate in volunteer tourism by hosting volunteer tourists. They may receive benefits such as skill building, education, housing, and preservation of nature at the destination as a result of volunteer activities. These diverse volunteer activities have been analyzed through the lens of postmodernism (Uriely, Reichel & Ron, 2003). Specifically, Uriely,

et al. (2003) argued that “volunteer tourism is seen as an expression of postmodernism” (p. 59), which tends to lessen differentiation of conventional tourism (theme parks and contrived attractions) with the ‘other’ types of tourism such as alternative, ecological and responsible tourism. Moreover, researchers are interested in residents’ attitudes toward a variety of tourism issues. As Murphy (1985) argued in some of the early work in tourism development, residents are the first group to be impacted by any type of tourism at a destination. Resident attitudes have been extensively and explicitly studied in various rural (Lankford & Howard, 1994; Mason & Cheyne, 2000; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Perdue, Long and Allen, 1990) and urban (Iroegbu & Chen, 2001) settings. Not only do the research settings vary but the types of tourism researched also are diverse, including casinos (Lee, Kim & Kang, 2003), nature-based tourism (Jurowski, Uysal & Williams, 1997), and sporting events (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000). These various settings and subjects have been explained using social exchange theory, “a general sociological theory concerned with understanding the exchange of resources between individuals and groups in an interaction situation” (Ap, 1992, p. 668). In their examination of resident attitudes toward volunteer tourism, McGehee and Andereck (2009) argued that residents who perceive volunteer tourism as personal benefit tend to support additional volunteer tourism activities, while lack of perceived benefit would lead the residents to lack of support for additional volunteer tourism.

Volunteer tourism organizations in the United States have grown rapidly in a short period (Brown, 2005; Campbell, 1999). Globally, Tomazos and Butler (2008) found more than 300 volunteer tourism organizations 150 countries. In conjunction with the popularity of recent volunteer tourism activities, these organizations play a growing role across a wide spectrum. In

relation to the volunteer tourism organizations' diverse roles, Coghlan (2008) examined volunteer tourism organizations' images based on their promotional brochures. She found that most volunteer tourism organizations fell into four categories of voluntary objectives: conservation research expeditions, conservation holiday expeditions, community holiday expeditions and adventure expeditions.

In other research focusing on volunteer tourism organizations, Lamoureux (2009) found that collaboration is a survival tool for various organizations to meet growing complex global systems. In order to develop productive collaborations, cross-sector partnerships were often considered as a premium vehicle. In her research, Lamoureux (2009) questioned what factors of a partnership are needed to determine success of volunteer tourism organizations. She adapted and modified a conceptual model created by Mohr and Spekman (1994) that included attributes of partnership, communication behavior, and conflict resolution techniques toward success of partnership (satisfaction and volume). Lamoureux (2009) found mixed results; satisfaction toward partnerships established amongst volunteer tourism organizations was relatively positively affected by partnership behavior, communication behavior and conflict techniques, while volume of volunteer tourism organizations was not found to be significant.

While these three components of volunteer tourism – volunteer tourists, volunteer hosts, and volunteer tourism organizations -- are all important, there is little study that has investigated volunteer tourists' behaviors from a theoretical perspective, as is the purpose of this study. Thus, the subject of this study adds a fourth dimension to the literature with an examination of *potential* volunteer tourists' behaviors using the TPB.

## Shortcomings of Previous Theoretical Models

Many diverse theoretical models have been applied to the context of volunteer tourism research. Those models focusing on volunteer tourists are of particular interest for this study. Overall the models have been effective for the targeted subject of their research, but they also have their shortcomings. Firstly, the models that used volunteer tourists as a subject mainly focused on volunteer tourists' motivation (Brown, 2005; Campbell & Smith, 2006; McIntosh & Zahra, 2007; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004). Secondly, there is little research that has examined volunteer tourists' perspectives toward various volunteer tourism elements simultaneously. For instance, not only is each volunteer tourism subject's motivation important, it would also be valuable to understand how and in what ways volunteer tourists perceive a variety of volunteer tourism experiences both individually and collectively. Lastly, no research was found that focused on the larger "*potential*" volunteer tourist market.

As a result of an extensive review of previous theoretical models in the context of volunteer tourism research, it was determined that this study could best contribute to the literature by examining the aforementioned elements simultaneously: attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy) and motivation. In line with this necessity, there are two alternatives: one is to develop a new theoretical model and the other is to adopt and modify an existing theoretical model. The first choice is considered out of reach because as some researchers (Gray & Campbell, 2007; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Uriely, et al., 2003; Wearing, 2001) argue, the study of volunteer tourism is still in its embryonic stage and needs a great deal more empirical research before a new theory can be developed. As a result, the second choice

was selected for this study to test the fit of the TPB model in the volunteer tourism context using *potential* volunteer tourists.

## Theory and Constructs

Examining human behavior in various fields is a difficult task. Over the past few decades, researchers have made attempts to investigate the various influences of human behavior. In the area of social psychology, concepts referring to behavior have focused on three major constructs: attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 1988, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000; Conner & Armitage, 1998; Greenslade & White, 2005; Okun & Sloane, 2002). In the late 70s and early 80s, researchers focused on two of these major dimensions to examine human behavior: attitude and subjective norm. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) developed a theoretical model utilizing the two dimensions, referred to as the theory of reasoned action (TRA). The theory posits that one's intention is an antecedent of actual human behavior. Intention, in turn, can be approached by two major constructs: attitude and subjective norms toward a behavior.

When the TRA was tested empirically, some researchers (Ajzen, 1991; Kaiser & Gutchner, 2003) argued that the TRA contained some limitations in predicting human behavior. The TRA model may not be able to predict human behavior sufficiently if there are other alternatives that the person can choose from (Bandura, Adams, Hardy, & Howells, 1980; Greenslade & White, 2005; Kaiser & Gutchner, 2003; Lemmens, et al., 2005; Madden, Ellen, & Ajzen, 1992; Sheppard, Harwick, & Warshaw, 1988). Moreover, Sheppard, Harwick, and Warshaw (1988) argued that

the model was developed to deal with only goal behaviors (e.g. intention to travel a destination), not outcomes or events that could possibly result from behaviors (e.g. traveled to the destination). As Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) acknowledged, “people do not intend to perform behaviors that they realized are beyond their ability” (p. 372). Sheppard, et al. (1988) also argued that other alternatives may lead the behavior to a different result. For instance, a couple may wish to travel to Mexico for two weeks, but end up visiting Europe for one week due to a health issue, financial difficulty or time pressure. Events and circumstances occur beyond an individual’s control. Madden, Ellen and Ajzen (1992) also cautioned that the less able a person is to control one’s behavior the lower one’s intention to perform the behavior will be. Ajzen (1991) argued that the TRA model often leads to poor predicting measures of intention and suggested that the inclusion of the perceived behavioral control construct may increase the power of prediction.

As a result, Ajzen (1988) created an additional construct, known as perceived behavioral control, which demonstrates a magnitude of people’s control toward their performance, and named this newly modified version of TRA the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB). By adding the control construct, the theory of planned behavior (TPB) was found to be able to increase the variance explained. Empirical studies provided evidence that even though the TRA model could predict some level of behavioral intention, inclusion of a third construct (perceived behavioral control, or self-efficacy) increase the strength of a relationship to behavioral intention (Kaiser & Gutscher, 2003; Lemmens, et al., 2005). Across diverse fields, researchers who had interest in human behavior began to use the theory of planned behavior: ecological behavior (Kaiser & Gutscher, 2003), blood donors’ behavior (Lemmens, Abraham, Hoekstra, Ruiters, De Kort, Brug, & Schaalma, 2005), older adults exercise behavior (Brenes, Strube, Storandt, 1998), older

women's exercise behavior (Conn, Tripp-Reimer, & Maas, 2003), tourists' behavior (Brown, 1999; Lam & Hus, 2004), and volunteers' behavior (Greenslade & White, 2005; Okun & Sloane, 2002).

Even though the TPB has been used in many fields, it has not been explored in the area of volunteer tourism. This is not surprising, given the fact that volunteer tourism is a relatively new concept in the travel industry (Uriely, et al., 2003). As Ajzen (1991) suggested, the TPB will be extended and enhanced through its application to other research subjects. In other words, application of this theoretical perspective to an area such as volunteer tourism could benefit the development of TPB. The TPB model consists of three independent variables -- attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy) – which, in sum, predicts the ultimate dependent variable, intention of the TPB. Conversely, behavioral intention is the ultimate function of the three independent determinants. The following section discusses the dependent variable (intention) of the TPB first, followed by attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy). In addition, as noted earlier, motivation as an additional predictor to the TPB will be discussed.

## Intention

Ajzen and Fishbein (2000) argued that intention is a central component in the theory of planned behavior and is an immediate antecedent of an actual behavior. They argued that one tends to perform an actual behavior when an opportunity arises; the stronger one's intention to perform a behavior becomes, the more likely one is to perform the behavior. Ajzen and Fishbein

argued that the relationship between intention and actual performance has been empirically tested in a laboratory setting. As indicated, the relationship between the two constructs is hard to measure in reality because there are numerous external factors that can affect the relationship. As a result, much of the research has focused on behavioral intention rather than an actual behavior because as Ajzen and Fishbein proposed, finding one's behavioral intention is assumed to predict a future actual behavior. This is appropriate for this study, as it is limited to measuring *potential* volunteer tourists' intended participation in future volunteer tourism.

Table 2.1 Behavioral Intention Definitions

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Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975	A measure of the strength of one's intention to perform a specific behavior
Swan, 1981	An individual's anticipated or planned future behavior
Courneya, 1994	A goal you have for your frequency of physical activity participation, rather than the probability or likelihood of your participation
Conner and Armitage, 1998	A person's motivation in the sense of her or his conscious plan or decision to exert effort to enact the behavior
Correia, Santos, and Barrwo, 2007	A subjective probability to either adopt, or not adopt, a certain form of behavior

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In general, behavioral intention is assumed to be linked to actual behavioral performance. These aforementioned definitions (Table 2.1) indicated that intention toward behavior was regarded as one's anticipation, plan (Conner & Armitage, 1998; Swan, 1981) and subjective probability (Correia, et al., 2007) toward behavioral performance. Those definitions were accordingly specified in their study context, but behavioral intention has not been defined in the

volunteer tourism context. Thus, based on previous studies regarding behavioral intention, this study defines behavioral intention as a potential volunteer tourist's anticipated plan of a future volunteer tourism experience. In addition to the definition of *potential* volunteer tourists' behavioral intention, this study attempts to examine how and in what ways each of the four components – attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy), and motivation – affects intended participation as well as measuring how an aggregation of the four independent components predicts intended participation in volunteer tourism in the future.

Additionally, in relation to measurement of behavioral intention, much of previous tourism research has measured intention with a one-year term or a distant future term (Lam & Hsu, 2006; Phetvaroon, 2006; Sparks, 2007). Based on an experimental study, Eyal, Sagristano, Trope, Liberman and Chaiken (2009) found that behavioral intentions were affected by time. They found that behavioral intentions were more likely to occur when a distant future measure was provided than near future measure. It is conceivable that an individual may perceive that they have more opportunity for participation over a longer period of time. Conversely, a short-term measure provides a smaller window of opportunity for an individual. Hence, either a short-term (within one year) or a long-term (over five years) decision may not reflect her/his authentic intention. This study considers that a mid-term decision may reflect a more accurate prediction (Jang & Feng, 2007), and as a result, examines potential volunteer tourists' intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience within the next three years.

## Attitudes

As noted earlier, three constructs – attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control – compose the TPB to predict human performance. The first construct, attitude toward a behavior, has been explicitly and extensively studied over the past decades in various tourism research settings, in particular anthropology (Galani-Moutafi, 2000; Kearney, 1995) and social psychology (Cohen, 1988; MacCannell, 1992; Stedman, 2002). In a general context, the notion of attitude has been focused on preference, but the definition of attitude is also multidimensional and longitudinal according to a distinct research setting (Gnoth, 1997; Stedman, 2002). Allport (1935), one of the earliest scholars, summarized various definitions of attitude (Table 2.2). According to Allport (1935), in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century attitudinal studies focused on one's emotional readiness of future events and referred Baldwin (1901, cited in Allport, 1935) as the first researcher defined attitudes as “readiness for attention or action of a definite sort,” whose study pioneered the area of attitudes. Following closely in the same vein, Thomas and Znaniecki (1918) were the first researchers to apply the concept of attitude to social behavior (cited in Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). LaPiere's (1934) study contributed to the literature through the first empirical examination of attitudes and behavior rather than an assumption that there was an automatic relationship between attitudes and predicted behavior (cited in Kraus, 1995). Much later, other researchers (Ajzen, 1988; Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) contributed to the literature through an examination of an aggregation of other variables. Specifically, Fishbein & Ajzen (1975) argued that attitudes alone are hard to predict a behavior fully so aggregating other variables with attitudes could predict one's behavior more validly than any single variable.

Table 2.2 Attitude Definitions

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Baldwin, 1901	Readiness for attention or action of a definite sort
Thomas and Znaniecki, 1918	Individual mental processes that determine a person's actual and potential responses
Chave, 1928	A complex of feelings, desires, fears, convictions, prejudices or other tendencies that have given a set or readiness to act to a person because of varied experiences
Lundberg, 1929	The general set of the organism as a whole toward an object or situation which calls for adjustment
Ewer, 1929	Modes of emotional regard for objects, and motor "set" or slight, tentative reactions toward them
Bogardus, 1931	A tendency to act toward or against something in the environment which becomes thereby a positive or negative value
Droba, 1933	A mental disposition of the human individual to act for or against a definite object
Cantril, 1934	A more or less permanently enduring state of readiness of mental organization which predisposes an individual to react in a characteristic way to any object or situation with which it is related
Morgan, 1934	Literally mental postures, guides for conduct to which each new experience is referred before a response is made
Warren, 1934	The specific mental disposition toward an incoming (or arising) experience, whereby that experience is modified, or, a condition of readiness for a certain type of activity
Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975	A person's degree of favorableness or unfavorableness with respect to a psychological object

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Table 2.2 Attitude Definitions (Continued)

Ajzen, 1988	A disposition to respond favorably or unfavorably to an object, person, institution or event
Brenes, et al., 1998	The individual's positive or negative evaluation of the target behavior
Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000	The evaluation of an object, concept, or behavior along a dimension of favor or disfavor, good or bad, like or dislike
Allen, et al., 2002	Specific mental or physical objects (i.e. person, thing, or issue)
Lemmens, Abraham, Hoekstra, Ruiters, De Kort, Brug, & Schaalma, 2005	A person's overall evaluation of the proposed behavior, including perceptions of how good or bad the consequences are likely to be

Source: adopted from Allport's (1935) and recent research (Reviewed studies marked in reference list)

Unlike most of the definitions which are focused on objects and events, Allen, et al's (2002) definition focused on human values, such as knowledge, price, usefulness, and image of a product, which in turn form attitudes. Other researchers (Brenes, et al.,1998; Lemmens, et al., 2005) adopted and modified the definition by Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) in different research settings. For instance, Brenes, et al. (1998) adopted and extended the definition of Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) to the study of senior groups' exercise behavior. Lemmens, et al. (2005) adopted Fishbein and Ajzen's definition and extended it to the prediction of voluntary behavior. For instance, Lemmens, et al included Fishbein and Ajzen's definition that focused on either favorableness or unfavorableness as well as attitudes that include consequences of attitudes to predict ones' behavioral intention in a volunteer research setting. In an effort to build up the pre-

existing research, this present study will utilize Lemmens' et al (2005) definition of attitudes as a lens through which we can analyze attitudes toward volunteer tourism activities and preferences: "a person's (potential volunteer tourists') overall evaluation of the proposed behavior (a volunteer tourism experience), including perceptions of how good or bad the consequences are likely to be" (Lemmens, et al., 2005, p. 946). However, these definitions of attitudes in general are not completely exhaustive as they pertain to this study. No discussion of attitudes and volunteer tourism would be complete without a review of the extensive literature that exists in the areas of tourism, volunteering, and volunteer tourism. Therefore, the following section will include a review of tourism research first, then volunteering research, concluding with the specific area of volunteer tourism research.

As noted earlier, attitudes have been examined in different research settings, including tourism. In particular, tourists' behaviors have actively been studied from the marketing perspective (Chen, 1998; Lam & Hsu, 2004; March & Woodside, 2005; Mohsin, 2005). Chen (1998) argued that tourists' past trip experience regarding their preferences influenced tourists' cognitive decision-making behavior. In other words, tourists who have visited a destination were more likely to revisit the destination. Lam and Hsu (2004) used the TPB model in potential Chinese travelers to predict behavioral intention using a self-administered questionnaire. Study findings indicated that potential Chinese travelers who had positive attitudes toward Hong Kong as a travel destination were more likely to travel in the future. March and Woodside (2005) examined how tourists' planned behavior influenced their actual behavior using surveys. Their findings indicated that differences exist between planned and actual behavior. March and Woodside then suggested that the type of information regarding destination could influence

tourists' attitudes toward actual behavioral performance. Mohsin (2005) investigated tourists' attitudes and their destination choice. Mohsin argued that the relationship between tourists' attitudes and their destination choice was not supported due to ineffective marketing campaigns that included insufficient information about the destination.

Research findings of tourists' attitudes from a non-marketing perspective, including cultural and environmental attitudes, showed that attitudes were positively related to tourists' behavioral intention (Brown, 1999; Lee & Moscardo, 2005). Brown (1999) examined a relationship between tourists' cultural attitudes and behavioral intention to climb Ayers Rock in Australia using the TRA and the study supported the TRA. Brown argued that attitudinal components played a greater role than subjective norm (motivation) within the TRA in predicting climbing intention. In other words, the findings indicated that attitudes were a significant predictor to climbing intention. The positive relationship between attitudes and climbing intention was also distinguished between climbers and non-climbers. Findings indicated that climbers were more likely to have positive attitudes. Lee and Moscardo (2005) examined a relationship between tourists' environmental attitudes and behavioral intention using a pre-visit and post-visit questionnaire. Responses from both pre and post-visit questionnaire did not show differences. Respondents were asked about their intention to pay more for environmentally friendly accommodation and found that both pre and post respondents were interested in paying more than average. In addition, Lee and Moscardo (2005) found a positive relationship between attitudes and intention. People who have positive environmental attitudes intended to participate in environmentally friendly travel options.

Early attitudinal studies that focused on volunteering (Katz, 1960; Smith, Bruner, & White, 1956) attempted to address the void by measuring attitude using five functions: a knowledge function, a value expressive function, an ego defensive function, a utilitarian function, and a social adjustive function. Firstly, a knowledge function describes that a volunteer experience provides various types of goals, including: sharing and learning specific skills, knowledge, and abilities. Secondly, a value expressive function emphasizes how a volunteer experience provides volunteer values such as helping others and contributing to society. Thirdly, an ego defensive function focuses on a volunteer experience as a way to reduce social pressure by participating in volunteer service. Fourthly, a utilitarian function focuses on immediate rewards such as career development, the associated benefits, and opportunities for job availability, provided by participating in a volunteer experience. Finally, a social adjustive function could describe that a volunteerism experience is an activity that one can participate with family members and friends, which is viewed favorably by other people important to the individual.

Each of the above functions expressed different type of attitudinal characteristics toward an actual behavior (Allen, Ng, & Wilson, 2002; Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Miene, & Haugen, 1994). Clary, et al. (1994) used these five functions to examine whether college undergraduate students are interested in a volunteer experience after having the students watch a pre-taped volunteering message. Their empirical study supported the functional theory and found that the five functions fell into the participants' volunteerism experience.

More volunteer research supported the relationship between attitudes and behavioral intention (Bales, 1996; Greenslade & White, 2005; Harrison, 1995; Warburton & Terry, 2000). Warburton

and Terry (2000) argued that people's behavior is influenced by attitudinal factors. The two researchers argued that attitudes are a more direct influential factor to human behavior than an indirect factor like social background. Greenslade and White (2005) tested the TPB in the context of volunteering and found that there was a positive direct relationship between attitude and behavioral intention. People who had positive attitudes toward volunteering were more likely to participate in volunteer work. Okun and Sloane (2002) also tested the TPB in the domain of a college volunteer program and found that attitudes had a positive relationship with students' intention to enroll the volunteer program.

Bales (1996) argued that volunteer participation increases when the individual perceives the volunteer organization as interesting, effective, and believes the volunteer work to be rewarding. The study supported the relationship of attitudes and participation of volunteer activity. Attitudes were a significant positive predictor of the number of volunteer activities study participants have participated in.

However, there has been a debate surrounding if and how volunteer tourists are different from volunteers. Unlike general volunteers who spend their time at home involved in assisting without being paid for the service they provide in a community (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1986), volunteer tourists are combining a desire to volunteer with their leisure travel. Volunteer tourists focus on not only "aiding or alleviating the material poverty of some groups in society, the restoration of certain environments" (Wearing, 2001, p.1) but they also spend discretionary time and money interacting with the local community to which they have traveled and other

tourists (Broad, 2003; Brown, 2005; McGehee & Santos, 2005). Therefore, it is important to review the existing volunteer tourism attitudinal research.

In spite of being one of the most frequently studied topics in both tourism research and volunteering research, attitudes have not actively been examined in the context of volunteer tourism. This may be due to the still nascent stage of volunteer tourism (Uriely, et al, 2003), thus leading to a lack of fully developed research variables that represent the full range of volunteer tourists' attitudes. Though there is little research that has used survey research to examine volunteer tourists' attitudes, there have been some studies that have explored how volunteer tourists' attitudes have been affected as a result of being exposed to volunteer tourism activities using interviews and focus groups (Broad, 2003; Christie, 2004; Halpenny & Caissie, 2003; Kelly, 2006; McIntosh & Zahra, 2007; Wearing, 2001).

In his seminal work, Wearing (2001) argued that volunteer tourists' attitudes are influenced by emotional attachment formed between volunteers and host populations. Similarly, Broad (2003) suggested that volunteer tourists' attitudes changed positively when they were exposed to a different volunteer tourism culture. Her research found that a volunteer tourism experience altered attitudes in that it helped volunteer tourists be more open, less selfish and view the world differently by interacting with local residents and other volunteer tourists. Broad's findings are consistent with other recent research (McIntosh & Zahra, 2007; Sin, 2009). Christie (2004) interviewed volunteer tourists who were involved in sustainable community involvement programs. Her research found that major attitudes of volunteer tourists included "love of nature", "awareness of environmental degradation", "a desire to contribute to preserving

the environment” and “a desire to serve the community.” Halpenny and Caissie (2003) examined nature-based volunteer tourists’ attitudes and values using interviews. Their study findings indicated that most respondents in the study have expressed a highly positive awareness of the natural environment after a volunteer experience. In other words, the volunteer experience helped change the attitudes of volunteer tourists toward the environment; in addition the respondents reported that they were likely to continue their volunteer work. However their study did not solely investigate tourists’ attitudes, rather they mixed attitudinal components with motivational ones. For instance, the researchers argued that volunteer tourists tended to have fun, followed by gaining skills and knowledge.

More recently, Kelly (2006) examined attitudes of tourists who have participated in the Community Aid Abroad (CAA) program, based in Australia. Kelly attempted to explore whether changes in attitudes resulted from the CAA experience. Most simple information like characteristics found in the study was acquired from a self-administered survey, but attitudinal information was gleaned from open-ended survey questions and observation. Many of the respondents expressed that the volunteer tourism experience influenced their changes of attitudes and their attitudes became more supportive of foreign aid to less developed countries. Moreover, the volunteer tourism experience led some volunteer tourists to become members of the CAA program and other volunteer tourism organizations.

At the individual level, McIntosh and Zahra (2007) also found that volunteer tourists’ attitudes became more positive toward their own home experiences through their interaction with Maori families. One volunteer tourist claimed that “seeing these kids with their blended families and living with aunts and grandmothers made me think about my own family. I did not realize

how much mum and dad have done for me and for my brothers and sisters. They must have sacrificed a lot. Mum and dad have nothing for themselves, everything is for us” (p. 550).

It is important to note that volunteer tourism attitudes are not always changed positively. A number of researchers warned that volunteer tourism participation may result in negative attitudes once volunteer tourists observe the negative impacts of volunteer tourism that often exist. Among researchers who have examined negative impacts of volunteering (Guttentag, 2009; Richter & Norman, 2010; Sin, 2005, 2009; McGehee & Andereck, 2008; McIntosh & Zahra, 2007), many argued that negative volunteer tourism experiences may result in negative attitudes toward the activity. For instance, volunteer tourism expeditions can lead host communities to become dependent upon volunteer tourism sending organizations, underestimate the dignity of local residents, exceed the carrying capacity of the community if not properly managed, and impede the need of host communities regarding tourism development. Once volunteer tourists have seen these negative impacts firsthand, their attitude toward volunteer tourism may be less positive.

Similarly, McIntosh and Zahra (2007) found that volunteer tourists sometimes expressed disappointment with various components of the volunteer tourism experience: local eateries, organization’s tight schedules, and different standards of hygiene or sanitation. Guttentag (2009) cautioned that a great deal of volunteer tourism research focused on positive impacts as opposed to negative impacts. Guttentag claimed that many volunteer tourism activities organized by western nations may impede tourism development that is desired by host communities. There could be a discrepant attitude between host communities and sending organizations because host communities may want to develop more tourism at the cost of the environment and natural

surroundings. Development may be seen as the best option for host communities, which may clash with the conservation ethos of the volunteer tourism sending organizations. This discrepancy between host communities and sending organizations can result in friction between host communities and volunteer tourists. A similar idea is studied by Richter and Norman (2010) who have argued that out-of-home residential care in sub-Saharan Africa may cause emotional detachment to young aged children.

As noted previously, there has been limited quantitative research in the area of volunteer tourists' attitudes. One exception is the survey-based study by Uriely and Reichel (2000) who conducted volunteer tourism research examining the relationship between attitudes and instrumentality (volunteer tourism for economic benefits) in Israel. The study respondents were asked to express their attitudes toward the host on a collective farm called *Kibbutzim*. The relationship between respondents' attitudes toward their host farms and economic factors (reasons of the destination choice from the perspective of work and money) was found to be positive. The finding indicated that volunteer tourists' attitudes were formed positively based on economic exchange.

In conclusion, sufficient evidence exists in the current literature that volunteer tourists' attitudes have a positive relationship with behavior; volunteer tourism experiences have been found to change attitudes, thereby increasing awareness and appreciation of other people, which, in turn, results in positive behavioral changes, including being less selfish, more thoughtful and more open to the world (Broad, 2003; Halpenny & Caissie, 2003; Kelly, 2006; McIntosh & Zahra, 2007; Wearing, 2001). There also appears to be evidence of the converse: a negative

volunteer tourism experience will result in negative attitudes. Therefore, an assumption that there is a positive relationship between attitudes and behavioral performance is supported.

As a result of the review of literature, it is proposed that there is a positive relationship between volunteer tourists' attitudes and their behavioral intention. Following closely in the context of *potential* volunteer tourists, there is a relationship between *potential* volunteer tourists' attitudes and their potential intended volunteer tourism participation.

Hypothesis #1: There is a positive relationship between *potential* volunteer tourists' attitudes toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in volunteer tourism in the future.

### Subjective Norms

The second major concept used in this study, subjective norms (motivation), is closely related to intention to predict behavior (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000; Brenes, et al., 1998; Kaiser & Gutscher, 2003). Subjective norms have traditionally consisted of both normative beliefs and motivation to predict behavioral intention. Ajzen (1991) defined subjective norms as “the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behavior” (p. 188). This function of subjective norms has consistently been used in many different research fields including: information and software (Riemenschneider, Hardgrave & Davis, 2002); organizational behavior (Ajzen, 1991); management (Chang, 1998); health (Wambach, 1997); social psychology (Armitage & Conner, 1999); volunteering (Harrison, 1995; Lemmens, et al., 2005) and tourism

(Gnoth, 1997; Lam & Hsu, 2006). For this study, subjective norms are defined as the perceived social pressures that influence potential volunteer tourists' participation in volunteer tourism.

Social pressure groups often consist of family members and friends. Ajzen (1991) argued that social pressure groups have an impact on a decision making process. It can be argued that the more the individual perceives how other social pressure groups think she/he should perform a given behavior, the more she/he is likely to perform the behavior. Hence, it is important to understand how subjective norms play a significant role in a behavioral decision in tourism, volunteering and more closely volunteer tourism research.

Much of previous tourism research has provided evidence that subjective norms influence the likelihood of a behavior (Brown, 1999; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Oh & Hsu, 2001; Phetvaroon, 2006; Vanucci & Kerstetter, 2001). Lam and Hsu (2006) examined the TPB in the context of Taiwanese traveler intention to visit Hong Kong. The study included three items to measure subjective norms. Lam and Hsu found that subjective norms and perceived behavioral control played a significant predicting role in the selection of travel destination, while travelers' attitudes toward travel intention were not found to be significant. Moreover, subjective norms turned out to play the most significant role in predicting a travel decision. The researchers concluded that if the Taiwanese travelers were satisfied with their trip to Hong Kong they would provide their family members and friends with positive word-of-mouth, which, in turn, would affect travel intention.

Phetvaroon (2006) used the theory of planned behavior to examine tourists' travel choice on Phuket, Thailand following a crisis. The study found that all three components of the TPB predicted behavior intention. The effect of subjective norm toward behavioral intention had the

strongest value ( $r=0.23$ ), while perceived behavioral control and attitudes were followed ( $r=0.21$  and  $0.17$ , respectively). Consistent with the findings of Lam and Hsu (2006), Phetvaroon also concluded that social pressure groups influenced travel decisions.

Oh and Hsu (2001) examined gambling behavior using the theory of reasoned action. The study has found that the relationship between subjective norms and behavioral intention (gambling intention) was found significant at the level of  $.05$ . The researchers concluded that subjective social norms played a significant role to examine gamblers' decisions to engage in gambling.

Vanucci and Kerstetter (2001) investigated meeting planners' intent to use the Internet to plan their meetings using the theory of planned behavior. The study found that all three predictors of the TPB (attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control) positively influenced the use of the Internet for meeting planners' group meetings.

While much tourism research supported the role of subjective norms toward behavioral intention, some research has found a weak relationship between the two concepts. Brown (1999) investigated antecedents of tourists' behavior in visiting the Ayers Rock resort in Australia using the theory of reasoned action. Unlike much research that used a small number of referents' items, Brown included 10 salient referents to gauge tourists' Rock climbing intention. The referents included friends, Australian aboriginal people, family, tourism media, tour group, partner, other travelers, park rangers, and other climbers. Those referents formed two component groups, external referents and credible referents. While the study dependent variable (climbing intention) was accounted for significantly by the two predictors (attitudes and subjective norms), the predictive power of subjective norms toward climbing intention was small. Brown (1999)

asserted that even though the decision to climb or not was found to be significant in terms of subjective norms, the decision may be made of her/his own volition.

In terms of the role of subjective norms in volunteering research, much of the previous research provided sufficient evidence that social pressure groups influenced volunteers' decisions to be involved in a volunteering program (Greenslade & White, 2005; Okun & Sloan, 2002; Warburton & Terry, 2000; Warburton, Terry, Rosenman & Shapiro, 2001). Greenslade and White (2005) conducted research using older volunteers over two-month periods using the TPB and functional theory. The study found that all three predicting components of the TPB appeared to show a strong predictive power of behavioral intention when used in the survey, but none of the three predicting variables were significant with self-reported behavior. In terms of functional theory in the study, only social function turned out to be a significant predictor of behavior. Greenslade and White concluded that volunteers with above-average participation in volunteering were motivated by their social referents.

In a similar study, Warburton and Terry (2000) used a revised theory of planned behavior to examine older people's volunteer decision making. The study was conducted in two-time periods. The first time period used a survey to assess five proposed predictors while the second period used self-reports of actual behavior. Amongst the predictors, subjective norms were measured by three items. The study found that three major components of the TPB were significantly correlated with behavioral intention on both the first time and second time study. However attitudes were not significantly correlated with behavioral intention when an additional predictor (moral obligation) was entered, while subjective norms appeared to show a significant relationship with behavioral intention. Warburton and Terry suggested that subjective norms

(which are often underestimated) could play a more significant role in predicting behavioral intention.

Okun and Sloan (2002) examined students' enrollment in a volunteering program using the TPB. While two predictors (attitudes and perceived behavioral control) of the TPB were all significantly correlated with behavioral intention and an actual behavior (enrollment), subjective norms were significantly correlated with behavioral intention, not an actual behavior (enrollment). Thus subjective norms were a significant predictor of behavioral intention.

Warburton, Terry, Rosenman and Shapiro (2001) examined whether differences between volunteers and non-volunteers toward volunteering beliefs existed. The study used the TPB as a study framework. The study found that the three beliefs (behavioral, normative and control belief) appeared to be significantly different between volunteers and non-volunteers. Volunteers were more likely to think that people around them influenced their volunteering, than non-volunteers.

In the domain of volunteer tourism research, there is some limited evidence that the decision to participate in a volunteer tourism experience was influenced by their surrounding social networks, including family, friends and colleagues (Brown, 2005; Carter, 2008; Deery, Jago & Shaw, 1998; McGehee, 2002; McGehee & Santos, 2005; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004) but there is room for growth in this area of study.

For example, Stoddart and Rogerson (2004) studied the volunteer tourism activities of Habitat for Humanity in South Africa. The study found that some volunteer tourists were motivated to engage in the program because of their friends and colleagues who were already participating in the same program. In other words, they were influenced by subjective norms. Additionally, McGehee and Santos (2005) argued that support or lack of support from family

members and friends (social pressure groups) influenced participation in volunteer tourism activities. Therefore, this study will use the idea that social pressure groups, including family members, friends, and colleagues influence participation in a volunteer tourism experience as the foundation for the subjective norms variable.

As a result of previous existing literature, it can be proposed that social pressure groups can influence a decision regarding potential volunteer tourists' intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience.

Hypothesis #2: There is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' subjective norms toward a volunteer tourism experience and intended participation in volunteer tourism in the future.

#### Self-efficacy as a Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control

Self-efficacy is defined as a person's "judgments of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations" (Bandura, 1982, p. 122) as well as "individuals' sense of control over what happens to them" (Gecas & Mortimer, 1987, cited in McGehee, 2002, p. 128). According to Gecas and Mortimer (1987) (cited in McGehee, 2002), the higher self-efficacy one has, the more likely one feels confident to perform behavior. Self-efficacy not only includes physical strength but also emotional reaction. For instance, if one has high levels of both physical and emotional strength, one is highly efficacious and subsequently able to perform at high levels. Most studies across various research settings – psychology (Conner & Armitage, 1998; France, France, & Himawan, 2007; Harrison, 1995), health (Conn,

Tripp-Reimer, & Maas, 2003), business (Guo, Xiao, & Tang, 2008), leisure (Beaton & Funk, 2008), tourism (Lam & Hsu, 2004) that used perceived self-efficacy as a predictor supported Bandura's definition. This present study will also use Bandura's definition of self-efficacy.

According to Conner and Armitage (1998) and Harrison (1995), perceived behavioral control, the third predictor of intention, can be used interchangeably with self-efficacy, both conceptually and operationally. According to Conner and Armitage (1998) self-efficacy can influence one's intention to predict actual behavior just as powerfully as perceived behavioral control. The TPB model includes self-efficacy to better predict intention to engage in actual behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Kaiser and Gutscher (2003) studied residents in urban, suburban, and rural villages in Switzerland to test how strongly self-efficacy affects one's behavior toward ecological behavior. Subjects were asked to answer questions about ecological behaviors. The three predictors – attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy) – explained 81% of the variance in behavioral intention, which, in turn, explained 51% of the variance of actual behavior. Inclusion of perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy) in the prediction of behavioral intention significantly increased the strength of the relationship than with only attitudes and subjective norms.

There are several empirical studies that have attempted to provide evidence of how strongly perceived behavioral control, or self-efficacy, increases the variance of behavioral intention in tourism in general, in volunteering research, and in particular, volunteer tourism research. In terms of the role of self-efficacy toward behavioral intention in the context of tourism in general, recent tourism research supported the relationship between self-efficacy and behavioral intention. Lam and Hsu (2004) studied tourists' behavior in the context of Chinese

tourists using the theory of planned behavior. Their study findings indicated that self-efficacy was the strongest predictor of behavioral intention among three components of the TPB. The researchers argued that if Chinese tourists could have less regulation and more discretionary income to travel abroad, Hong Kong would be their first travel destination. In other words, there was a positive relationship between perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy) and behavioral intention. Another tourism study (Sparks, 2007) that used perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy) supported the relationship between wine tourists' perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy) and tourists' behavioral intentions (a wine trip). Study findings indicated that if the wine tourists had more income and discretionary time, they would intend to take a wine trip.

In volunteer research, there is also widespread evidence that has supported the relationship between perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy) and behavioral performance (Greenslade & White, 2005; Harrison, 1995; Lemmens, et al., 2005; Okun & Sloane, 2002). Greenslade and White (2005) tested the TPB model using 385 volunteers in Australia. The survey was used for the study. Study findings supported the relationship between self-efficacy and behavioral intentions. The authors indicated that volunteers who felt confident about provision of community services were more likely to intend to volunteer. They found that self-efficacy was the strongest predictor of intentions among the three independent variables (attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy). Self-efficacy alone explained 57% of the variance in volunteer behavior. Harrison (1995) studied determinants to behavioral intentions using the TPB. In the study, perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy) significantly contributed to the strength of the prediction of behavioral intentions. Despite the strong prediction of behavioral intentions with the other two variables (attitudes and subjective

norms) of the TPB, perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy) increased the prediction of behavioral intention. In other words, if the volunteers had sufficient perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy) variables, including schedule, health, and age, they would be more likely to participate in volunteer service. Okun and Sloane (2002) used college students to ask about enrollment of a campus-based volunteer program. They used the TPB model to predict students' behavior (enrollment of the program). This study also supported the relationship between perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy) and behavioral intention. The study findings indicated that study participants who had more perceived time and skills were more likely to participate in a school volunteer program. The study also found perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy) as the strongest predictor to students' intention to enroll the program.

Despite many survey-based studies conducted in both tourism and volunteer research there is little research that has examined the relationship between the role of perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy) and behavioral intention in the volunteer tourism context. However, there is some evidence of a relationship between self-efficacy and volunteer tourists' behavior (Brown, 2005; Callanan & Thomas, 2005; Campbell & Smith, 2006; Coghlan, 2005; McGehee, 2002; Zahra & McIntosh, 2007).

Coghlan (2005) argued that volunteer tourism requires a high level of engagement with a variety of volunteer tourism experiences. Volunteer tourism activities often demand volunteer tourists to be physically and emotionally strong. For instance, some volunteer tourism activities are highly associated with physical labor activities including construction and cleaning. Some projects require volunteer tourists to engage in a variety of adverse conditions, including poor weather and primitive accommodation (Campbell & Smith, 2006). Emotional intensity is also

required when the volunteer tourism experience includes activities such as caring for the disabled. Coghlan argued that a good volunteer should be equipped with both physical and emotional strength to perform a variety of volunteer tourism tasks. Callanan and Thomas (2005) also argued that some volunteer tourism activities such as caring for HIV/AIDS patients and the mentally or physically disabled demand a high level of emotional strength. Moreover, many volunteer tourism organizations often have a number of trip durations ranging from a few days up to six months, so volunteer tourists are expected to maintain their initial commitment.

McGehee (2002) explained that if a person has high self-efficacy, the person feels highly competent, welcomes a challenge and feels confident in dealing with her/his ability to manage change. Some researchers argued that self-efficacy is interlinked to self-confidence, “confidence in one’s ability to accomplish a goal or task” (Klint, 1990, p. 194, cited in Wearing, 2001). Wearing (2001) also argued that self-efficacy is interrelated to self-confidence, which enables people to be relaxed and feel able to execute volunteer tourism activities. Self-efficacy not only plays a significant role in predicting people’s intention but it also can become a consequence of volunteer tourism (Brown, 2005; Thoit & Hewitt, 2001). For example, Brown (2005) argued that physically and mentally able people are more likely to become volunteer tourists, but also a volunteer tourism experience can increase volunteer tourists’ perceived physical and mental abilities as well. This relationship between volunteer tourism and self-efficacy begs for additional examination. McGehee’s (2002) idea of self-efficacy variables will be replicated in this study as she specified and tested the variables in the context of volunteer tourism research.

As a result of the existing literature, sufficient evidence exists to support the argument that a positive relationship exists between self-efficacy and intended participation in future

volunteer tourism. As discussed earlier, the role of self-efficacy played a significant role in predicting a behavior, including tourism, volunteering, and volunteer tourism.

Hypothesis #3: There is a positive relationship between *potential* volunteer tourists' self-efficacy toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in volunteer tourism in the future.

## Motivation

The TPB has extensively been studied over various academic fields. It in essence predicts human behavioral performance with three dominant predictors, including attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy). With the predictive power of the TPB, however, those three predicting variables do not always consistently predict human behavioral intention. Ajzen (1987, 1991) argued that this is because the TPB can be affected by other external factors. There is evidence that motivation is perhaps an additional primary external factor exerting influence on behavior.

As Bandura (1991), a social psychologist, pointed out, motivation is not a single concept that can be defined in a certain way. Therefore, the definition of motivation is dependent on the distinct research setting (Table 2.3).

Table 2.3 Motivation Definitions

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Simon, 1967	Social Psychology	A goal terminating mechanism, permitting goals to be processed serially
Pizam, Neumann, and Reichel, 1979	Tourism	Set of needs which predispose a person to participate in a touristic activity
MacInnis and Jaworski, 1989	Marketing	The desire to process brand information in the ad
MacInnis, Moorman, and Jaworski, 1991	Marketing	Consumers' desire or readiness to process brand information in an ad
Bandura, 1991	Social Psychology	A multidimensional phenomenon indexed in terms of selection of pursuits from competing alternatives, intensity of effort, and persistence of exertion
Ford, 1992	Social Psychology	The organized patterning of three psychological functions that serve to direct, energize, and regulate goal-directed activity: personal goals, emotional arousal processes, and personal agency beliefs
Crompton and McKay, 1997	Tourism	A dynamic process of internal psychological factors (needs and wants) that generate a state of tension or disequilibrium within individuals
Belmechri and Hummel, 1998	Social Psychology	A composite of intensity and orientation [long-range goals] that correspond respectively to the effort expended and to the learner's goals
Moutinho, 2000	Tourism	A state of need, a condition that exerts a 'push' on the individual toward certain types of action that are seen as likely to bring satisfaction
McCabe, 2001	Tourism	A list of needs particular to tourism

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Table 2.3 Motivation Definitions (Continued)

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Jamal and Lee, 2003	Tourism	Autonomous initiation or self-determination of behavior
Beerli and Martin, 2004	Tourism	The need that derives an individual to act in a certain way to achieve the desired satisfaction
Macionis, 2004	Tourism	The driving force within an individual that impels [film induced tourists] to action
Clark, Abela, and Ambler, 2005	Marketing	Organization's desire to process performance information
Park and Yoon, 2009	Tourism	A set of needs that cause a person to participate in a tourism based activity

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Even though these above definitions are not exclusive, they each represent their fields: social psychology (Bandura, 1991; Belmechri & Hummel, 1998; Ford, 1992; Simon, 1967), marketing (MacInnis & Jaworski, 1989; MacInnis, Moorman, & Jaworski, 1991; Clark, Abela, & Ambler, 2005), and tourism (Beerli & Martin, 2004; Crompton & McKay, 1997; Jamal & Lee, 2003; Macionis, 2004; McCabe, 2001; Moutinho, 2000; Park & Yoon, 2009; Pizam, Neumann, and Reichel, 1979). For this present study, the tourism-oriented definition is favored because volunteer tourism is a subset of tourism in general. Among the definitions of motivation in tourism, Crompton and McKay's definition (1997) is most favored to this study: "A dynamic process of internal psychological factors (needs and wants) that generate a state of tension or disequilibrium within individual" (p. 427). A volunteer tourism expedition is a relatively new idea to potential volunteer tourists who may feel intrigued but unsure about the notion that they

contribute their discretionary time and money to both travel to assist others and engage in leisure travel (McGehee & Santos, 2005). The above notion can apply to this present study.

Much motivational research in tourism in general supports the relationship between motivation and intention to perform a behavior (Gnoth, 1997; Goossens, 2000; Lam & Hus, 2006). In tourism research in general, there are common motivational factors found to influence one's behavior. One of the most prevalent motivational typologies is the "push" (demand) and "pull" (supply) model (Crompton, 1979; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994). Push factors are internally-driven motivations, while pull factors are externally-driven motivations (Gnoth, 1997). Push factors include the desire for escape, relaxation, rest, curiosity, relationship, self-enhancement, autonomy, novelty, and education. In other words, these factors originate from the influences or subjective norms of the individuals everyday life. In the meantime, pull factors include external factors such as advertising, branding, destination, images, and sites (Gnoth, 1997; Goossens, 2002; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994). The "push and pull" model explains that the push and pull factors are correlated (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994). Pearce and Lee (2005) identified pleasure tourists' motivational factors against travel experiences using the travel career pattern model, which is a modified model of Maslow's hierarchy-of-needs theory, and found 14 motivational factors that were somewhat related with tourists' travel patterns and life stages. The findings indicated that people's motivation varied depending on their level of travel experiences. Pearce and Lee's travel career pattern model is of particular interest to this study as it recognizes that travelers express different motivational patterns over their life and travel experience stages. Considered that most volunteer tourists travel to volunteer tourism destinations with different life stages and travel experiences, it is assumed that their motivational pattern will change

accordingly. Therefore, this study will use a modified version of Pearce and Lee's motivation scale as the foundation for the motivation variable, augmenting it with any additional variables found to be significant in the volunteer tourism literature.

In addition to the impact of travel experience stages on motivation, there is research that has examined influential motivation factors to travel by comparing two groups, first time and repeat tourists. Gitelson and Crompton (1984) compared motivation of two groups, first time and repeat tourists. The researchers found that different motivation existed between the two groups; the first-time tourists were more focused on curiosity and autonomy than repeat tourists, while repeat tourists were more focused on relaxation and relationships than first-time tourists. Lau and McKercher (2004) also compared motivation between first-time and repeat tourists travelling to Hong Kong and found that differences existed between the two groups; first-time tourists were motivated to find self-fulfillment, while repeat tourists were more motivated to build relationships and relax. A cornerstone of this current study consists of the notion that experienced volunteer tourists will have different motivations from their inexperienced counterparts.

Much of the research in volunteering indicated that people are motivated to volunteer through various motivational factors including: to share values, to learn new skills, to enhance self-esteem, to gain a career, to develop the self, and to assist others (Brown, 1999; Bussell & Forbes, 2001; Clary & Snyder, 1999; Janoski, Musick, & Wilson, 1998; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998).

There are several empirical studies that have examined a relationship between motivation and volunteering (Harrison, 1995; Liao-Troth & Dunn, 1999; Mowen & Sujan, 2005). In fact,

study findings indicated that motivational factors were significantly related to volunteer behavior. Harrison (1995) examined volunteer participation using survey research and interviews. Findings indicated that motivational factors affected volunteers' participation at a homeless shelter. In the study, additionally, type of motivation helped strengthen the prediction of volunteer attendance and most important for this current study, the strength of the prediction was found stronger in more experienced volunteers than new volunteers.

Liao-Troth and Dunn (1999) conducted a comparison of volunteer motives between managers and volunteers. Motivational factors found in the study showed that both managers and volunteers had high interest on altruistic variables in particular: to help others and feel useful and needed, followed by enhancement of the self. The study findings indicated that managers and volunteers shared a common sense of altruistic motivations to volunteer.

Mowen and Sujana (2005) conducted a comparison study regarding volunteers' behaviors among three sampled groups: potential volunteers, students, and members of a volunteer organization. The study found that amongst potential volunteers, motivational factors such as altruism, the need for activity and the need for learning were significant predictors of volunteer behavior. The study found motivational factors such as to help others, to make career contacts, and to learn, were positive and significant predictors of volunteers behavior, while self-enhancement was a negative and significant predictor. The study found that two motivational factors – altruism and self-enhancement – were both negatively significant predictors of volunteers' behavior amongst members of a volunteer organization.

Many motivational studies have been conducted in the context of tourism and volunteering in general. While volunteer tourism is still a relatively young area of study, there

has been a variety of volunteer tourism research that has focused on volunteer tourists' motivations. Therefore, this next section attempts to review the existing literature regarding volunteer tourists' motivation toward their behavior, and to identify possible gaps in the current body of knowledge that could be addressed in this study.

Previous studies that included motivation for volunteer tourism have discovered unique motivational aspects, arguably because the needs of volunteer tourists are different (Uriely, et al., 2003; Wearing, 2001). Unlike general tourists who pursue their pleasure and curiosity through indirect contact with local residents, volunteer tourism provides more direct contact with members of the host community. By doing so, volunteer tourists become immersed in the host community's culture (Raymond & Hall, 2008). Some researchers argued that not only does the volunteer tourism experience offer a greater sense of community, it also enables volunteer tourists to learn and experience beyond traditional tourism (Brown, 2005; McIntosh & Zahra, 2007). Broad (2003) argued that volunteer tourists interact with one another to share common interests, often resulting in permanent personal transformation. More importantly, many volunteer tourists tend to spend time assisting the host community (altruism) rather than passively enjoying their trip. Because of this, it is argued that motivational aspects of volunteer tourists are different from those of conventional tourists. This notion is reviewed in greater detail in the following discussion.

In one of the earliest studies of volunteer tourism, Wearing (2001) interviewed 11 Australian volunteer tourists who participated in a Youth Challenge International program (YCI) in Costa Rica's Santa Elena Rainforest Reserve. The motivational factors found in the study

included altruism, travel/adventure, personal growth, the YCI program, and right time/right place. Wearing argued that those abovementioned motivational aspects varied from volunteer tourists past volunteer travel experiences; volunteer tourists who had participated in volunteer tourism experiences were more interested in such motives as altruism and travel/adventure, followed by professional development. They perceived their past volunteer tourism experience as part of learning and adventure. In addition, first-time volunteer tourists were not interested in travel as their motivation as their more seasoned counterparts. Similarly, Broad and Jenkins (2008) observed and interviewed 40 volunteer tourists who participated in a Gibbon Rehabilitation Project (GRP) in Phuket, Thailand. The volunteer tourism expedition lasted for four months. Volunteer tourists' average age was relatively young (25 years old) and they came from ten countries worldwide. The study found five motivations similar to those of Wearing (2001): altruism; travel; career development; personal development and the GRP program.

In another study that examined volunteer tourists' motivation, Soderman and Snead (2008) used gap year tourists who traveled Latin America. Similarly, this study found a variety of motivational factors, including helping others, developing careers and learning skills. An interesting motive for volunteer tourists in this study was to practice their language (Spanish) while volunteering. Those abovementioned motivational aspects seemed to be representative of the volunteer tourism expeditions whose major volunteer tourism activities focused on language, followed by conservation and construction.

In a similar way, McIntosh and Zahra (2007) examined volunteer tourists' motivation to volunteer in the Maori community in New Zealand. The study was conducted using in-depth interviews and focus groups of volunteer tourists who have participated in the Maori culture project. The findings showed that volunteer tourists were motivated by altruism, e.g. giving back,

working with communities and contributing their service to the local community. One study participant claimed that “my main motivation was to give, because I know in giving you are happy” and “I was looking forward to new experiences, ones that challenged me, seeing other countries, but not as a traditional tourist; I actually like helping people” (p. 546).

Another study of volunteer tourists’ motivation indicated similar findings. Brown (2005) examined volunteer tourists’ motives and benefits. Brown utilized focus groups and semi-structured in-depth interviews. Study participants had experienced volunteer work during their leisure trip, ranging from domestic – New Mexico and Alaska – to international – Guatemala, Cuba, and Brazil. She found four major motivations: cultural immersion, seeking camaraderie, education, and altruism.

Even though much of the previous volunteer tourism research found similar motivational factors across diverse volunteer tourism activities, there is research that has found somewhat different motivational factor from those of other volunteer tourism research. Campbell and Smith (2006) who examined volunteer tourists’ values toward sea turtle conservation in Tortuguero, Costa Rica, found that the volunteer tourists they interviewed were motivated specifically to do scientific research. The researchers argued that the findings were unique due to the research-oriented component of the exhibition. Many subjects of volunteer tourism research are focused on other non-scientific activities such as provision of medical assistance, cultural and heritage restoration (Brown & Morrison, 2003; Wearing, 2001) and house construction (Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004).

Unlike much of volunteer tourism research that used small sample sizes and qualitative techniques, there is some research that has examined volunteer tourists’ motivation using a

survey technique (Coghlan, 2005; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004). In Coghlan's (2005) study survey participants were relatively young, less than 30 years old (55%), female (68%), and mostly westerners (British, American, Australian, and European accounted for 90%). Coghlan used 26 motivational items and ranked them according to volunteer tourists' responses. Most motivational items were high (three or above out of a five point likert scale). Among those highly rated motivational items, there were 11 motivational items rated higher than four out of a five point likert scale: experiencing new and different things; having a good time; taking part in a rare opportunity; increasing knowledge of ecology and conservation; exploring new places; experiencing the challenge of the task; working with an organization whose mission I support; being close to nature; meeting new people; doing something meaningful or conservation orientated; and developing personal interests.

While many of the previous volunteer tourism studies focused on motivation using volunteer tourists, Coghlan (2008) later studied the motivation of expedition leaders who lead volunteers to a destination and compared those with her previous research that focused on the volunteer tourists. She argued that volunteer tourism leaders must be prepared for unexpected circumstances with volunteer tourists, so understanding this relationship between volunteer tourism leaders and volunteer tourists can improve the success of volunteer tourism experiences. Both parties were highly motivated to participate in volunteer tourism by experiencing new things, being close to nature, taking part in a rare opportunity, doing something meaningful, having a good time, and experiencing the challenge of the task. Despite the overall similarity, there were significant motivational differences: expedition leaders tended to rate developing personal interests, meeting the locals and experiencing different cultures lower than the volunteer tourists did. Coghlan concluded that the leaders paid more attention to work performance than

volunteer tourists did. These discrepancies obviously result from different responsibilities and duties.

Stoddart and Rogerson (2004) used a relatively large sample size (123 participants) and conducted a case study of volunteer tourism in South Africa that focused on the reduction of poverty through the construction of buildings in a program known as “Habitat for Humanity South Africa (HFHSA).” Findings in the study indicated that many volunteer tourists had been engaged in volunteering activities with other volunteering organizations. The findings revealed that the volunteer tourists were motivated to develop skills and relationships with other people, as well as to travel to a unique destination. The findings indicated that volunteer tourists not only contribute their service to help the less privileged but they also volunteer with the expectation that they will learn professional skills during their volunteer tourism experiences. This supports the findings of Raymond and Hall (2008), who argued that the volunteer tourism experience is an intrinsic learning process rather than only an extrinsic passive experience.

Even though many abovementioned studies found more interpersonal motivational factors, there is one study that has found more personal motivation associated with volunteer tourists’ experience. Sin (2009) reviewed volunteer tourists’ motivation and performances using interviews and observations during a trip to South Africa. The research questions were about reasons for volunteering, expectations, and feelings after the volunteer experience. One of the study’s motivations was “to travel.” Sin (2009) argued that the desire of travel included: to get away, to learn, to visit an exotic place, and to experience novelty. The most common motivational factors found in other volunteer tourism research were not found to be dominant. Only two out of eleven participants the researcher interviewed expressed that they wanted to

volunteer and contribute their service to the locals. The study also found other motivations like self-enhancement and convenience.

Throughout the literature, it is seen that the motivation of volunteer tourists was multifunctional. Volunteer tourists were motivated to volunteer not only for interpersonal reasons such as helping others, contributing skills, giving back, and working with the locals, but for personal reasons such as the desire to travel, developing careers, learning professional development, developing new relationship, experiencing new things, and fulfilling a dream. As seen in the table below (Table 2.4), many volunteer tourism studies found that participants were motivated by a number of diverse reasons across various volunteer tourism expeditions.

Table 2.4 Volunteer Tourists' Motivations

Motivators	Research	Sample
<p>Altruism</p> <p>to make a difference</p> <p>to do something meaningful</p> <p>to help others</p> <p>to give something back</p> <p>to work with an organization whose mission I support</p> <p>to take part in a rare opportunity</p> <p>to combine a love of travel with a desire to give back</p>	<p>Broad &amp; Jenkins, 2008; Coghlan, 2005; McIntosh &amp; Zahra, 2007; Soderman &amp; Snead, 2008; Stoddart &amp; Rogerson, 2004; Wearing, 2001.</p>	<p>Broad &amp; Jenkins-volunteer tourists to Thailand &amp; Phuket; Coghlan-volunteer tourists from Asia, Africa, Australia, and Europe; McIntosh &amp; Zahra-volunteer tourists to New Zealand; Soderman &amp; Snead-volunteer tourists to Latin America; Stoddart &amp; Rogerson-volunteer tourists to South Africa; Wearing-volunteer tourists to Coast Rica (Youth Challenge Internation program).</p>
<p>Autonomy</p> <p>to be independent</p> <p>to experience the challenge of the task</p> <p>to think about personal values</p> <p>to do something new and different</p> <p>to be adventurous</p> <p>to fulfill a dream</p> <p>to develop my career</p>	<p>Coghlan, 2005 &amp; 2008; Soderman &amp; Snead, 2008; Wearing, 2001.</p>	
<p>Self-Fulfillment</p> <p>to travel</p> <p>to develop my knowledge of the destination</p>	<p>Broad &amp; Jenkins, 2008; Coghlan, 2005; Sin, 2009; Soderman &amp; Snead, 2008.</p>	<p>Sin-volunteer tourists to South Africa.</p>

Table 2.4 Volunteer Tourists' Motivations (Continued)

Motivators	Research	Sample
<p>Curiosity</p> <p>to meet the local people</p> <p>to be with people from different cultures</p> <p>to become immersed in the local culture</p> <p>to learn about other people</p> <p>to learn new things</p>	<p>Brown, 2005; Coghlan, 2005 McIntosh &amp; Zahra, 2007; Wearing, 2001.</p>	<p>Brown-volunteer tourists.</p>
<p>Escape</p> <p>to be away from everyday stress</p> <p>to have a good time</p> <p>to be away from daily routine</p> <p>to experience peace</p> <p>to develop my personal interests</p>	<p>Broad &amp; Jenkins, 2008; Coghlan, 2005; Soderman &amp; Snead, 2008; Wearing, 2001.</p>	
<p>Relationship</p> <p>to strengthen my family relationship</p> <p>to have an opportunity to educate my children</p> <p>to strengthen my relationships with friends</p> <p>to develop a relationship with other volunteer tourists</p>	<p>Brown, 2005; Soderman &amp; Snead, 2008.</p>	

Previous volunteer tourism research has focused on people who have experienced volunteer tourism (Broad & Jenkins, 2008; Brown, 2005; Campbell & Smith, 2006; Coghlan, 2005, 2008; McGehee & Santos, 2005; McIntosh & Zahra, 2007; Sin, 2009; Soderman & Snead, 2008; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Wearing, 2001). Rarely has research been conducted that compares potential future volunteer tourism between experienced volunteer tourists and those who have never participated in volunteer tourists, nor is there little that has examined a relationship between potential volunteer tourists' motivation and their intended participation in volunteer tourism in the future, as is the case with this present study. Sufficient evidence in the previous studies indicated that various motivational factors were related with volunteer tourists' volunteer tourism experiences. Therefore, for this study, it is proposed that various *potential* volunteer tourists' motivations are related to their intended participation in volunteer tourism.

Hypothesis #4: there is a positive relationship between *potential* volunteer tourists' motivation toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in volunteer tourism in the future.

#### Past Volunteer Tourism Experience as a Moderating Effect

This study will not only examine the potential value of TPB for volunteer tourism, but it will also look at the role of past volunteer tourism experiences as a moderator between the four predictors – attitudes, subjective norms, self-efficacy, and motivation – and potential volunteer tourists intended participation. A number of previous studies have suggested that past experience may moderate the strength of the relationship between three components of TPB and behavioral

intention (Armitage & Baughan, 2003; Norman & Conner, 2006; Ouellette & Wood, 1998; Terry, Hogg, & White, 1999).

Ajzen (1991) found that the relationship between three predictors within the TPB and intention is not always consistent because the relative importance of the three predictors could vary across behaviors and situations, “In some applications it may be found that only attitudes have a significant impact on intentions, in others that attitudes and perceived behavioral control are sufficient to account for intentions, and in still others that all three predictors make independent contributions” (Ajzen, 1991, p. 189); thus, investigating the moderating effects of past behavior in the model will provide better understanding of potential volunteer tourists’ intended participation.

It is reasonable that past performance influences future behavior based on the concept of habitual behavior. Ouellette and Wood (1998) argued that future behavior is likely to be repeated automatically by virtue of habitual behavior. Conversely, if the individual has not engaged in previous behavior it may require some extent of controlled processing to perform a behavior because the individual has to acquire information to perform the behavior.

In a same vein of thought applied to TPB, past behavior may moderate the relationship between three components of TPB and intention. For example, Terry, Hogg, and White (1999) found that past recycling behavior moderated the relations between the three components of TPB and intention. The study, in particular, found that the past recycling behavior strengthened the relationship between attitude and recycling intention. Similarly, Norman and Conner (2006) found the similar way that past behavior increased the strength of relationship between the three predictors of TPB and intention. However, the moderating role of past drinking behavior was found only in the relationship between attitude and intention. Armitage and Baughan (2003)

found that all of the three predictors of TPB were moderated by prior experience, but a statistically significant moderating effect was found in the relationship between perceived behavioral control and intention. In the same way, Norman, Conner, and Bell (2000) found that past behavior moderated the relationship between behavioral control and intention. Ouellette and Wood (1998) argued that past behavior can contribute to behavioral intention indirectly by affecting social pressure groups. These researchers argued that past behavior is more likely to influence positive perceptions of social pressures, which in turn affects behavioral intention. The study used meta-analysis to determine that past behavior increased the predictive power of the relationship between subjective norms and behavioral intention. In terms of the moderating role of past behavior in the context of tourism research in general, Lam and Hsu (2006) argued that there is little research that has examined past behavior as a moderating actor on the relations between the three components of TPB and behavioral intention. So, the researchers suggested that past behavior may moderate antecedents of TPB and behavioral intention. This study also attempts to examine past behavior as a moderating role in the relationship between motivation and intention.

It is more logical to reason that past behavior may increase the strength of the relationship between motivation and intention because when an individual was satisfied with past experience, the individual is more likely to be motivated to repeat the behavior. Furthermore, in the context of tourism research, Pearce and Lee (2005) suggested that people may start with a different type of travel motivation and the travel motivation shifts over travel experience and life stages. Thus, it is conceivable that past travel experience may have a strong interaction effect on travel motivation and intention. This study, hence, explores the role of past volunteer tourism experience toward the relationship between motivation and intention.

## A Meta-Analysis of the Theory of Planned Behavior in Tourism Research

A review of the previous tourism research has shown that the strength of the relationship between the three components of the TPB and behavioral intention is not always consistent (Table 2.5). A Meta analysis can provide insight into the relationship between the three components of the TPB and intention. Meta-analysis can provide information about the overall efficacy of the TPB and an assessment of the predictive power of the three components of the TPB in relation to behavioral intention. Conducting meta-analysis can allow the researchers to determine the effects of moderators that have never been examined in an original study (Guzzo, Jackson, & Katzell, 1987). Most importantly, a meta-analysis provides objectivity of the research by using effect sizes, which provide primary information about the relationships between variables (Guzzo, et al., 1987).

In order to conduct a meta-analysis specifically for this study, previous research in the area of tourism and TPB was targeted and their effect sizes were analyzed. There are many acceptable measures of effect size for a meta-analysis, including standardized mean difference effect sizes, odds-ratio effect sizes, correlation coefficient effect sizes, proportion effect sizes, and standardized gain score effect sizes. The correlation coefficient was selected for this study primarily because it was the most accessible across all the targeted studies. The procedure used for the meta-analysis was as follows: 1) finding tourism and leisure research which has used the theory of planned behavior or the theory of reasoned action, which consisted of 14 tourism studies that included attitude ( $n = 14$ ), subjective norms ( $n = 14$ ), and self-efficacy ( $n = 11$ ), and 2) investigating the reliability and correlation coefficient between variables for each study.

As a result, effect sizes on three components of the TPB indicated a moderate effect size for attitudes ( $\rho = 0.43$ ), the relationship between subjective norms and intention ( $\rho = 0.41$ ) and self-efficacy (perceived behavioral control) ( $\rho = 0.52$ ).

Table 2.5 Review of Tourism Research Using the TPB

Author	Sample size	Subject	IV	DV	Correlation Value
Lam & Hsu	299	Potential Chinese travelers	Attitudes	Intention to travel	0.36
			Subjective norms		0.28
			Perceived behavioral control (Pbc)		0.21
Sparks	427	Potential wine tourists	Attitude	Intention to travel	0.26
			Subjective norms		0.35
			Pbc		0.58
Oh & Hsu	485	Current gamblers	Attitudes	Intention to gamble	
			Subjective norms		
			Pbc		
Lee, Qu, & Kim	208	Travel subscribers	Attitudes	Intention to search	0.49
			Subjective norms		0.21
Lee	100	American & Chinese customers	Attitudes	Bargaining intention	0.72
			Subjective norms		0.67

Table 2.5 Review of tourism research using the TPB (Continued)

Author	Sample size	Subject	IV	DV	Correlation Value
Brown	433	Cultural tourists	Attitudes	Intention to climb	0.67
			Subjective norms		0.48
Lee & Back	245	Meeting participants	Attitudes	Participation intention	0.24
			Subjective norms		0.28
			Pbc		0.31
Han, Hsu, & Sheu	428	Green hotel visitors	Attitudes	Visit intention	0.65
			Subjective norms		0.59
			Pbc		0.45
Quintal, Lee, & Soutar	168	Korean online travelers	Attitudes	Visit intention	0.35
			Subjective norms		0.38
			Pbc		0.43
	308	Chinese	Attitudes		0.49
			Subjective norms		0.62
			Pbc		0.53
	288	Japanese	Attitudes		0.41
Subjective norms			0.47		
Pbc			0.42		

Table 2.5 Review of tourism research using the TPB (Continued)

Author	Sample size	Subject	IV	DV	Correlation Value
Sparks & Pan	548	Chinese outbound tourists	Attitudes	Visit intention	0.15
			Subjective norms Pbc		
Phetvaroon	385	Tourists	Attitudes	Intention to visit	0.33
			Subjective norms		0.27
			Pbc		0.45
Shen, Schuttemeyer, & Braun	366	Chinese visitors	Attitudes	Intention to visit	0.02
			Subjective norms		0.07
			Pbc		0.29

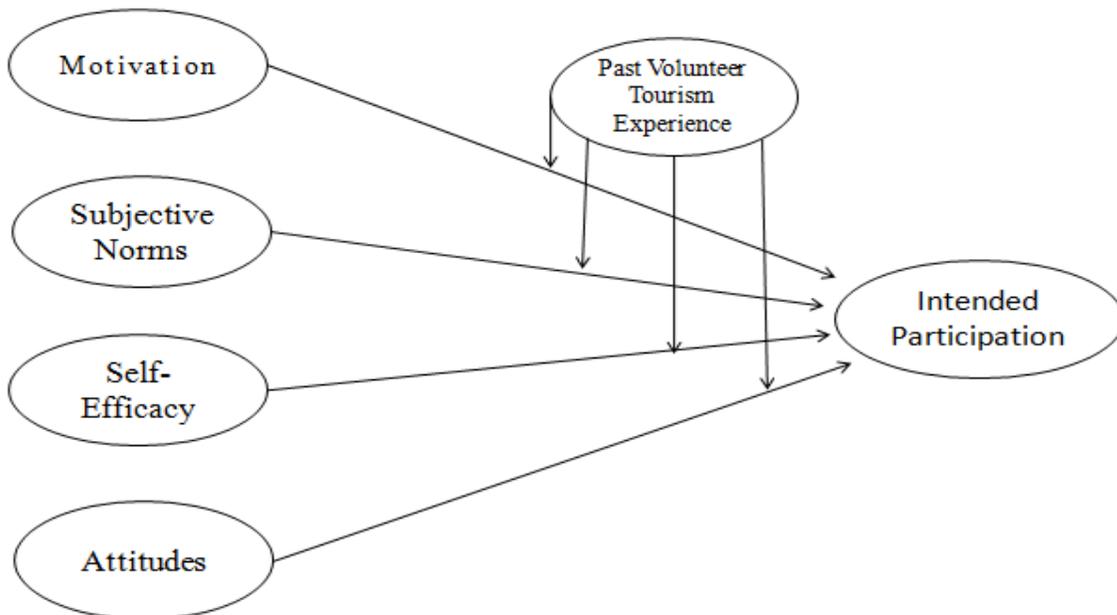
### Summary

As Ajzen (1991) argued, the TPB model can be tested by the individual components; attitude, subjective norms, self-efficacy and motivation, but collectively the predictors could represent a more valid measure of the behavioral performance than any single measure. This present study attempts to examine how and in what ways each of the three internal components of TPB and motivation as an additional variable and an aggregation of all four independent components determine *potential* volunteer tourists' intended participation in volunteer tourism.

Therefore, a revised theoretical model for this study is proposed based on the theory of planned behavior (Figure 2).

Thus, the purpose of this study is threefold: 1) to examine how an aggregation of the three predicting variables (attitudes, subjective norms, and self-efficacy) affect potential volunteer tourists' intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience using the theory of planned behavior, 2) to investigate the predictive power of the fourth predicting variable (motivation) toward potential volunteer tourists' intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience, and 3) to explore the moderating effect of potential volunteer tourists' past volunteer tourism experience over the four predicting variables toward intended participation.

Figure 2. The Proposed Revised Theory of Planned Behavior



\*Motivation as a fourth predictor and Past Volunteer Tourism Experience as a moderating variable have been added into the original Theory of Planned Behavior.

## **CHAPTER III**

### **METHODS**

#### Introduction

This chapter details the methodology used to address this study's research questions, which are as follows:

- How and in what ways does an aggregation of the three components of the theory of planned behavior – attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy) — affect future intended participation in volunteer tourism?
- How does motivation increase the predictive power of the theory of planned behavior in the context of volunteer tourism?
- Does past volunteer tourism experience act as a moderator of the relationship between the four influencing variables (attitudes, subjective norms, self-efficacy and motivation) and intended participation? If so, how and in what ways does past volunteer tourism experience moderate the relationship between the four influencing variables and intended participation?

In this chapter, the survey instrument is reviewed, including the study samples, the data collection method, and the survey distribution process. Next, a description of the measurement variables and their content validity for this study is outlined. Finally, the various hypotheses are stated, along with an explanation of the statistical analysis used for this study.

## Research Design

### The Survey Instrument

The survey instrument used for this study was conducted online using surveymonkey.com. An initial draft of the survey instrument was pre-tested using a Virginia Tech online class of 186 students, and then further refined as a result of the pretest. The study target population consisted of potential volunteer tourists who were active members of two volunteer tourism organizations, as well as recipients of VolunTourism.org's quarterly newsletter. While the survey was available online and open to anyone, it was written in English only.

### Data Collection

The survey was advertised and linked through two different volunteer tourism organizations: First United Methodist Church (UMC) Global Outreach in Tuscaloosa, Alabama, and United Planet, located in Boston, Massachusetts. The survey was also distributed and posted on VolunTourism.org, located in San Diego, California.

There are a number of reasons to select these three sample groups for this study. First, mission-based volunteer tourism is an important component of volunteer tourism. The UMC Global Outreach for this study has been associated with a variety of volunteer tourism activities over the years. The researcher was familiar with the UMC Global Outreach and knew it to be a reputable organization. The UMC Global Outreach volunteer tourism organization in Alabama travels around the world with a goal of helping the poor. Its activities include construction,

orphanage work, and education. UMC Global Outreach volunteer tourism projects usually last from one week to three months. Usually, at the end of each mission trip, the project participants have time to engage in tourism activities such as whale watching in Alaska and visiting local museums in Peru and Russia.

Joshua Davis, Director of Hospitality & Global Outreach for UMC Global Outreach, was contacted via email and phone. After explanation of the purpose of the survey, he agreed to distribute the survey to the organization's listserv, which consists of both those who have gone on a volunteer tourism experience and those who are active members of the Global Outreach project, but have not participated in a volunteer tourism experience. In three weeks, he was asked to remind those contacted to complete the survey in order to potentially increase the response rate.

Second, a large-scale reputable non-governmental organization (NGO) was selected from a list of nine volunteer tourism organizations recommended by volunteer tourism expert David Clemmons (founder of VolunTourism.org). All nine volunteer tourism organizations were contacted, but United Planet was the only one that agreed to participate in the study. United Planet, headquartered in Massachusetts, is an international non-profit organization. Its mission is "to create a world in which all people understand, respect, and support one another" (United Planet). Its volunteer activities include teaching, orphanage work, healthcare, the environment, construction, and women's empowerment. Its projects are located worldwide (see United Planet.org) and the project duration varies from one week to one year. United Planet was contacted via email. Theresa Higgs, Vice President of Global Operations, agreed to distribute the survey to her listserv which consists of both those who have participated in a volunteer tourism

experience and those who are interested in volunteer tourism activities. She was asked to send a survey reminder in three weeks.

Third, VolunTourism.org was selected because it is not associated directly with any volunteer tourism organization but rather is a resource for both individuals and organizations interested in volunteer tourism. VolunTourism.org, located in San Diego, California is a non-profit organization that was established in 2002. Its founder, David Clemmons, was one of the first to define voluntourism as “the integrated combination of voluntary service to a destination with the traditional elements of travel and tourism – arts, culture, geography, history and recreation – while in the destination” (<http://www.voluntourism.org/inside.html>). While VolunTourism.org does not directly conduct voluntours, it does support a variety of volunteer tourism activities, including hosting voluntourism research conferences and publishing a quarterly voluntourism newsletter. Its website provides detailed information with respect to various volunteer tourism activities. Its mission is to educate, to empower and to engage. David Clemmons agreed to distribute the survey through the VolunTourism newsletter and website as well as promote the survey through his regular contacts with various local, national and international media. Those who subscribe to the VolunTourism website consist of experienced volunteer tourists, persons interested in voluntourism and volunteer tourism providers.

As the survey instrument was distributed online and made publicly available through voluntourism.org, an exact response rate was indeterminable. Also, while the sample respondents self-selected, they all came from organizations involved in volunteer tourism, therefore it is safe to say that this is an affinity group. It is important to note that the survey was structured to accept only one survey per IP address.

## Online Survey Instrument

Online surveys provide a number of advantages over mail survey and interviews (Zikmund, 2003). Researchers in a variety of disciplines use the Internet for conducting survey research. Unlike mail surveys which are limited to people who have a specific residential address, an online survey using the Internet does not require an actual address. Moreover, online survey participants do not have to be at home to receive the survey as they would with phone or personal interviews. Online survey participants can take part in the survey wherever the Internet is accessible. Like an email survey, the online survey can reach a variety of populations who are affiliated with specified research target groups. Furthermore, White (2005: 11) argued that an online survey provides a mechanism to a researcher who seeks out specific target groups “who share specific interests, attitudes, beliefs, and values regarding an issue, problem, or activity.” This was the purpose of the volunteer tourism study from which the data were accessed for this dissertation: to target a specific group who intends to participate in volunteer tourism activities in the future. Conversely, it may be more difficult to reach a group that has similar interests through traditional survey research. As exemplified earlier in the literature section, volunteer tourists are financially able to spend their own time and travel expenses to volunteer which would lead one to believe that they most likely have the means to own and operate a computer and are able to access this survey. Also, Internet-based survey research can reach thousands of people with common interests in a relatively short time. Finally, online surveys are economical while traditional mailing surveys can be costly.

It is important to recognize that the online survey method has some disadvantages over other research methods. Dillman (2000) argued that Internet-based surveys can be less reliable when a researcher does not know about the characteristics of people in online groups, including basic demographic variables. For instance, if email lists are obtained from a web site that has earned the email lists from web survey services, there is no guarantee that the lists provide accurate information. Moreover a person can fill out an online survey repeatedly unless there is a tool that recognizes each respondent. Finally, Internet-based surveys are only available to people who are able to access the Internet.

#### Measurement Variables

This section discusses measurement variables. Most measurement variables for this study were designed using a five point-Likert scale. Respondents were also provided with an “other” category option when appropriate. Additionally, respondents were provided an open-ended question at the end of the questionnaire that allowed them to provide any additional information that they think may have been useful concerning their ideas, comments and thoughts about volunteer tourism.

## Dependent Variable - Intention

The ultimate dependent variable for this study was potential volunteer tourists' intended participation. As discussed earlier, there is a well-established intention construct that has been used as a dependent variable across various academic disciplines. The intention variable is often measured either using a Likert scale (Jang & Feng, 2007; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Nadeau, Heslop, O'Reilly, Luk, 2008; Phetvaroon, 2006; Sparks, 2007; Yoon & Uysal, 2005) or dichotomy (Jang, Bai, Hu, & Wu, 2009). For this study, the intention variable was measured using a five-point Likert scale to reflect potential volunteer tourists' intended participation in volunteer tourism. Items for the variable are based on those used in previous research (Jang & Feng, 2007; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Nadeau, Heslop, O'Reilly, & Luk, 2008; Phetvaroon, 2006; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Based on the research of Jang and Feng (2007), a three-year parameter for intention was provided to capture potential volunteer tourists' mid-term behavioral intention and was stated as follows (Table 3.1):

Table 3.1 Intended Participation of Volunteer Tourism

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How likely will you be to participate in a volunteer tourism experience within the next three years?

How likely will you encourage others to participate in a volunteer tourism experience within the next three years?

How likely will you recommend others to participate in a volunteer tourism experience within the next three years?

I would encourage others to participate in a volunteer tourism experience within the next three years

I want to participate in a volunteer tourism experience within the next three years

I intend to participate in a volunteer tourism experience within the next three years

I am interested in participating in a volunteer tourism experience within the next three years

---

\*All items were measured by five point likert scale, 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree

As noted earlier, three components of the proposed theoretical model (TPB) – attitudes, subjective norms, and self-efficacy – along with motivation as the fourth predictor, were included to examine one’s intentional behavior. The following section discusses measurement variables for each construct: attitudes, subjective norms, self-efficacy and motivation.

## Independent Variables - Attitudes

Attitudes were measured using potential volunteer tourists' level of agreement toward volunteer tourism activities. While research is limited in the area of volunteer tourism, there is abundant research regarding volunteer activity preferences. Previous research in the volunteer literature indicated that volunteers hope to achieve a variety of specific goals, including sharing and learning skills, conducting research, and continuation of previous volunteer experience (Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Miene, & Haugen, 1994). The study conducted by Clary, et al (1994) included the following attitudinal variables: volunteering provides opportunities 1) to share and learn about jobs, 2) to meet new people, 3) to act on diverse concerns, 4) to work with people, 5) to care about volunteering, 6) to feel better, and 7) to work for a cause she cared about. These above characteristics from the volunteer literature also appeared to underlie volunteer tourists' attitudes (Broad, 2003; Campbell & Smith, 2006; Uriely, et al., 2003; Wearing, 2001). As mentioned in the literature review, Katz (1960), Smith, Bruner, and White (1956) classified volunteer attitudes into diverse functions. The diverse attitudinal functions associated with a volunteer experience indicated that the experience provides 1) goals, including sharing and learning specific skills, knowledge, and abilities; 2) values, including helping others and contributing to society; 3) instant rewards, including career development and the associated benefits and opportunities for job availability; and 4) activities, including participation with family members and friends. These attitudinal variables formed the foundation for the scale utilized in this study. Validity was then reinforced when five experts in volunteer tourism were asked to review the list of items using a modified Delphi technique. As a result, the scale was then expanded to 11 items (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2 Attitudes of Volunteer Tourism Experience

---

Participating in a volunteer tourism experience would help me ...

- ... share a skill that I have
- ... share knowledge that I have
- ... learn a skill
- ... visit a specific destination
- ... learn to appreciate other cultures
- ... learn a language
- ... conduct a research project
- ... support a cause or issue
- ... share my faith and religious beliefs
- ... to serve other people
- ... to serve the environment

---

\* All items measured using a five point-Likert scale from 1 being strongly disagree to 5 being strongly agree

Given the existing literature, the following hypothesis has been developed:

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' attitudes toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience in the future.

## Subjective Norms

The next variable, subjective norms, was measured using four items, each asked in the context of family, friends, coworkers, and relatives. Within the TPB, subjective norms have often been measured using a small number of items, particularly family/family members and friends. It is important to note that a small number of measurement items may result in low reliability, thereby diminishing research findings (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Povey, et al., 2000; Sun, Guo, Want, & Sun, 2006). In general, more than two measurement items tend to increase reliability. This study targeted four referents who could possibly exert subjective norms and subsequently affect potential volunteer tourists' intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience (Deery, Jago, Shaw, 1997; Lam & Hsu, 2006; McGehee, 2002; Ryu & Jang, 2006). Each of the items were measured using a five point-Likert scale, ranging from 1 being strongly disagree to 5 being strongly agree (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3 Subjective Norms of Volunteer Tourism

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My immediate family members who are important to me would approve of my participation in a volunteer tourism experience.

Other relatives who are important to me would approve of my participation in a volunteer tourism experience.

Friends who are important to me would approve of my participation in a volunteer tourism experience.

Coworkers who are important to me would approve of my participation in a volunteer tourism experience.

---

\* All items measured using a five point-Likert scale from 1 being strongly disagree to 5 being strongly agree

Based on the literature review, the following hypothesis was drawn:

Hypothesis 2: There is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' subjective norms toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in volunteer tourism in the future.

## Self-Efficacy

Much research that has examined perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy) in both tourism in general and volunteering has focused on discretionary income, time constraints, schedule, age, and health (Harrison, 1995; Lam & Hsu, 2004; Sparks, 2007). However, the original literature in self-efficacy measures and defines it quite differently. Items originally used to measure self-efficacy include perceived competence, whether an individual welcomes the challenge of a task, and perceived ability to overcome obstacles (McGehee, 2002). Given the intensity and rigor of volunteer tourism, including immersion in an unfamiliar culture, language barriers, and the often rudimentary accommodations, logic would dictate that one's sense of her/his ability to overcome obstacles would be an important precursor to potential volunteer tourism participation. This is somewhat supported in the literature review, where McGehee and Norman (2002) found that self-efficacy was a significant predictor of volunteer tourists' consciousness-raising, and Giles, et al., (2002) and Lemmens, et al., (2005) argued that self-efficacy beliefs were more correlated with behavioral intention than perceived behavioral control. Hence, this study included three self-efficacy items (McGehee, 2002) (Table 3.4).

Table 3.4 Level of Agreement of Self-Efficacy

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Over time, I have learned that

... I am able to overcome obstacles that I once found impossible

... I look forward to future challenges

... I feel more competent in everyday life

---

\* all items were measured by a five point likert scale from 1 being strongly disagree to 5 being strongly agree.

As a result, the following hypothesis was derived from the volunteer tourism literature:

Hypothesis 3: There is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' self-efficacy toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in volunteer tourism in the future.

## Motivation

The predictive power of the TPB model can be affected by external factor(s) (Ajzen, 1991). Motivation is certainly an external factor for any behavior. The researcher for this study chose motivation as a possible fourth predicting variable toward potential volunteer tourists' intended participation. As discussed in the literature review, much of the relevant volunteer tourism motivation research has found that motivation affects behavioral performance (Broad, 2003; Raymond & Hall, 2008; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Wearing, 2001). To test this relationship in the context of volunteer tourism, motivation items were obtained from the existing tourism (Pearce & Lee, 2005) and volunteer tourism literature (Brown, 2005; Campbell & Smith, 2007; Coghlan, 2005; McIntosh & Zahra, 2007; Raymond & Hall, 2008; Sin, 2009; Soderman & Snead, 2008; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Wearing, 2001). During the process of obtaining motivational items, any unclear or irrelevant motivational items were modified or deleted. The final motivational items were also pilot tested prior to distribution to actual study participants (Table 3.5).

From an extensive review of the literature, the following hypothesis was drawn:

Hypothesis 4: There is a positive relationship between motivation toward a volunteer tourism experience and intended participation in volunteer tourism in the future.

Table 3.5 Motivations for a Volunteer Tourism Experience

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to have a good time	to be with people from different cultures	to become immersed in the host community's culture
to strengthen my family relationship	to learn new things	to fulfill a dream
to strengthen my friends relationship	to meet the locals	to be independent
to have an opportunity to educate my children	to be adventurous	to get a sense of achievement
to develop a relationship with other volunteer tourists	to develop my skills and abilities	to do something new and different
to learn about other people	to think about personal values	to help others
to give something back	to experience the challenge of the task	to develop my career
to experience peace	to work with an organization whose mission I support	to combine a love of travel with a desire to give back
to view the scenery	to take part in a rare opportunity	to develop my knowledge of the destination
to develop my personal interests	to do something meaningful	to be away from daily routine
to be close to nature	to make a difference	Other
to be away from everyday stress	to travel	

---

\* All motivational items measured using a five point-Likert scale from 1 being not important at all to 5 being very important.

## Past Volunteer Tourism Experience as a Moderating Variable

Previous tourism research in general has indicated that the strength of the relationship between the three components of the TPB and behavioral intention is not consistent. Previous behavioral research has suggested that past behavior may moderate the strength of the relationship between three components of TPB and intention (Norman, et al., 2000; Ouellette, et al., 1998; Terry, et al., 1999). Also, previous behavioral research has shown that past behavior in general impacts the strength of the relationship between attitudes and behavior (Terry, et al., 1999; Norman & Conner, 2006), subjective norms and behavior (Ouellette & Wood, 1998), and self-efficacy and behavior (Elliott, Armitage & Baughan, 2003; Norman, et al., 2000). Thus, this study proposes that the relationship between the four predictors – attitudes, subjective norms, self-efficacy and motivation – and intended participation will be moderated by volunteer tourists' past volunteer tourism experiences.

Hypothesis 5: The relationship between attitudes and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.

Hypothesis 6: The relationship between subjective norms and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.

Hypothesis 7: The relationship between self-efficacy and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.

Hypothesis 8: The relationship between motivation and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.

## Measuring Demographic Variables

As with most tourism research, this study includes potential volunteer tourists' basic socio-demographic variables, including age, gender, education level, occupation, and annual household income. The socio-demographic variables were included in the study in order to better understand the various characteristics of the large sample. These findings are also useful for volunteer tourism providers and organizers as a way to better understand potential volunteer tourists.

## Study Hypotheses

These aforementioned measurement variables were used to test the revised theoretical model for this study (Figure 2). As noted earlier, all hypotheses were based on the previous literature in the context of volunteer tourism research (Table 3.6).

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' attitudes toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience in the future.

Hypothesis 2: There is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' subjective norms toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience in the future.

Hypothesis 3: There is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' self-efficacy toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience in the future.

Hypothesis 4: There is a positive relationship between motivation toward a volunteer tourism experience and intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience in the future.

Hypothesis 5: The relationship between attitudes and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.

Hypothesis 6: The relationship between subjective norms and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.

Hypothesis 7: The relationship between self-efficacy and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.

Hypothesis 8: The relationship between motivation and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.

Figure 2. The Proposed Revised Theory of Planned Behavior

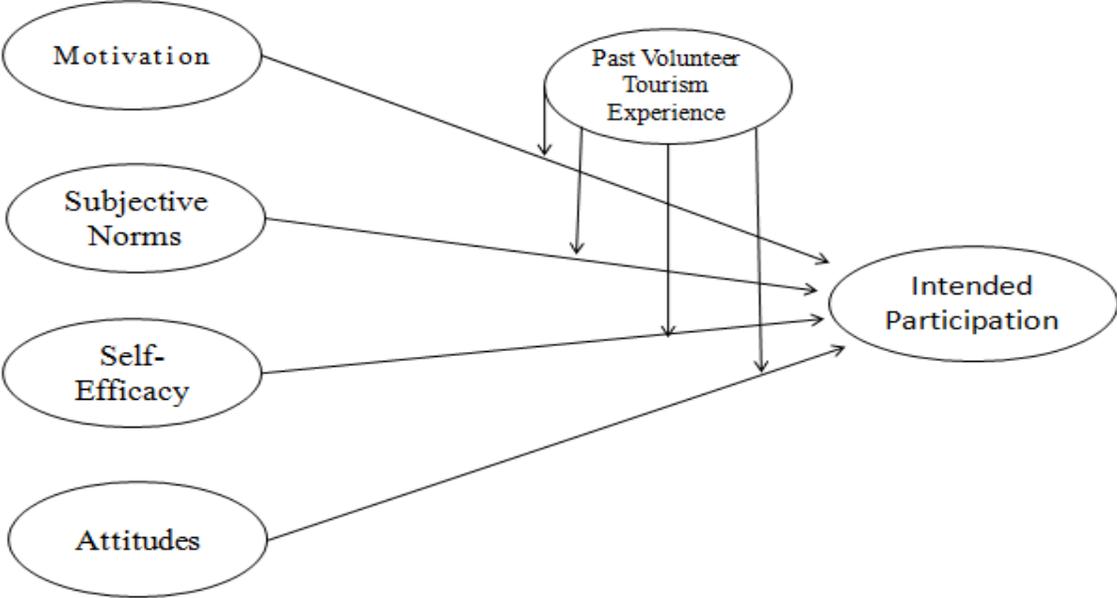


Table 3.6 Hypotheses for the Study

Hypotheses	Concept Names:	Theoretical Definition:	Operational Definition:
Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' attitudes toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience in the future.	IV - Attitudes, DV - Intended Participation	IV: Attitude - A person's overall evaluation of the proposed behavior, including of how good or bad the consequences are likely to be, DV: Intention - one's anticipation, plan, subjective probability toward behavioral performance.	IV - Potential volunteer tourists' overall evaluation of a volunteer tourism experience, including perceptions of how good or bad the consequences are likely to be. Responses: (nine attitudinal items). DV - A potential volunteer tourist's anticipated plan of a future volunteer tourism experience (five items) a five point likert scale Responses: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 disagree, 3 neutral, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree.
Hypothesis 2: There is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' subjective norms toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience in the future.	IV - Subjective norms, DV - Intended participation	IV: Subjective Norms - The perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behavior.	IV - The strength of social pressures to influence potential volunteer tourists' participation in volunteer tourism (four items). Responses: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = unsure, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree.

Hypotheses	Concept Names	Theoretical Definition	Operational Definition
Hypothesis 3: There is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' self efficacy toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience in the future.	IV - Self-efficacy, DV - Intended participation	IV: Self-efficacy - a person's judgments of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations.	IV: Self-efficacy - potential volunteer tourists' judgments of how well they can execute courses of action required to deal with a volunteer tourism experience in the future – (three items) "Over time, I have learned that I am able to overcome obstacles that I once found impossible." Responses: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = unsure, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree.
Hypothesis 4: There is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' motivation toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience in the future.	IV - Motivation, DV - Intended participation	IV: Motivation - A dynamic process of internal psychological factors (needs and wants) that generate a state of tension or disequilibrium within individual.	IV: Motivation - A dynamic process of internal psychological needs and wants that generate a state of tension or disequilibrium within potential volunteer tourists – (30 items) "Having fun." Responses: 1 = <i>very unimportant</i> , 2 = <i>unimportant</i> , 3 = <i>unsure</i> , 4 = <i>important</i> , 5 = <i>very important</i> .

Hypotheses	Concept Names	Theoretical Definition	Operational Definition
Hypothesis 5: The relationship between attitudes and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.	IV – Attitudes DV – Intended Participation Moderator – Past Volunteer Tourism Experience	A person’s knowledge of or skill in or observation of volunteer tourism gained through previous experience.	Moderator – past volunteer tourism experience. Responses: 0 = <i>never participated in a volunteer tourism experience</i> , 1 = <i>more than once volunteer tourism experience</i> .
Hypothesis 6: The relationship between subjective norms and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.	IV – Subjective Norms DV – Intended Participation Moderator – Past Volunteer Tourism Experience	A person’s knowledge of or skill in or observation of volunteer tourism gained through previous experience.	Moderator – past volunteer tourism experience. Responses: 0 = <i>never participated in a volunteer tourism experience</i> , 1 = <i>more than once volunteer tourism experience</i> .

Hypotheses	Concept Names	Theoretical Definition	Operational Definition
Hypothesis 7: The relationship between self-efficacy and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.	IV – Self-Efficacy DV – Intended Participation Moderator – Past Volunteer Tourism Experience	A person’s knowledge of or skill in or observation of volunteer tourism gained through previous experience.	Moderator – past volunteer tourism experience. Responses: 0 = <i>never participated in a volunteer tourism experience</i> , 1 = <i>more than once volunteer tourism experience</i> .
Hypothesis 8: The relationship between motivation and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.	IV – Motivation DV – Intended Participation Moderator – Past Volunteer Tourism Experience	A person’s knowledge of or skill in or observation of volunteer tourism gained through previous experience.	Moderator – past volunteer tourism experience. Responses: 0 = <i>never participated in a volunteer tourism experience</i> , 1 = <i>more than once volunteer tourism experience</i> .

## Statistical Analysis of the Study

This present study employed four statistical analysis techniques, including factor analysis, Pearson correlation, structural equation modeling, and hierarchical multiple regression analysis. All have been commonly used in the study of tourism in general (Li, 2009; Phillips, 2009; Watanakamolchai, 2008). Specifically, this framework has been utilized by Phillips (2009) in her work focusing on senior citizens' gaming intention using past gaming experience as a moderating effect between TPB model. The first phase employed factor analysis to reduce the number of items used to measure the study constructs, including attitudes, subjective norms, self-efficacy and motivation. The second technique used bivariate correlations to examine the extent to which identified factors are related one another. The third phase used structural equation modeling (SEM) to test how and in what ways all of the four predicting variables affect the dependent variable. In other words, study hypotheses 1, 2, 3 and 4 are tested using SEM. Finally, hierarchical multiple regression analysis is used to test study hypotheses 5, 6, 7, and 8 in regard to the moderating effect of past volunteer tourism experience. The following is justification for the use of the statistical analyses selected for the study.

### Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is an interdependence technique, which examines the underlying dimensions among the variables being analyzed (Li, 2009; Phillips, 2009; Watanakamolchai, 2008). Factor analysis plays a great role in underlying structures prior to using multivariate techniques. Factor analysis provides a way to analyze the

interrelationships among a large number of variables by defining sets of interrelated variables (Hair et al., 2005). In order to run factor analysis, there are four considerations: the unit of analysis, data summarization, variable selection, and using factor analysis results with other multivariable techniques. First, the unit of analysis provides underlying structures that are interrelated between the variables, and/or the correlations between the respondents. Second, factor analysis provides data reduction by identifying representative variables from the original set variables, which then creates a new set of variables. Third, variable selection should be based on theoretical underpinnings of the variables that represent derived dimensions. Fourth, factor analysis is a starting point for many other multivariate techniques. For instance, each construct in this study consists of a number of variables. By using factor analysis, those numbers of individual variables can be reduced into underlying dimensions.

### Bivariate Correlations

Pearson correlation analysis is the most widely used technique to examine the relationship between variables (Zikmund, 2005). It has been utilized in tourism research that targets the relationship between variables prior to using SEM (Li, 2009; Phillips, 2009; Wattanakamolchai, 2008). In other words, this study looks to examine the relationship between the four study constructs, including attitudes, subjective norms, self-efficacy, and motivation and intended participation. Pearson correlation coefficient ranges from plus and minus 1. Therefore, correlation coefficient of +1 indicates a perfect

positive relationship and -1 implies a perfect negative relationship. In other words, the larger the correlation coefficient is, the greater the relationship between the variables.

## Structural Equation Modeling

Factor analysis and bivariate correlations provide the foundation for structural equation modeling (SEM), which is a statistical technique that tests and examines a series of dependence relationships simultaneously, as is the case with this study. SEM is used to test the causal relationship between the four predictors – attitudes, subjective norms, self-efficacy, and motivation – and the study dependent construct, intended participation. For this study, hypotheses 1, 2, 3, and 4 are tested using SEM. In using SEM, there are two components: 1) the measurement model and 2) the structural equation model. The following sections discuss the measurement model and structural equation modeling.

### Measurement model

The measurement model is tested using confirmatory factor analysis, which specifies the relationship of the observed indicators to the latent constructs (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

In order to test the relationships of the indicators to each construct, first-order and second-order confirmatory factor analyses were employed. The first-order confirmatory factor analysis considers all of individual raw item indicators to test overall model fit, while the second-order confirmatory factor analysis considers factors derived from the

original raw items indicators to test overall model fit. In other words, the second-order confirmatory factor analysis tests how well each of the original indicators tested in the first-order confirmatory factor analysis are represented in the second-order confirmatory factor analysis (Arnau & Thompson, 2000; Watanakamolchai, 2008). Hence, this study uses first-order confirmatory factor analysis on all 51 items (nine items for attitudes, four items for subjective norms, three items for self efficacy, thirty items for motivation and five items for intended participation) and second-order confirmatory factor analysis tests three constructs that generated more than two underlying factors (three factors for attitudes, six factors for motivation and two factors for intended participation).

### Structural Model

Unlike the measurement model that examines indicators to each construct, the structural model is the hypothetical model that examines the magnitude of the relationships between constructs. This statistical method provides parameter values (path coefficients) for each of study hypotheses while presenting standard errors and calculated t-values (Byrne, 2001; Hair et al., 2005). The structural model is employed to test the path coefficient of relationship between the four exogenous constructs (attitudes, subjective norms, self efficacy, and motivation) and the endogenous construct (intended participation). Structural equation modeling using maximum likelihood (ML) is used to estimate the model. Maximum likelihood method is one of the most prevalent methods and it is considered efficient, unbiased, and robust when the assumption of multivariate normality is met and there is small sample size (Hair et al., 2005; Klein & Moosbrugger,

2000; Muthen & Muthen, 2003). In addition, the structural model needs to be examined with the standardized solution, which indicates that the estimated coefficients have equal variances and a maximum value of 1.0 (Hair et al., 1998).

### Assessing Structural Modeling Fit

With the measurement model specified, structural model validity is assessed using various model fit indices. Generally, there are three groups of overall model fit measures used to assess the measurement and structural model, including absolute fit measures (AFM), incremental fit measures (IFM), and parsimonious fit measures (PFM) (Hair et al., 2005).

Absolute fit measures (AFM) are used to evaluate how well an a priori theoretical model fits the sample data. Under the AFM, there are several fit indices used to measure model fit. First, the chi-square statistic measures whether differences exist between the observed and estimated covariance matrices with a statistically significant level ( $p < .05$ ). In SEM, no differences between matrices are desired to support the model. However, the chi-square statistic is very sensitive to sample size (Hair et al., 2005). Second, goodness-of-fit (GFI) is less sensitive to sample size. The possible range of GFI values is 0 to 1 with higher values indicating better fit. Third, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) provides how well a model fits a population, not just a study sample. RMSEA is one of the most popular fit indices used to estimate the model due to its insensitivity to sample size and robustness that does not require comparison with a null model. There is

good model fit if RMSEA is less than .05 and an adequate fit indicates between .05 and .08.

Incremental fit measures (IFM) assess how well a specified model fits relative to some alternative baseline model. There are several common fit indices used to assess the model fit in IFM, including normed fit index (NFI), comparative fit index (CFI), and tucker lewis index (TLI). NFI is a ratio of the difference in the chi-square for the fitted model and a null model divided by the chi-square value for the null model. It ranges from 0 to 1, indicating above .95 good fit and between .90 and .95 acceptable (Hair et al., 2005). CFI is another version of the normed fit index (NFI) and is least affected by sample size. CFI ranges from 0 to 1; a value close to 1 indicates a good fit. In general, CFI is considered good fit if it is greater than .90 (Hair et al., 2005; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). TLI is not normed and its values can fall below 0 or above 1. In general, models with good fit have values that are close to 1.

Parsimony fit measures (PFM) provide information about which model amongst a set of competing models is better and whether its fit measure could be improved by a simpler model. Under PFM, there are two common fit indices, including parsimony goodness-of-index (PGFI) and parsimony normed fit index (PNFI). PGFI adjusts the GFI. It ranges from 0 to 1. PGFI compares a model and provides a better model with a higher PGFI preferable based on the combination of fit. PNFI adjusts the NFI and indicates better fit if its value is close to 1.

While there are various model fit indices used to estimate the model (Table 3.7), it is important to note that there are no generally agreed guidelines that provide the best fit over various model estimations. Therefore, Hair et al. (2005) suggested that researchers

should be cautious when selecting the best fit. It was found that academic journals in this field considered a .90 value on key fit indices, including CFI, NFI, or GFI as an acceptable model fit indices and .80 or below on RMSEA as an acceptable model fit (Hair et al., 2005). Hair et al. (2005) suggested that modification may not be the best way to increase model fit indices when there are mixed model fit indices, because excessive model modification may complicate the model and sometimes lose important measurement indicators. Therefore, these will be the parameters of this study as well.

Table 3.7 Model Fit Indices for Structural Equation Modeling

Fit Indices	Cutoff Values
<b><i>Absolute Fit Measure (AFM)</i></b>	
Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) goodness-of-fit statistic with associated p value	p>.05
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	>.90 is a good fit
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	<=.08 is an acceptable fit; <=.06 is a good fit
<b><i>Incremental Fit Measure (IFM)</i></b>	
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	>.90 is an adequate fit; >.95 is a good fit
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	
<b><i>Parsimonious Fit Measure (PFM)</i></b>	
Parsimony Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI) Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	>.90 is a good fit

## Reliability and Validity

Reliability and validity are two major essential elements in the measurement of constructs. Reliability deals with the consistency of a set of measurement. In other words, reliability describes how consistently similar measurement generates similar results (Zikmund, 2005). Hence, the higher reliability indicates that the measurement has greater consistency with less error values. Internal consistency can be assessed by Cronbach's alpha. A Cronbach's alpha of .70 or higher is considered moderately reliable (Nunnally, 1978). In structural equation modeling (SEM), the internal consistency can be checked using composite reliability developed by Fornell and Larcker (1981).

Validity refers to how well the measurement represents what it is supposed to. The assessment of content validity is an important step when utilizing relatively untested items on a survey instrument. There are three major types of validity: content/face validity, criterion validity, and construct validity (convergent and discriminant validity).

According to Zikmund (2005), content validity refers to "the subjective agreement among professionals that a scale logically appears to reflect accurately what it purports to measure" (p. 302). Hinkin, Rracey and Enz (1997) suggested that newly produced measurement items can be assessed for content validity using experts. Informed experts were asked to review the untested items in this study. After conducting this assessment, any misleading, incorrect or irrelevant items were deleted or refined. Next, the refined study items were pretested using a student convenience sample. The purpose of the pretest was to examine if the respondents had difficulty understanding the questionnaire, or if the questions appear to be biased. As a result of the content validity assessment and pretest, the survey instrument for this study ultimately consisted of seven

items for intention, eleven items for attitudes, four items for subjective norms, three items for self-efficacy, thirty-four items for motivation, and one item for past volunteer tourism experience.

Convergent validity refers to the degree to which a measure is similar to other measures that theoretically should be similar to. It can be assessed using confirmatory factor analysis by estimating t-tests of factor loadings. If all factor loadings for each indicator in the same construct are significant, convergent validity is supported (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

Discriminant validity describes the degree to which a measure is not similar to theoretically dissimilar measures. This can be assessed using confirmatory factor analysis by comparing the variance-extracted percentages for any two constructs, with the square of the correlation estimate between the two constructs (Fornell & Larker, 1981).

### Sample Size and Assumption Test

SEM in general requires a large sample size (more than 200) to achieve a desired level of statistical power (Garver & Mentzer, 1999). However, some researchers argue that sample size may not be as vital as number of indicators; the number of indicators should be more than three to achieve a statistical power (Gerbing & Anderson, 1985). By convention, there should be more than three indicators due to the degrees of freedom and parameters. For example, when self-efficacy is measured using three indicators, the degrees of freedom and parameters are six respectively. Self-efficacy becomes saturated ( $df = 6$  and parameters = 6 becomes 0). However, if a construct is measured using less

than three indicators, it cannot be measured correctly. Therefore, each construct that has more than three indicators and more than a sample size of 200 can be considered appropriate to run data analysis. As this study has a sample size of 291, and each construct has more than three indicators, it does not violate sample size.

In order to run SEM, the most important assumption test is normality. To assess the normality of the distribution of the data, the skewness and kurtosis of each variable need to be examined. The critical value for normality is drawn from a z distribution. In part of running SEM, the SPSS file imported in SEM generates skewness and kurtosis values for each of the variables in the model. The guidelines for estimating normality of skewness and kurtosis values are  $\pm 2$  (Hair et al., 2005). This study tested normality of the data prior to running SEM and found a relative multivariate Kurtosis of 1.139 values. In addition, SEM is an extension of regression analysis. Hence, linearity, the degree to which change in the dependent variable is associated with the independent variables, is critical to examine the relationship between dependent and independent variables. Linearity of the relationship can be examined through scatter plots (Figure, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7). The scatter plots indicate that assumptions are met.

Figure 3.1 Scatter Plot of Intended Participation (Left) and Attitudes (Right)

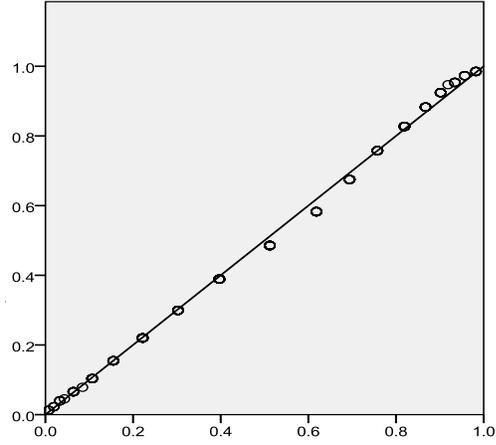
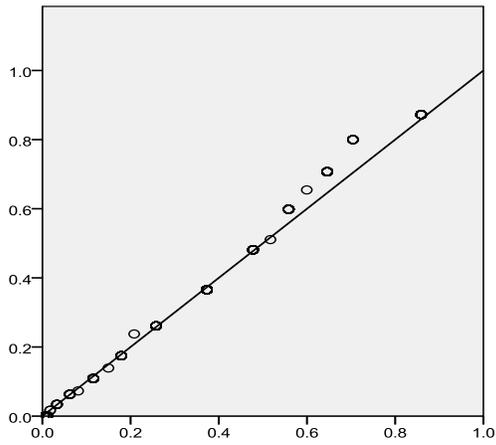


Figure 3.2 Scatter Plot of Subjective Norms (Left) and Self-Efficacy (Right)

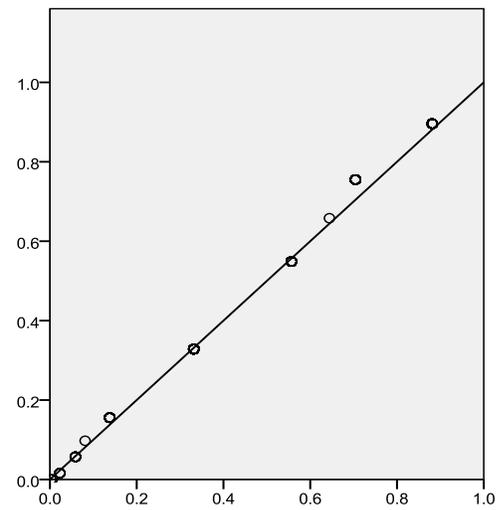
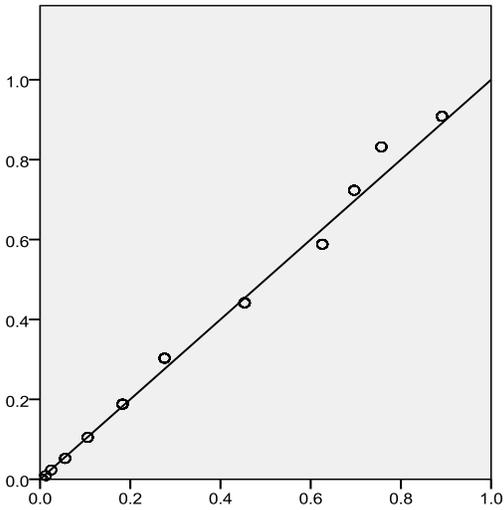
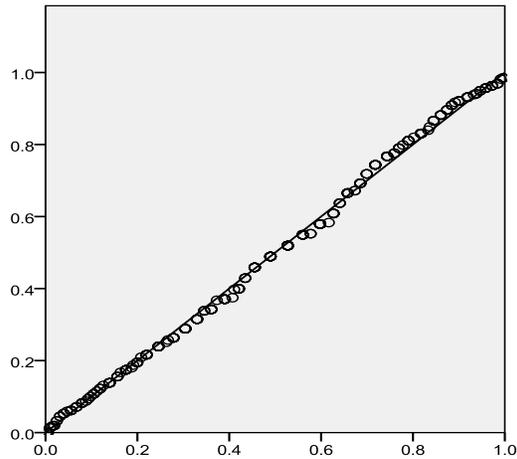


Figure 3.3 Scatter Plot of Motivation



### Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

Hierarchical multiple regression is the most widely used statistical technique to estimate moderating effects (Cohen & Cohen, 1983; Li, 2009; Phillips & Jang, 2007). Hierarchical multiple regression analysis can detect the moderating effects for moderator variables that examine the relationship between two variables on both continuous and dichotomous scales (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Unlike multiple regression analysis that examines all of the independent variables together in the model in relation to a dependent variable, hierarchical multiple regression analysis examines the gradual importance of each of the independent variables in the model. The hierarchical multiple regression procedure is an alternative to comparing betas ( $\beta$ ) for the purpose of assessing the importance of the independent variables.

The evaluation of hierarchical multiple regression analysis can be assessed by examining the R-square change ( $R^2$ ). For example, if the  $R^2$  changes after adding the new

moderating variable, it means that there is a moderating effect. In other words, this study used hierarchical multiple regression analysis to examine the presence of moderating effects of past volunteer tourism experience on the study independent variables, including attitudes, subjective norms, self-efficacy, and motivation, toward intended participation in volunteer tourism.

The procedure of hierarchical multiple regression is followed in this study by 1) entering all independent variables and a moderating variable (past volunteer tourism experience) together in the model as a first step, and 2) entering a new moderating variable in the model as a second step.

Hypothesis five (the relationship between attitudes and intended participation is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience) was examined by 1) entering attitudes and past volunteer tourism experience in the model to test their main effect and 2) entering a new moderating variable (attitudes \* past volunteer tourism experience) in the model as a second step to test for the possible interaction effect.

Hypothesis six (the relationship between subjective norms and intended participation is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience) was also examined by 1) entering subjective norms and past volunteer tourism experience into the model to test their main effect and 2) entering a new moderating variable (subjective norms \* past volunteer tourism experience) in the model as a second step to test for the interaction effect.

Hypothesis seven (the relationship between self-efficacy and intended participation is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience) was tested by 1)

entering self-efficacy and past volunteer tourism experience in the first step to test for the main effect and 2) entering a new moderating variable (self-efficacy \* past volunteer tourism experience) in the model as a second step to test for the interaction effect.

Hypothesis eight (the relationship between motivation and intended participation is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience) was also tested using hierarchical multiple regression analysis. In the first step, both motivation and past volunteer tourism experience are entered in the model to investigate if there is a main effect. Once the main effect is examined, then a new moderating variable (motivation \* past volunteer tourism experience) is entered in the model.

For each of hypotheses five to eight, if the R-square changes and is statistically significant, a moderating effect exists.

## Summary

Chapter three outlined the research design for the study. It discusses the various methodological considerations for this study. The survey instrument and then data collection procedures were described. Next, measurement variables were explained as well as in-depth discussion of each of the independent, dependent, and moderating variables. Finally, the data analysis techniques, including factor analysis, Pearson correlation, structural equation modeling, and hierarchical multiple regression analysis used to test the study hypotheses are described. In addition, reliability, validity, sample size, and assumption tests are also discussed.

## **CHAPTER IV**

### **RESULTS**

#### Introduction

This chapter discusses the results of the data analysis and hypothesis testing. The first section discusses the pretest results. The second section describes the demographic profiles, followed by the data analysis, and concludes with a discussion of the tests of the hypotheses.

#### Pretest

Prior to the final survey, it was necessary to conduct a pretest of measurement scales. The purpose of a pretest was to validate the measurement items to be used in the study. The pretest provides the final examination of whether the developed measurement items are appropriate for the study.

An extensive literature review generated eleven items to measure attitudes, four items to measure subjective norms, three items to measure self-efficacy, thirty four items to measure motivation, and five items to measure potential volunteer tourists' intended participation. In addition, the moderating variable (past volunteer tourism experience) was measured using one single categorical item.

These measurement items were submitted to four volunteer tourism experts and four professors, including three professors in tourism and one in agriculture, for the

assessment of content validity. The reviewers were asked to provide comments on content and also asked to edit the items to enhance their clarity and understandability. After testing for content validity, the refined measurement items revealed that five items for intended participation, nine items for attitudes, four items for subjective norms, three items for self efficacy and thirty items for motivation retained to use pretest with undergraduate students.

### Pretest Survey Method

The pretest was conducted using a convenience sample. The refined measurement questionnaire was distributed using an online survey method (surveymonkey.com) to an online class. The pretest questionnaire was accessible for ten days and was completed by 180 students. These responses were analyzed to test the reliability of the measurement items of the study. In addition, this stage of pretest helped to develop the final version of the survey instrument.

In order to test reliability, an exploratory factor analysis with a principal component method and varimax rotation was conducted for each construct. The principal component method is a method of data reduction. This method is useful to reduce a number of variables to a few principal components, thus making its interpretation easier and more reliable (Thurstone, 1947). The varimax rotation method is the most widely used rotational method and maximizes the variance of the squared loadings of a factor and helps to identify each variable with a single factor (Abdi, 2003). For these reasons, factor analysis with a principal component method and varimax rotation method was

applied to each of the study constructs. The resulting factor loadings were examined first. According to Hair, et al., (2006), factor loadings are dependent upon the sample size. The guidelines for identifying significant factor loadings for a sample size similar to this study (between 150 and 200) are .40 and .45. For this study, the higher factor loadings were chosen to ensure statistical rigor and significance.

In addition, several other important components of the factor analysis, including the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity were examined. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) tests whether the partial correlations between items are small. Bartlett's test of sphericity measures whether the correlation matrix is appropriate for the study. Small values of the KMO indicate that the correlations between items are weak. So, large values (above .50) are recommended. Bartlett's test of sphericity is used to test the null hypothesis that the items in the population are not correlated. For example, if the hypothesis is rejected (less than Sig. value of .05), factor analysis will be appropriate for the study. Throughout this study, constructs measured with multiple items will be tested using Bartlett's test of Sphericity in order to determine whether the partial correlations between items exist.

## Intended Participation

The dependent variable for this study, *Intended participation*, was measured using five items. Factor analysis resulted in one single unidimensional factor with all items loading greater than .45 (Table 4.1). The value of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy test (KMO) revealed an acceptable range of .796, well above the recommended minimum of .50 (Hair, et al., 2006) with a significance level of .000 in Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. The five items within the single factor were also tested for reliability using the reliability coefficient. The reliability coefficient for these five items was .888, well above the recommended minimum of .60. (Neal, Uysal, & Sirgy, 2007). As a result, all five items were retained for the final version of the study questionnaire.

Table 4.1 Pretest Factor Analysis of Intended Participation

INTENTION			
	Factor Loadings	Reliability	Variance Explained
I want to participate in a volunteer tourism experience.	0.869	0.888	69.20%
I intend to participate in a volunteer tourism experience.	0.867		
I am interested in participating in a volunteer tourism experience.	0.861		
I will recommend participation in a volunteer tourism experience to others	0.796		
I will encourage others to participate in a volunteer tourism experience.	0.761		

## Attitudes

The variable attitude was measured using 11 items. Factor analysis resulted in three factors of nine items after eliminating two low loading items (less than .45). The overall Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy test (KMO) on the remaining attitudinal items were in the acceptable range of .772, well above the recommended minimum of .50, with a significance level of .000. The nine items in the three factors were tested for reliability. The value of reliability for the three factors ranged from .721 to .801 (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2 Pretest Factor Analysis of Attitudes

ATTITUDES			
	Factor Loadings	Reliability	Variance Explained
Service			
... serve other people	0.845	0.801	70.20%
... serve the environment	0.784		
... learn to appreciate other cultures	0.691		
... support a cause or issue	0.662		
Share			
... share a skill that I have	0.873	0.748	
... share knowledge that I have	0.858		
... learn a skill	0.537		
Learning			
... learn a language	0.866	0.721	
... conduct a research project	0.838		

## Subjective Norms

Subjective norms were measured using four items. The factor analysis revealed one single factor with all items loaded greater than .45. The single factor was acceptable with a value of .731 (KMO) at the significance level of .000. The reliability of subjective norms was .816 (Table 4.3). As a result, all four items were retained for the final version of the survey questionnaire.

Table 4.3 Pretest Factor Analysis of Subjective Norms

SUBJECTIVE NORMS			
	Factor Loadings	Reliability	Variance Explained
Other relatives who are important to me would encourage my participation in a volunteer tourism experience.	0.882	0.816	64.90%
My immediate family members who are important to me would encourage my participation in a volunteer tourism experience.	0.828		
Friends who are important to me would encourage my participation in a volunteer tourism experience.	0.786		
Coworkers who are important to me would encourage my participation in a volunteer tourism experience.	0.72		

## Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy was measured using three items. The factor analysis revealed a single factor with all items loading greater than .45. The value of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy test (KMO) was .670 at the significance level of .000 using Bartlett's test. Reliability statistics for self-efficacy were found to be in an acceptable range of .716 (Table 4.4). As a result, all three items were included in the final version of the study questionnaire.

Table 4.4 Pretest Factor Analysis of Self-Efficacy

SELF-EFFICACY			
	Factor Loadings	Reliability	Variance Explained
... I feel more competent in everyday life	0.829	0.716	63.90%
... I look forward to future challenges	0.801		
... I am able to overcome obstacles that I once found impossible	0.767		

## Motivation

Motivation was measured using 34 items. The factor analysis resulted in seven factors. As a result of the factor analysis, four items were deleted due to 1) low loadings and 2) a single loading item. The seven factors with remaining 30 items revealed that the overall value of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy test (KMO) was .823 at the significance level of .000 in Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. The reliability statistics for the seven factors ranged from .644 to .846 (Table 4.5). As a result, 30 of the 34 items were retained for the final version of the study questionnaire.

Table 4.5 Pretest Factor Analysis of Motivation

	Factor Loadings	Reliability	Variance Explained
<b>Self-development</b>			
to meet the local people	0.757	0.844	63.80%
to be with people from different cultures	0.750		
to learn new things	0.718		
to learn about other people	0.690		
to develop a relationship with other volunteer tourists	0.580		
to be adventurous	0.537		
<b>Altruism</b>			
to make a difference	0.781	0.846	
to give something back	0.764		
to help others	0.714		
to do something meaningful	0.651		
to combine a love of travel with a desire to give back	0.649		
to experience peace	0.574		
<b>Self-fulfillment</b>			
to travel	0.748	0.668	
to have a good time	0.596		
to develop my knowledge of the destination	0.589		
to develop my career	0.547		
to develop my personal interests	0.503		
<b>Escape</b>			
to be away from everyday stress	0.660	0.682	
to do something new and different	0.644		
to take part in a rare opportunity	0.632		
to be away from daily routine	0.496		

Table 4.5 Pretest Factor Analysis of Motivation (Continued)

	Factor Loadings	Reliability	Variance Explained
<b>Values</b>			
to think about personal values	0.727	0.714	
to experience the challenge of the task	0.722		
to work with an organization whose mission I support	0.665		
<b>Autonomy</b>			
to be independent	0.798	0.771	
to fulfill a dream	0.723		
to become immersed in the local culture	0.591		
<b>Relationship</b>			
to strengthen my family relationship	0.884	0.644	
to strengthen my relationships with friends	0.812		
to have an opportunity to educate my children	0.479		

#### Summary of the Pretest

The pretest used a convenience sample of undergraduate students to examine the developed measurement items for the study constructs: intended participation, attitudes, subjective norms, self-efficacy, motivation, and past volunteer tourism experience. The constructs were examined for reliability (Chronbach alpha) and the results of the pretest were tested using exploratory factor analysis and. Most of the pretest items seen in the tables above were in an acceptable range in terms of reliability coefficient (above .60) and factor loadings (above .45). Those that were not met with the cut-off value were eliminated with volunteer tourism experts' further review. The variables in each construct

accounted for an acceptable range of variance (above .60). The retained variables in each construct were once again reviewed by volunteer tourism experts as a final verification before distribution to the actual survey participants.

## Results of the Final Survey

### Descriptive Statistics for the Study

Invitation emails were sent to three different volunteer tourism organizations: First Methodist Church Global Outreach, United Planet, and Voluntourism.org. While the exact numbers cannot be determined, it is estimated that two to three thousand potential respondents were contacted via email (two volunteer tourism organizations were unsure of exact number of listserv, with approximately between 200 and 500 from First Methodist Church Global Outreach, over 2000 from United Planet, and 600 from VolunTourism.org). A total of 356 online surveys were obtained: 55 from First Methodist Church Global Outreach, 109 from United Planet, and 192 from VolunTourism.org. Out of 356 responses, incomplete and outlier samples were eliminated, resulting in 291 usable responses for the study. Given the fact that three different organizations were merged as one sample, it was important to test for dis-similarity between the groups. To do this, the socio-demographic profiles for each group were compared, including gender, education, occupation, income, and age. Study participants' socio-demographic profiles were not significantly different from each other (Table 4.6). It is important to note that while income, at first glance may appear significantly different across the organizations, it is

important to note that sample size across the three groups are not equal. For example, in terms of income variable, UMC has a sample size of 24, United Planets has a sample size of 46, and VolunTourism.org has a sample size of 106. As a result, this may enhance minor differences between groups. The researcher feels that the data collected from the three sample groups are similar enough to be used in aggregate.

Table 4.6 Characteristics of the Three Sample Groups

	UMC Frequency	United Planet Frequency	VolunTourism Frequency	Sig.
Gender				0.879
Female	24	51	119	
Male	9	15	37	
Education				0.094
Less than associate degree/no diploma	10	12	51	
Associate degree to graduate/professional degree	23	54	106	
Occupation				0.997
Non-academic groups	15	33	79	
Academic groups	11	25	60	
Income	Mean	Mean	Mean	Sig.
	\$43000	\$58721	\$67871	0.136
Age	Mean	Mean	Mean	
	1974	1974	1976	0.590

\*Gender, Education, Occupation tested with Chi-Square, while Income and Age tested with t-test

Table 4.7 displays the characteristics of the study participants, including gender, age, education, occupation, and income. In terms of gender, the majority of the study participants were female (76%). Education of the study participants was relatively

equally distributed over three groups, including college degree (38.3%), graduate or professional degree (33.2%), and some college with no degree (23.8%). Occupation of the study participants varied. The majority of them were students (21.6%), followed by professional/technical (17.3%), then educators (13.3%). As to age, most of the study participants were 21-30 years old (44%), followed by 31-40 years old (19.1%), then 41-50 (11.5%) and 51-60 (11.5%). Income of the study participants varied, including \$40,001 to \$75,000 (31.3%), followed by more than \$75,001 (26.7%), then US\$20,000 or less (21.0%), and \$20,001 to \$40,000 (21.0%). Overall, socio-demographic results of this study reflected previous volunteer tourism research in the area of gender (Brown & Morrison, 2003; McGehee, 2002), age (Coghlan, 2008; McIntosh & Zahra, 2007; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004), education (McGehee, 2002; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004), and occupation (Brown & Morrison, 2003; Coghlan, 2008; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004).

Table 4.7 Characteristics of Study Participants

	Frequency	Valid Percent
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	61	23.9
Female	194	76.1
Total	255	100
Missing	36	
<b>Education</b>		
High school	12	4.7
Some college, no diploma	61	23.8
College degree	98	38.3
Graduate or professional degree	85	33.2
Total	256	100
Missing	35	
<b>Occupation</b>		
Homemaker	8	3.1
Executive administrator	11	4.3
Laborer	2	0.8
Educator	35	13.7
Retired	7	2.7
Sales/marketing	17	6.7
Student	55	21.6
Post student gap year	7	2.7
Professional/technical	54	21.1
Self employed/business owner	12	4.7
Middle management	18	7.1
Service	20	7.8
Unemployed	8	3.1
Total	255	100.0
Missing	36	

Table 4.7 Characteristics of Study Participants (Continued)

	Frequency	Valid Percent
<b>Age</b>		
Older than 61 years old	13	6.2
51 to 60 years old	24	11.5
41 to 50 years old	24	11.5
31 to 40 years old	40	19.1
21 to 30 years old	92	44.0
Less than 20 years old	16	7.7
Total	209	100
Missing	82	
<b>Income</b>		
Less than \$20,000	37	21.0
\$20,001 to \$40,000	37	21.0
\$40,001 to \$75,000	55	31.3
More than \$75,001	47	26.7
Total	176	100
Missing	115	

#### Factor Analysis of the Constructs

An exploratory factor analysis with principal factor extraction and varimax rotation method was used to test reliability and examine the relationship between the observed variables. In addition, factor analysis explored the underlying dimensions of each construct.

## Intention

The study dependent variable, intended participation, was measured using five items. Factor analysis with principal factor extraction and varimax rotation method resulted in two factors with high loadings ranging from .842 to .936. Those two factors had high reliability .892 and .926, respectively (Table 4.8) and together explained 88.3% of the variance.

Table 4.8 Factor Analysis of Intended Participation

	Factor Loadings	Reliability	Variance Explained
<b>Intention</b>			
I am interested in participating in a volunteer tourism experience.	0.911	0.842	88.31%
I want to participate in a volunteer tourism experience.	0.906		
I intend to participate in a volunteer tourism experience.	0.842		
<b>Recommendation</b>			
I will recommend participation in a volunteer tourism experience to others	0.936	0.926	
I will encourage others to participate in a volunteer tourism experience.	0.924		

\*all items were measured by five point Likert scale, 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree.

## Attitudes

Nine attitudinal items were factor analyzed with principal extraction method and varimax rotation. All nine items were retained, resulting in three factors. The value of reliability for the three factors ranged from .601 to .865, which is within the acceptable range. All three factors explained 62% of the variance (Table 4.9).

Table 4.9 Factor Analysis of Attitudes

ATTITUDES			
	Factor Loadings	Reliability	Variance Explained
<b>Learning</b>			
... conduct a research project	0.778	0.642	61.94%
... learn a language	0.730		
... learn a skill	0.614		
... serve the environment	0.561		
<b>Service</b>			
... serve other people	0.798	0.601	
... learn to appreciate other cultures	0.665		
... support a cause or issue	0.635		
<b>Share</b>			
... share knowledge that I have	0.921	0.865	
... share a skill that I have	0.912		

\*all items were measured by five point Likert scale, 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree.

## Subjective Norms

Subjective norms were measured by using four variables. Factor analysis with principal extraction method and varimax rotation resulted in a one-dimensional variable (Table 4.10). The value of reliability for subjective norms was .846. The variable accounted for 68.6% of the variance.

Table 4.10 Factor Analysis of Subjective Norms

	Factor Loadings	Reliability	Variance Explained
Other relatives who are important to me would encourage my participation in a volunteer tourism experience.	0.891	0.846	68.61%
Coworkers who are important to me would encourage my participation in a volunteer tourism experience.	0.833		
My immediate family members who are important to me would encourage my participation in a volunteer tourism experience.	0.797		
Friends who are important to me would encourage my participation in a volunteer tourism experience.	0.788		

\*all items were measured by five point Likert scale, 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree.

## Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy was measured using three items. The three items were factor analyzed with principal extraction and varimax rotation method. All of the three items were retained and resulted in a one-dimensional factor (Table 4.11). The one factor accounted for 66.87% of the variance with an acceptable level of reliability (.752).

Table 4.11 Factor Analysis of Self-Efficacy

	Factor Loadings	Reliability	Variance Explained
... I am able to overcome obstacles that I once found impossible	0.834	0.752	66.87%
... I look forward to future challenges	0.812		
... I feel more competent in everyday life	0.807		

\*all items were measured by five point Likert scale, 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree.

## Motivation

Motivation for this study was measured using 30 variables. These variables were factor analyzed with principal extraction and varimax rotation method (Table 4.12). As a result, all 30 variables were retained and transformed into six motivational factors, accounting for 63% of the variance. The value of reliability of the six factors ranged from .722 to .888, which was in the acceptable range.

Table 4.12 Factor Analysis of Motivation

	Factor Loadings	Reliability	Variance Explained
Autonomy		0.841	62.93%
to be independent	0.741		
to experience the challenge of the task	0.706		
to think about personal values	0.676		
to do something new and different	0.623		
to be adventurous	0.577		
to fulfill a dream	0.574		
to develop my career	0.457		
Curiosity		0.888	
to meet the local people	0.839		
to be with people from different cultures	0.829		
to become immersed in the local culture	0.784		
to learn about other people	0.723		
to learn new things	0.683		
Altruism		0.842	
to make a difference	0.824		
to do something meaningful	0.739		
to help others	0.721		
to give something back	0.686		
to work with an organization whose mission I support	0.553		
to take part in a rare opportunity	0.513		
to combine a love of travel with a desire to give back	0.512		
Escape		0.724	
to be away from everyday stress	0.843		
to have a good time	0.627		
to be away from daily routine	0.605		
to experience peace	0.55		
to develop my personal interests	0.501		

Table 4.12 Factor Analysis of Motivation (Continued)

	Factor Loadings	Reliability	Variance Explained
Relationship		0.722	
to strengthen my family relationship	0.86		
to have an opportunity to educate my children	0.803		
to strengthen my relationships with friends	0.797		
to develop a relationship with other voluntourists	0.409		
Self-fulfillment		0.726	
to travel	0.732		
to develop my knowledge of the destination	0.676		

\*all items were measured by five point Likert scale, 1 = not important at all, 5 = very important.

### Correlation Analysis

A correlation measures the strength of the relationship between variables. Wu et al. (2008) argued that correlations should be employed prior to running structural equation modeling to examine whether there is a relationship between variables. Correlation analysis not only depicts how constructs in the model are related, but also examines if the relationships amongst the constructs are overly correlated (multicollinearity). In addition, using correlation enhances structural equation modeling (Hair et al., 2005). Two correlation analyses were examined. Table 4.13 demonstrates that each sub dimension and each construct were somewhat correlated with one another.

Table 4.13 Correlation of Study between Independent and Dependent Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Intention	1												
2. Recommend	.000	1											
3. Learning	.154**	.066	1										
4. Service	.206**	.286**	.000	1									
5. Share	.115	.214**	.000	.000	1								
6. Norms	.164**	.287**	.093	.298**	.082	1							
7. Efficacy	.187**	.287**	.102	.281**	.262**	.383**	1						
8. Autonomy	.115	.060	.320**	.077	.059	.023	.154*	1					
9. Curiosity	.235**	.238**	.246**	.260**	.125*	.202**	.268**	.000	1				
10. Altruism	.119	.200**	-.090	.499**	.147*	.269**	.188**	.000	.000	1			
11. Escape	.023	.051	.270**	.119	-.132*	.062	-.074	.000	.000	.000	1		
12. Relationship	-.111	.167**	.131*	.111	.063	.075	-.011	.000	.000	.000	.000	1	
13. Travel	-.003	.038	.129*	-.028	-.044	.009	.006	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	1

Table 4.13 Correlation of Study between Independent and Dependent Variables

(Continued)

Variable	N	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Intended Participation	283	4.23	.675				
2. Attitude	287	4.01	.453	.428**			
3. Subjective Norms	286	4.10	.677	.320**	.275**		
4. Self-Efficacy	289	4.26	.588	.335*	.372**	.383**	
5. Motivation	258	4.04	.440	.334**	.525**	.262**	.216**

Note: \*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level, \*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

#### First-Order Measurement Model

A first-order measurement model using all 51 original items as indicators was used to test whether each indicator fits well within each construct. In this process, factors derived from multiple variables used to measure each construct were treated as latent variables (Figure 4.1).

Prior to evaluating the structural model as a whole, individual indicator parameters in the model should be estimated. Table 4.14 presents the unstandardized parameter estimates for the first-order measurement model. There are three columns of information for each observed indicator. The first column represents the lambda estimate, the second column in the parentheses refers to the standard error, and the third column

describes the t-value. In order for indicators in the measurement model to be acceptable, t-value associated with each latent variable must be larger than 1.96 at the 0.05 significance level (Yoon, Gursoy, Chen, 2001). Indicators in the model appeared to be statistically significant and they are all retained for the second-order measurement model.

Next, the measurement model was assessed using its various fit indices. As discussed in the method section, there are three groups of overall model fit measures used to assess the measurement model and structural model: absolute fit measures, incremental fit measures, and parsimonious fit measures. According to several authors (Hall, Snell, & Foust, 1999; Hu & Bentler, 1998), various model fit indices are affected by a number of items for factors, sample size, and number of parameters, but RMSEA (a form of absolute fit) amongst the various model fit indices is not affected by any of the model parameters examined in the study. This study utilizes all the various model fit indices to estimate the study model. Therefore, table 4.15 summarizes the fit indices for the measurement model. In sum, the fit indices appear to be adequately acceptable.

Figure 4.1 First-Order Measurement Model

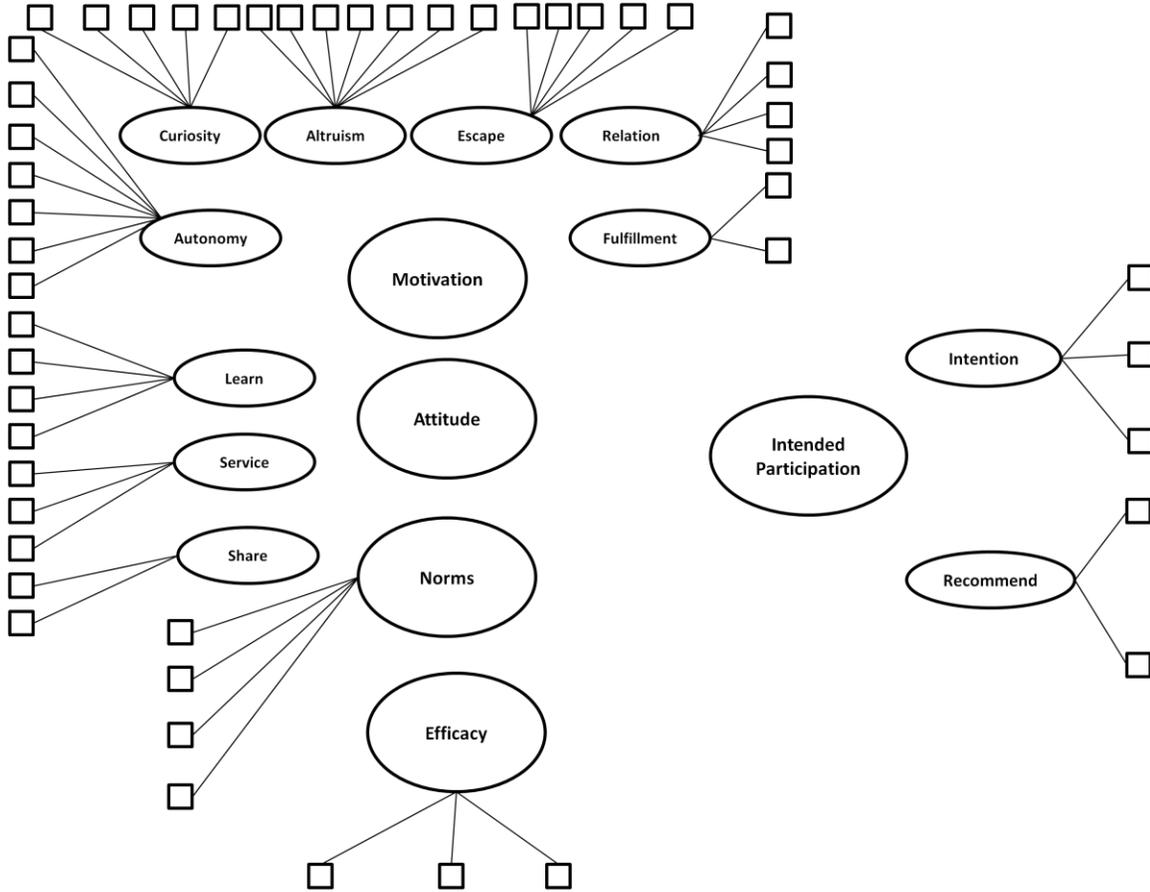


Table 4.14 Parameter Estimates for the First-Order Measurement Model

Motivation												
	Autonomy		Curiosity		Altruism		Escape		Relationship		Self-Fulfillment	
m14												
m15	1.05	(0.11)	9.68									
m16	0.86	(0.10)	9.03									
m23	1.16	(0.13)	8.83									
m24	1.38	(0.13)	10.32									
m25	0.92	(0.10)	9.68									
m27	1.20	(0.15)	7.86									
m6												
m11				1.63	(0.13)	12.71						
m12				0.91	(0.09)	9.99						
m13				1.35	(0.10)	12.86						
m22				1.35	(0.12)	11.17						
m7												
m17							1.06	(0.16)	6.70			
m18							1.41	(0.17)	8.33			
m19							1.06	(0.11)	9.49			
m20							1.39	(0.13)	10.45			
m21							1.29	(0.15)	8.78			
m26							1.31	(0.14)	9.66			
m1												
m8										1.15	(0.19)	5.93
m9										1.56	(0.22)	7.05
m10										1.81	(0.27)	6.76
m30										1.70	(0.24)	7.06

\*the first column represents the path coefficient, the numbers in parentheses denote standard errors, and the last column describes t-values.

Table 4.14 Parameter Estimates for the First-Order Measurement Model (continued)

	Motivation			Attitudes			Subjective Norms		
	Relationship	Self-Fulfillment	Learn	Service	Share	Subjective Norms			
m2									
m3	1.02	(0.13)	7.99						
m4	0.80	(0.09)	8.60						
m5	0.49	(0.08)	5.97						
m28									
m29		0.76	(0.09)	8.46					
att3									
att5				1.23	(0.14)	8.80			
att6				0.99	(0.16)	6.12			
att9				0.77	(0.12)	6.23			
att4									
att7					1.36	(0.20)	6.68		
att8					1.50	(0.20)	7.56		
att1									
att2						1.05	(0.10)	10.06	
sub1									
sub2								1.23	(0.09) 13.31
sub3								0.76	(0.08) 9.72
sub4								1.00	(0.09) 10.88

\*the first column represents the path coefficient, the numbers in parentheses denote standard errors, and the last column describes t-values.

Table 4.14 Parameter Estimates for the First-Order Measurement Model (continued)

	Self efficacy			Intended Participation		
	Self efficacy			Intention		Recommendation
se1						
se2	0.85	(0.10)	8.65			
se3	0.94	(0.11)	8.75			
int1						
int2				1.23	(0.06)	21.65
int3				1.31	(0.08)	16.11
int4						
int5						0.91 (0.05) 18.90

\*the first column represents the path coefficient, the numbers in parentheses denote standard errors, and the last column describes t-values.

Table 4.15 Fit Indices for the First-Order Measurement Model

Fit Indices	Model	Cutoff Values
<b><i>Absolute Fit Measure (AFM)</i></b>		
Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) goodness-of-fit statistic with associated p value	$\chi^2=2143.33$ ( $df=1142$ , $p=0.000$ )	$p>.05$
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	0.76	<.90 is a poor fit
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.055	$\leq .08$ is an acceptable fit; $\leq .06$ is a good fit
<b><i>Incremental Fit Measure (IFM)</i></b>		
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.88	$>.90$ is an adequate fit; $>.95$ is a good fit
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.93	
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.94	
<b><i>Parsimonious Fit Measure (PFM)</i></b>		
Parsimony Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI)	0.65	<.90 is a poor fit
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.79	

## Second-Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis

A second-order measurement model was evaluated using 11 factors generated from the original measurement variables. In this stage, the 11 factors derived from three constructs – three factors from attitudes, six factors from motivation, and two factors from intended participation – were used as indicators to evaluate the measurement model (Figure 4.2). The second-order measurement model was estimated using its parameter estimates, the standard error, and the t-value. Table 4.16 displayed that all indicators used to estimate the second-order measurement model turned out to be statistically significant. They are included for structural equation modeling analysis, which tests the study hypotheses.

Next, the measurement model was evaluated using its various model fit indices. Three groups of model fit measures were used to evaluate the measurement model: absolute fit measures, incremental fit measures, and parsimonious fit measures. As mentioned earlier in the first-order measurement model, RMSEA is the most consistent model fit index that is not affected by various external factors such as a number of items for factors, sample size, and number of parameters. Table 4.17 displayed the second-order measurement model fit indices and showed that fit indices overall turned out to be adequately acceptable.

Table 4.16 Parameter Estimates for the Second-Order Measurement Model

	Motivation											
	Autonomy		Curiosity		Altruism		Escape		Relation-ship		Self-Fulfillment	
m14												
m15	1.01	(0.10)	9.87									
m16	0.85	(0.09)	9.35									
m23	1.11	(0.13)	8.90									
m24	1.33	(0.13)	10.52									
m25	0.89	(0.09)	9.80									
m27	1.13	(0.15)	7.77									
m6												
m11				1.64	(0.13)	12.66						
m12				0.91	(0.09)	9.96						
m13				1.35	(0.11)	12.73						
m22				1.36	(0.12)	11.11						
m7												
m17							1.12	(0.17)	6.70			
m18							1.51	(0.18)	8.33			
m19							1.06	(0.12)	8.86			
m20							1.42	(0.14)	9.91			
m21							1.39	(0.16)	8.75			
m26							1.28	(0.14)	8.90			
m1												
m8										1.31	(0.22)	6.04
m9										1.61	(0.24)	6.65
m10										1.90	(0.29)	6.47
m30										1.63	(0.25)	6.45

\*the first column represents the path coefficient, the numbers in parentheses denote standard errors, and the last column describes t-values.

Table 4.16 Parameter Estimates for the Second-Order Measurement Model (continued)

	Motivation			Attitudes		
	Relation-ship	Self-Fulfillment	Learn	Service	Share	
m2						
m3	0.95	(0.15)	6.38			
m4	0.79	(0.09)	8.50			
m5	0.49	(0.08)	5.89			
m28						
m29		0.96	(0.12)	7.84		
att3						
att5			1.32	(0.16)	8.21	
att6			0.99	(0.17)	5.73	
att9			0.80	(0.13)	6.00	
att4						
att7				1.29	(0.20)	6.37
att8				1.26	(0.19)	6.62
att1						
att2						0.99 (0.13) 7.77

\*the first column represents the path coefficient, the numbers in parentheses denote standard errors, and the last column describes t-values.

Table 4.16 Parameter Estimates for the Second-Order Measurement Model (continued)

	Subjective Norms		Self efficacy		Intended Participation	
	Subjective Norms		Self efficacy		Intention	Recommendation
sub1						
sub2	1.22	(0.09)	13.04			
sub3	0.76	(0.08)	9.79			
sub4	1.01	(0.09)	10.92			
se1						
se2			0.84	(0.10)	8.41	
se3			0.95	(0.11)	8.57	
int1					1.24	(0.06)
int2					21.50	
int3					1.31	(0.08)
int4					16.03	
int5						1.31 (0.08) 16.03

\*the first column represents the path coefficient, the numbers in parentheses denote standard errors, and the last column describes t-values.

Table 4.16 Parameter Estimates for the Second-Order Measurement Model (continued)

	Motivation	Attitudes	Intended Participation
Autonomy			
Curiosity	0.48 (0.07)	6.85	
Altruism	0.45 (0.06)	6.95	
Escape	0.53 (0.09)	5.78	
Relationship	0.64 (0.14)	4.41	
Self Fulfillment	0.91 (0.13)	6.96	
Learn			
Service		0.82 (0.13)	6.08
Share		0.73 (0.15)	4.78
Intention			
Recommendation			1.97 (0.30) 6.55

\*the first column represents the path coefficient, the numbers in parentheses denote standard errors, and the last column describes t-values.

Figure 4.2 Second Order Measurement Model

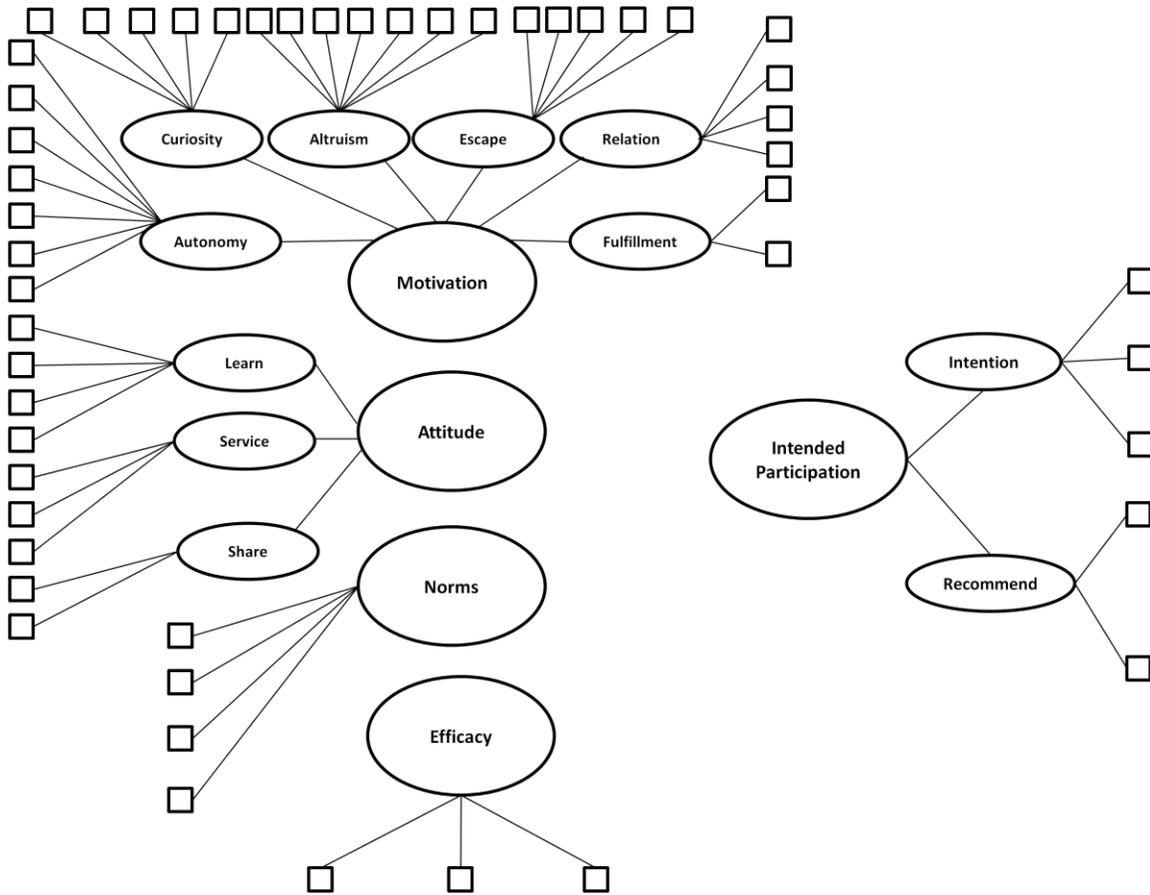


Table 4.17 Fit Indices for the Second-Order Measurement Model

Fit Indices	Model	Cutoff Values
<b><i>Absolute Fit Measure (AFM)</i></b>		
Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) goodness-of-fit statistic with associated p value	$\chi^2=2377.75$ ( $df=1199$ , $p=0.000$ )	$p>.05$
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	0.72	<.90 is a poor fit
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.064	$\leq .08$ is an acceptable fit; $\leq .06$ is a good fit
<b><i>Incremental Fit Measure (IFM)</i></b>		
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.87	$>.90$ is an adequate fit; $>.95$ is a good fit
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.93	
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.93	
<b><i>Parsimonious Fit Measure (PFM)</i></b>		
Parsimony Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI)	0.65	<.90 is a poor fit
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.82	

## Convergent Validity and Discriminant Validity

Whenever a measurement model is tested and evaluated, both convergent validity and discriminant validity should be examined (Hair et al., 2005). For this study, convergent validity was assessed by examining the factor loadings estimates and composite reliability which should be equal to or greater than 0.70. Table 4.14 and table 4.16 (first and second-order measurement parameter estimates, respectively) display the loading estimates and their t-values. Loading estimates that are significant (larger than 1.96 of t-value at the 0.05 significance level) indicate that convergent validity of the measurement model is met. Also composite reliability shows that convergent validity is met (Table 4.18). As noted earlier in the second-order measurement model, all indicators were highly significant at the 0.05 (above 1.96 of t-value) significance level. In addition, the average variance extracted (AVE) estimates can be another way to examine convergent validity. Table 4.18 displayed that all indicators exceeded the 50 percent rule of thumb (Fornell & Larker, 1981). Therefore, all the indicators are retained as adequate evidence of convergent validity exists.

Next, discriminant validity was assessed by comparing the average variance extracted (AVE) estimates for each factor with the squared interconstruct correlations associated with that factor (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Fornell & Larker, 1981). Table 4.18 showed that all squared correlations between each pair of constructs were less than the average variance extracted (AVE) estimates. In other words, sufficient evidence of discriminant validity is provided.

Table 4.18 Correlations, Square Correlations, Convergent Validity and Discriminant Validity

Correlations Among Latent Constructs (Squared Correlation)													
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1 Autonomy	1.00												
2 Curiosity	0.56** (0.31)	1.00											
3 Altruism	0.63** (0.40)	0.45** (0.20)	1.00										
4 Escape	0.63** (0.40)	0.45** (0.20)	0.50** (0.25)	1.00									
5 Relation	0.33** (0.11)	0.23** (0.05)	0.26** (0.07)	0.26** (0.07)	1.00								
6 Fulfillment	0.64** (0.41)	0.45** (0.20)	0.51** (0.26)	0.51** (0.26)	0.27** (0.07)	1.00							
7 Learn	0.53** (0.28)	0.38** (0.14)	0.43** (0.18)	0.43** (0.18)	0.22** (0.05)	0.44** (0.19)	1.00						
8 Service	0.59** (0.35)	0.42** (0.18)	0.48** (0.23)	0.47** (0.22)	0.25** (0.06)	0.48** (0.23)	0.68** (0.46)	1.00					
9 Share	0.30** (0.09)	0.21** (0.04)	0.24** (0.06)	0.24** (0.06)	0.12** (0.01)	0.25** (0.06)	0.34** (0.12)	0.38** (0.14)	1.00				
10 Norm	0.22** (0.05)	0.15** (0.02)	0.18** (0.03)	0.17** (0.03)	0.09** (0.01)	0.18** (0.03)	0.25** (0.06)	0.27** (0.07)	0.14** (0.02)	1.00			
11 Efficacy	0.27** (0.07)	0.19** (0.04)	0.22** (0.05)	0.22** (0.05)	0.11** (0.01)	0.22** (0.05)	0.40** (0.16)	0.44** (0.19)	0.22** (0.05)	0.43** (0.18)	1.00		
12 Intention	0.26** (0.07)	0.18** (0.03)	0.21** (0.04)	0.21** (0.04)	0.11** (0.01)	0.21** (0.04)	0.34** (0.12)	0.38** (0.14)	0.19** (0.04)	0.29** (0.08)	0.27** (0.07)	1.00	
13 Recommend	0.33** (0.11)	0.23** (0.05)	0.26** (0.07)	0.26** (0.07)	0.14** (0.02)	0.27** (0.07)	0.43** (0.23)	0.48** (0.23)	0.24** (0.06)	0.36** (0.13)	0.35** (0.12)	0.54** (0.29)	1.00
Cronbach's Alphas	0.64	0.60	0.87	0.85	0.75	0.84	0.89	0.84	0.72	0.72	0.73	0.84	0.93
Composite Reliability	0.68	0.75	0.93	0.90	0.86	0.86	0.96	0.93	0.76	0.71	0.75	0.94	0.94
AVE	0.42	0.50	0.86	0.69	0.66	0.48	0.83	0.67	0.39	0.39	0.60	0.83	0.89

Table 4.18 Correlations, Square Correlations, Convergent Validity and Discriminant Validity (continued)

Construct	Intended Participation	Attitude	Subjective Norms	Self Efficacy	Motivation
Intended Participation	1.00				
Attitude	0.67** (0.45)	1.00			
Subjective Norms	0.44** (0.19)	0.32** (0.10)	1.00		
Self-Efficacy	0.42** (0.18)	0.51** (0.26)	0.43** (0.18)	1.00	
Motivation	0.45** (0.20)	0.77** (0.59)	0.25** (0.06)	0.31** (0.10)	1.00
Cronbach's Alpha	0.87	0.73	0.85	0.75	0.90
Composite Reliability	0.83	0.91	0.90	0.86	0.93
AVE	0.72	0.78	0.69	0.66	0.71

#### Test of the Theory of Planned Behavior

In order to test the first study research question, which questions if the theory of planned behavior (TPB) with the three original components – attitudes, subjective norms, and self efficacy – affects future intended participation in volunteer tourism, structural equation modeling was used. The measurement model and structural model were employed to evaluate the TPB. First, the measurement model (Figure 4.3) was evaluated using various model fit indices. Table 4.19 displays the measurement model fit indices and demonstrates good fit ( $\chi^2 = 306.45$ ,  $df = 178$ , RMSEA = 0.052, CFI = 0.97, NFI = 0.93, GFI = 0.90). Structural equation modeling was then used to test the three components of theory of planned behavior and showed good fit as well ( $\chi^2 = 306.45$ ,  $df =$

178, RMSEA = 0.052, CFI = 0.97, NFI = 0.93, GFI = 0.90) (Table 4.20). However, table 4.21 demonstrates that the two components were statistically non-significant. The t-values show that the attitudes component is the only component that exceeded the significant t-values of 1.96 ( $\beta = 0.36$ , t-value = 4.00). Subjective norms ( $\beta = 0.11$ , t-value = 1.45), and self-efficacy ( $\beta = 0.10$ , t-value = 1.10) did not exceed the significant t-value of 1.96.

Figure 4.3 Theory of Planned Behavior

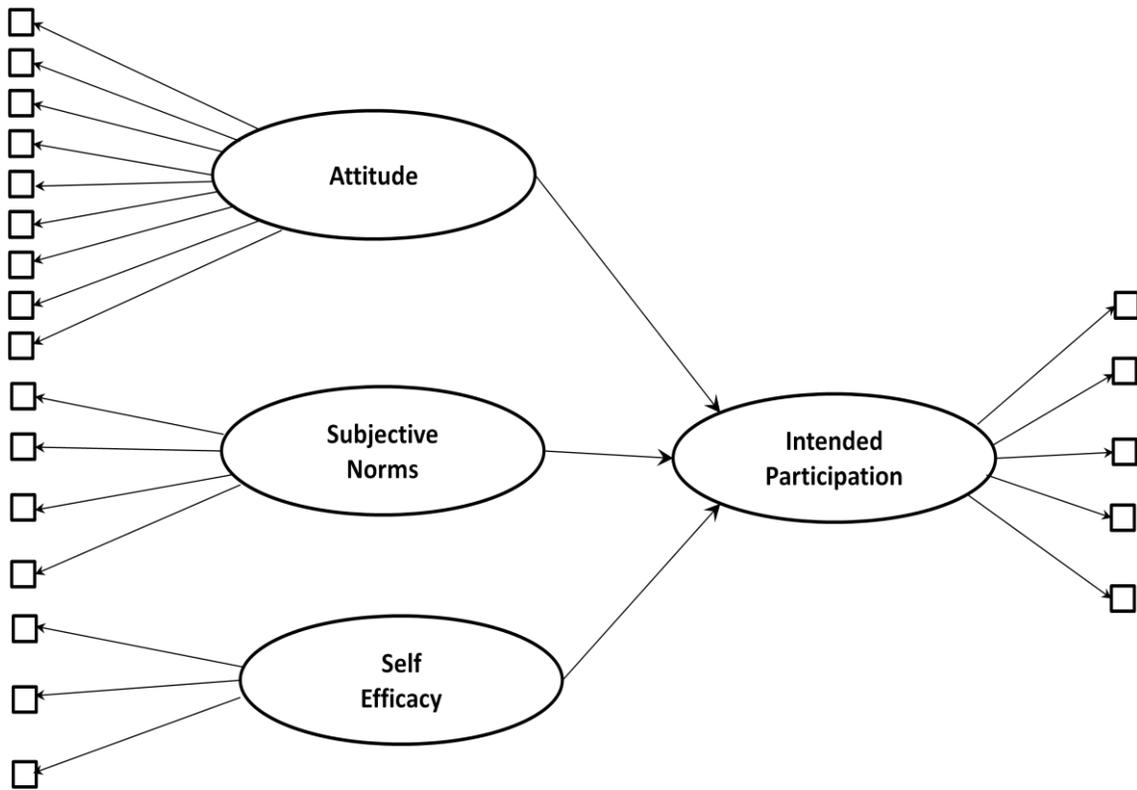


Table 4.19 Measurement Model of Theory of Planned Behavior Fit Indices

Fit Indices	Model	Cutoff Values
<b><i>Absolute Fit Measure (AFM)</i></b>		
Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) goodness-of-fit statistic with associated p value	$\chi^2=306.45$ ( $df=178$ , $p=0.000$ )	$p>.05$
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	0.90	<.90 is a poor fit
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.052	$\leq .08$ is an acceptable fit; $\leq .06$ is a good fit
<b><i>Incremental Fit Measure (IFM)</i></b>		
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.93	$>.90$ is an adequate fit; $>.95$ is a good fit
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.96	
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.97	
<b><i>Parsimonious Fit Measure (PFM)</i></b>		
Parsimony Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI)	0.70	<.90 is a poor fit
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.79	

Table 4.20 Structural Model of Theory of Planned Behavior Fit Indices

Fit Indices	Model	Cutoff Values
<b><i>Absolute Fit Measure (AFM)</i></b>		
Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) goodness-of-fit statistic with associated p value	$\chi^2=306.45$ ( $df=178$ , $p=0.000$ )	$p>.05$
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	0.90	<.90 is a poor fit
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.052	$\leq .08$ is an acceptable fit; $\leq .06$ is a good fit
<b><i>Incremental Fit Measure (IFM)</i></b>		
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.93	$>.90$ is an adequate fit; $>.95$ is a good fit
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.96	
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.97	
<b><i>Parsimonious Fit Measure (PFM)</i></b>		
Parsimony Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI)	0.70	<.90 is a poor fit
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.79	

Table 4.21 Path Coefficient Estimates, Standard Error, and T-Values of TPB.

	Attitudes	Subjective Norms	Self Efficacy
Intention	0.45**	0.12	0.10
	(0.11)	(0.09)	(0.09)
	4.00	1.45	1.10

RMSEA = 0.052 NFI = 0.93; NNFI = 0.96; CFI = 0.97;  $\chi^2 = 306.45$

Note: The first row represents the standardized path coefficient, the parentheses value of the second row describes the standard error, and the third row denotes the t-value.

\*\*denotes the 0.01 significance level.

## Structural Model for Testing Study Hypotheses 1 through 4

A structural model was estimated to test study hypotheses 1 through 4 for this study (Figure 4.4), which target the relationship between intended participation in volunteer tourism and attitudes, subjective norms, self-efficacy (the TPB variables), and motivation. The structural model was examined using various model fit indices (Table 4.22). The results showed the goodness-of-fit indices ( $\chi^2 = 2377.75$ ,  $p = 0.00$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 1.98$ , RMSEA = 0.064, NFI = 0.87, NNFI = 0.93, CFI = 0.93) have met an adequate level.

Study hypotheses 1, 2, 3, and 4 were tested by examining t-values associated with the path coefficients (Table 4.23). If the t-value is greater than 1.96 (at the 0.05 significance level), the significant relationship between constructs exists. The results indicated that attitudes ( $\beta = 0.71$ , t-value = 2.66) and subjective norms ( $\beta = 0.16$ , t-value = 2.77) exceeded the significance level, while self efficacy ( $\beta = 0.00$ , t-value = 0.03) and motivation ( $\beta = -0.12$ , t-value = -0.85) did not. In other words, by examining the t-values of 1.96 or above for each construct in the model, study hypothesis 1 (there is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' attitudes and their intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience) and study hypothesis 2 (there is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' subjective norms and their intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience) were supported. Conversely, study hypothesis 3 (there is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' self efficacy and their intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience) and study hypothesis 4 (there is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists'

motivation and their participation in a volunteer tourism experience) were not supported. T-values of study hypotheses 3 and 4 did not exceed the significance level of 1.96.

In addition, in order to compare this study with that of previous tourism research which utilized the theory of planned behavior, effect size was computed as part of the testing of hypotheses one, two, and three. An effect size test of motivation was not examined in this study because motivation is not part of TPB model. As discussed in the literature review, an effect size provides objectivity of the research and primary information about the relationships between variables. Cohen's effect size ( $f^2$ ), most commonly used, was applied. Cohen's  $f^2$  is an appropriate effect size measure to use with correlation coefficients. The  $f^2$  effect size measure for a correlation coefficient is defined as: Cohen's  $f^2 = R^2/1-R^2$ , where  $R^2$  is the value of the squared correlation coefficient. Cohen's guidelines for the social sciences in relation to the effect size are followed by: small effect size ( $\rho = 0.1 - 0.23$ ), medium ( $\rho = 0.24 - 0.36$ ), and large ( $\rho = 0.37$  or larger).

In relation to hypothesis one, the effect size of attitudes in terms of intended participation was .78, indicating that 78% of the variance in the model was explained by attitudes. Therefore the effect size was large. The effect size of subjective norms was .25, indicating that 25% of the variance in the model was accounted for by subjective norms, which is a medium effect size. An effect size of self-efficacy was also acquired by using Cohen's  $f^2$ , resulted in .20, indicating that 20% of the variance in the model was explained by self-efficacy, which is a small effect size. Again, an effect size examination was conducted using the three original TPB variables (attitudes, subjective norms, and self-efficacy). In other words, an effect size test of motivation is not relevant to this study because not only motivation is not part of TPB model but also motivation has not been

examined along with the three original components of TPB model. Therefore, motivation was not tested for its effect size in this study.

Figure 4.4 Structural Model

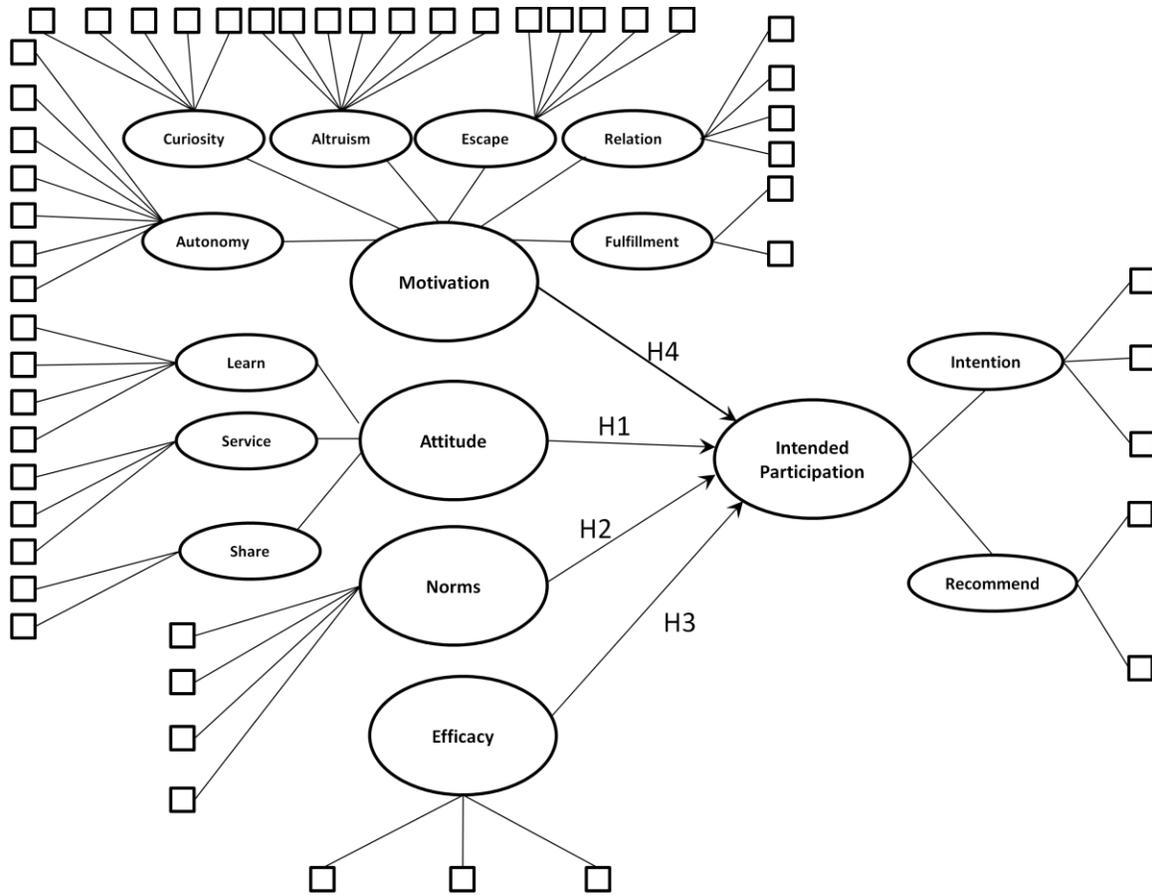


Table 4.22 Fit Indices for the Structural Model

Fit Indices	Model	Cutoff Values
<b><i>Absolute Fit Measure (AFM)</i></b>		
Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) goodness-of-fit statistic with associated p value	$\chi^2=2377.75$ ( $df=1199$ , $p=0.000$ )	$p>.05$
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	0.72	<.90 is a poor fit
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.064	$\leq .08$ is an acceptable fit; $\leq .06$ is a good fit
<b><i>Incremental Fit Measure (IFM)</i></b>		
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.87	$>.90$ is an adequate fit; $>.95$ is a good fit
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.93	
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.93	
<b><i>Parsimonious Fit Measure (PFM)</i></b>		
Parsimony Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI)	0.65	<.90 is a poor fit
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.82	

Table 4.23 Path Coefficient Estimates, Standard Error, and T-Values

	Attitudes	Subjective Norms	Self Efficacy	Motivation
Intended	0.71**	0.16**	0.00	-0.12
Participation	(0.27)	(0.06)	(0.08)	(0.14)
	2.66	2.77	0.03	-0.85

Note: The first row represents the standardized path coefficient, the parentheses value of the second row describes the standard error, and the third row denotes the t-value.

\*\*denotes the 0.01 significance level.

## A Moderating Effect Test Using Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

Hierarchical multiple regression is the most widely used and accepted statistical technique for testing a moderating (interaction) effect (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Cohen & Cohen, 1983; Hair, et al., 2005). This component of the study tested for the moderating effect of past volunteer tourism experience between the predicting variables (attitudes, subjective norms, self-efficacy, and motivation) and intended participation in volunteer tourism in the future. In other words, does past experience in a volunteer tourism activity strengthen the effect of the predicting variables?

Past volunteer tourism experience was measured by an open-ended question: “How many volunteer tourism experiences have you taken?” The responses were organized into a categorical variable to test for a moderating effect. The main reasons to use a categorical variable instead of a continuous variable for testing a moderating effect are convenience and clarity (Hair, et al., 2005). A continuous variable for the moderating effect is often difficult to interpret, while a categorical variable provides a much clearer interpretation. Out of 291 usable responses, 276 study participants answered the question. About 55% of them had never participated in a volunteer tourism experience, while 45% had experienced volunteer tourism in the past (Table 4.24).

In order to test the study hypothesis, people who have never participated in a volunteer tourism experience were coded as “0” and people who have participated at least once in a volunteer tourism experience were coded as “1” in the model (Table 4.25).

Table 4.24 Past Volunteer Tourism Experience

Frequency	Number of Responses	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	159	54.6	57.6	57.6
1	57	19.6	20.7	78.3
2	20	6.9	7.2	85.5
3	9	3.1	3.3	88.8
4	7	2.4	2.5	91.3
5	8	2.7	2.9	94.2
6	3	1.0	1.1	95.3
7	1	.3	.4	95.7
10	1	.3	.4	96.0
11	1	.3	.4	96.4
12	2	.7	.7	97.1
15	1	.3	.4	97.5
20	2	.7	.7	98.2
25	1	.3	.4	98.6
30	1	.3	.4	98.9
40	2	.7	.7	99.6
48	1	.3	.4	100.0
Total	276	94.8	100.0	
Missing	15	5.2		
Total	291	100.0		

Table 4.25 Categorized Past Volunteer Tourism Experience

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	159	54.6	57.6	57.6
1	117	40.2	42.4	100.0
Total	276	94.8	100.0	
Missing	15	5.2		
Total	291	100.0		

\*0 indicates no volunteer tourism experience, \*1 indicates at least one or more volunteer tourism experience.

The moderating test was conducted as follows: 1) past volunteer tourism experience was entered in the hierarchical regression model to test the main effect between each of the four predicting variables and intended participation, 2) the moderating variable was then entered as a second step. The moderating effect was tested by observing whether the R-Square ( $R^2$ ) change was significant. If the  $R^2$  change was significant, it indicated that past volunteer tourism experience had a moderating effect.

Hypothesis five, six, seven and eight were tested using hierarchical multiple regression analysis to examine a moderating effect of past volunteer tourism experience over the four predicting variables – attitude, subjective norms, self-efficacy, and motivation – toward the study dependent variable, volunteer tourists' intended participation in volunteer tourism in the future. Hypothesis five, six and seven did not reveal a significant moderating effect over the three original components of the TPB, including attitudes, subjective norms and self-efficacy toward intended participation in volunteer tourism in the future. However, hypothesis eight was found to have a moderating effect in a negative direction. Hypotheses five to eight are discussed below.

## Hypothesis 5

H 5: The relationship between attitudes and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.

In order to test a moderating effect of past volunteer tourism experience between attitudes and intended participation, hierarchical multiple regression analysis was employed. As noted earlier in terms of the procedure of testing the moderating effect, both attitudes and past volunteer tourism experience were included in the model first to examine if the two variables have a main effect. It was found that the two variables have a main effect [(adjusted  $R^2 = .200$ ,  $F[2, 264] = 34.160$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $p = .000$ ), but a newly created moderating variable (attitudes \* past volunteer tourism experience) did not increase the predictive power of the regression model (adjusted  $R^2 = .204$ ,  $F[3, 263] = 23.774$ ,  $p > .05$ ,  $p = .109$ ) (Table 4.26). Thus, study hypothesis five was not supported.

Table 4.26 Moderating Effect of Attitudes and Past Volunteer Tourism Experience

Variables	R Square	Adjusted R Square	$\Delta$ R Square	Unstandardized coefficient		Standardized coefficient		
				B	Std. error	Beta	t-value	Sig.
Attitudes				0.605	0.083	0.494	7.275	
Past Experience	0.206	0.200		0.215	0.078	0.151	2.753	0.000
Attitudes * Past Experience			0.008	-.231	0.141	-0.109	-1.609	0.109

## Hypothesis 6

H 6: The relationship between subjective norms and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.

Hypothesis six was also examined using hierarchical multiple regression analysis. Both subjective norms and past volunteer tourism experience were included in the model to examine whether the two variables had a main effect. It was found that the two variables did in fact have a main effect (adjusted  $R^2 = .114$ ,  $F[2, 263] = 18.092$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $p = .000$ ), but a new moderating variable (subjective norms \* past volunteer tourism experience) did not change the significance of the R-square, nor did it contribute to increasing the predictive power of the regression model (adjusted  $R^2 = .111$ ,  $F[3, 262] = 12.067$ ,  $p > .05$ ,  $p = .713$ ) (Table 4.27). Thus, hypothesis six was not supported.

Table 4.27 Moderating Effect of Subjective Norms and Past Volunteer Tourism Experience

Variables	R Square	Adjusted R Square	$\Delta$ R Square	Unstandardized coefficient		Standardized coefficient		Sig.
				B	Std. error	Beta	t-value	
Subjective Norms	0.121	0.114		0.212	0.052	0.299	4.073	0.000
Past Experience				0.192	0.083	0.135	2.323	
Subjective Norms * Past Experience			0.000	0.032	0.088	0.027	0.368	0.713

## Hypothesis 7

Hypothesis 7: The relationship between self-efficacy and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.

The moderating effect of past volunteer tourism experience over self-efficacy toward intended participation was tested using hierarchical multiple regression analysis. Both self-efficacy and past volunteer tourism experience were included in the model. The model indicated that self-efficacy did play a significant role in the model when past volunteer tourism experience was entered. In other words, there is a main effect of past volunteer tourism experience in the model (Adjusted  $R^2 = .118$ ,  $F[2, 266] = 19.007$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $p = .000$ ), but a new moderating variable (self-efficacy \* past volunteer tourism experience) did not change the significance of the R-square, nor did it contribute to increasing the predictive power of the regression model (adjusted  $R^2 = .116$ ,  $F[3, 265] = 12.779$ ,  $p > .05$ ,  $p = .524$ ) (Table 4.28). Thus, hypothesis six was not supported.

Table 4.28 Moderating Effect of Self-Efficacy and Past Volunteer Tourism Experience

Variables	R Square	Adjusted R Square	$\Delta$ R Square	Unstandardized coefficient		Standardized coefficient		Sig.
				B	Std. error	Beta	t-value	
Self Efficacy	0.125	0.118		0.249	0.051	0.352	4.855	0.000
Past Experience				0.164	0.082	0.115	1.987	
Self Efficacy * Past Experience			0.001	-0.054	0.085	-0.046	-0.638	0.524

## Hypothesis 8

Hypothesis 8: The relationship between motivation and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.

Past volunteer tourism experience appeared to have a significant moderating effect between motivation and intended participation. In other words, when motivation and past volunteer tourism experience variables were in the model, the model indicates statistical significance (adjusted  $R^2 = .135$ ,  $F[2, 239] = 19.860$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $p = .000$ ) and interestingly, the model that included the moderating variable (motivation \* past volunteer tourism experience) increased the predictive power of the regression model by 1.4%, but in a negative way (adjusted  $R^2 = .146$ ,  $F[3, 238] = 14.769$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $p = .045$ ) (Table 4.29).

Table 4.29 Moderating Effect of Motivation and Past Volunteer Tourism Experience

Variables	R Square	Adjusted R Square	$\Delta$ R Square	Unstandardized coefficient		Standardized coefficient		Sig.
				B	Std. error	Beta	t-value	
Motivation	0.143	0.135		0.764	0.132	0.420	5.805	0.000
Past Experience				0.235	0.087	0.162	2.702	
Motivation * Past Experience			0.014	-0.470	0.233	-0.147	-2.019	0.045

In order to investigate the moderating effect of past volunteer tourism experience of the relationship between motivation and intended participation further, six motivation factors were individually tested using new moderating variables [past volunteer tourism experience \*(autonomy, curiosity, altruism, escape, relationship, and self-fulfillment)].

Table 4.30 depicts that there is a main effect when the motivation factor autonomy and past volunteer tourism experience were entered in the regression model (adjusted  $R^2 = .054$ ,  $F[2,239] = 7.933$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $p = .000$ ). However, when the moderating variable (autonomy\*past volunteer tourism experience) was entered in the next model, the moderating variable did not increase the predictive power of the regression model (adjusted  $R^2 = .051$ ,  $F[3,238] = 5.285$ ,  $p > .001$ ,  $p = .822$ ). Hence, there is no moderating effect of past volunteer tourism experience of the relationship between autonomy and intended participation.

Table 4.30 Moderating Effect of Motivation Factor Autonomy and Past Volunteer Tourism Experience

Variables	R Square	Adjusted R Square	$\Delta$ R Square	Unstandardized coefficient		Standardized coefficient		Sig.
				B	Std. error	Beta	t-value	
Autonomy	0.062	0.054	0.000	0.131	0.064	0.171	2.045	0.000
Past Experience				0.282	0.092	0.195	3.076	
Autonomy * Past Experience				0.022	0.098	0.019	0.225	0.822

Table 4.31 depicts that the motivation factor curiosity and past volunteer tourism experience have a main effect (adjusted  $R^2 = .117$ ,  $F[2,239] = 16.973$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .000$ ). When the moderating variable (curiosity\*past volunteer tourism experience) was entered in the next model, the moderating variable did not increase the predictive power of the regression model (adjusted  $R^2 = .116$ ,  $F[3,238] = 11.543$ ,  $p > .001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .397$ ). Therefore, there is no moderating effect of past volunteer tourism experience between curiosity and intended participation.

Table 4.31 Moderating Effect of Motivation Factor Curiosity and Past Volunteer Tourism Experience

Variables	R Square	Adjusted R Square	$\Delta$ R Square	Unstandardized coefficient		Standardized coefficient		Sig.
				B	Std. error	Beta	t-value	
Curiosity	0.124	0.117		0.261	0.057	0.350	4.579	0.000
Past Experience				0.199	0.089	0.137	2.238	
Curiosity * Past Experience			0.003	-0.080	0.095	-0.065	-0.849	0.397

Table 4.32 depicts that there is a main effect of the motivation factor altruism and past volunteer tourism experience (adjusted  $R^2 = .069$ ,  $F[2,239] = 9.914$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $p = .000$ ). When the moderating variable (altruism\*past volunteer tourism experience) was entered in the model, it increased the predictive power of the regression model in a negative direction (adjusted  $R^2 = .086$ ,  $F[3,238] = 8.583$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $p = .019$ ). In other words, there is a negative moderating effect of past volunteer tourism experience between altruism and intended participation in volunteer tourism.

Table 4.32 Moderating Effect of Motivation Factor Altruism and Past Volunteer Tourism Experience

Variables	R Square	Adjusted R Square	$\Delta$ R Square	Unstandardized coefficient		Standardized coefficient		Sig.
				B	Std. error	Beta	t-value	
Altruism	0.077	0.069		0.244	0.058	0.333	4.233	0.000
Past Experience				0.232	0.090	0.160	2.580	
Altruism * Past Experience			0.021	-0.220	0.094	-0.186	-2.355	0.019

Table 4.33 depicts that motivation factor escape has a main effect when both escape and past volunteer tourism experience were entered in the regression model (adjusted  $R^2 = .023$ ,  $F[2,239] = 3.806$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $p = .024$ ), but a moderating variable (escape\*past volunteer tourism experience) did not help increase the predictive power in the model (adjusted  $R^2 = .019$ ,  $F[3,238] = 2.528$ ,  $p > .05$ ,  $p = .952$ ). Hence, motivation factor escape was not supported.

Table 4.33 Moderating Effect of Motivation Factor Escape and Past Volunteer Tourism Experience

Variables	R Square	Adjusted R Square	$\Delta$ R Square	Unstandardized coefficient		Standardized coefficient		Sig.
				B	Std. error	Beta	t-value	
Escape	0.031	0.023	0.000	0.031	0.061	0.043	0.514	0.024
Past Experience				0.251	0.093	0.173	2.711	
Escape * Past Experience				0.006	0.095	-0.005	-0.060	

Table 4.34 depicts that motivation factor (relationship) does have a main effect when both relationship and past volunteer tourism experience were entered in the regression model (adjusted  $R^2 = .022$ ,  $F[2,239] = 3.733$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $p = .025$ ), but the moderating variable (relationship \* past volunteer tourism experience) did not increase the predictive power in the model (adjusted  $R^2 = .018$ ,  $F[3,238] = 2.479$ ,  $p > .05$ ,  $p = .993$ ). Hence, motivation relationship was not supported.

Table 4.34 Moderating Effect of Motivation Factor Relationship and Past Volunteer Tourism Experience

Variables	R Square	Adjusted R Square	$\Delta$ R Square	Unstandardized coefficient		Standardized coefficient		Sig.
				B	Std. error	Beta	t-value	
Relationship	0.030	0.022		0.023	0.059	0.032	0.390	0.025
Past Experience				0.246	0.093	0.169	2.650	
Relationship * Past Experience			0.000	0.000	0.094	0.000	-0.008	0.993

Table 4.35 depicts that motivation factor self-fulfillment has a main effect when both self-fulfillment and past volunteer tourism experience were entered in the regression model (adjusted  $R^2 = .021$ ,  $F[2,244] = 3.556$ ,  $p > .05$ ,  $p = .030$ ), but a newly moderating variable (self-fulfillment \* past volunteer tourism experience) did not contribute to increase the predictive power in the model (adjusted  $R^2 = .032$ ,  $F[3,243] = 5.848$ ,  $p > .05$ ,  $p = .099$ ). Thus, self-fulfillment was not supported.

Table 4.35 Moderating Effect of Motivation Factor Self-Fulfillment and Past Volunteer Tourism Experience

Variables	R Square	Adjusted R Square	$\Delta$ R Square	Unstandardized coefficient		Standardized coefficient		Sig.
				B	Std. error	Beta	t-value	
Self-Fulfillment	0.025	0.021		0.040	0.049	0.052	0.819	0.014
Past Experience				0.223	0.087	0.162	2.569	
Self-Fulfillment * Past Experience			0.011	-0.111	0.067	-0.104	-1.658	0.099

## Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the descriptive statistics for study participants and tested the study hypotheses. In order to test study hypotheses 1 through 4, first-order confirmatory factor analysis using all 51 measurement variables was employed to measure the upper level constructs. Next, second-order confirmatory factor analysis was employed to measure the model fit, which used the upper level constructs (11 factors – three from attitudes, six from motivation, and two from intended participation) as indicators to measure the model. After inspecting the measurement model, structural modeling was employed to test study hypotheses 1, 2, 3, and 4. Moreover, as part of testing the study research question of whether motivation (fourth predictor) plays a significant role in predicting intention, the theory of planned behavior using the three original components was tested using measurement and structural equation modeling. A moderating effect of past volunteer tourism experience between the four predictors and intended participation was examined using hierarchical regression analysis.

As a result, study hypotheses one and two were supported. Study hypotheses three and four were not supported. Hierarchical multiple regression revealed that study hypotheses 5, 6, and 7 were not supported. Study hypothesis eight, the relationship between motivation and intended participation is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience, was supported, but in a negative direction. In addition, motivation factors were individually tested to see if each of the motivation factors were moderated by past volunteer tourism experience. Hierarchical regression analysis found that past volunteer tourism experience only moderated the relationship between motivation factor altruism and intended participation, and interestingly, in a negative direction.

Table 4.36 summarized the results of hypothesis testing. More detailed information regarding the findings is discussed in the following chapter.

Table 4.36 Summary of the Hypothesis Testing Results

	Hypothesis	Results
1	There is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' attitudes toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in volunteer tourism in the future.	Supported
2	There is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' subjective norms toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in volunteer tourism in the future.	Supported
3	There is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' self efficacy toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in volunteer tourism in the future.	Not Supported
4	There is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' motivation toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in volunteer tourism in the future.	Not Supported
5	The relationship between attitudes and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.	Not Supported
6	The relationship between subjective norms and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.	Not Supported
7	The relationship between self-efficacy and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.	Not Supported
8	The relationship between motivation and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.	Partially Supported

## **CHAPTER V**

### **DISCUSSION**

#### Introduction

The objectives of this study were threefold: 1) to examine how an aggregation of the three predicting variables (attitudes, subjective norms, and self-efficacy) affect potential volunteer tourists' intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience using the theory of planned behavior, 2) to investigate the predictive power of the fourth predicting variable (motivation) toward potential volunteer tourists' intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience, and 3) to explore the moderating effect of potential volunteer tourists' past volunteer tourism experience over the four predicting variables toward intended participation.

As such, this study addressed the following research questions:

- 1) How and in what ways does an aggregation of the three components of the theory of planned behavior – attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control (self-efficacy) -- affect future intended participation in volunteer tourism?
- 2) How does motivation increase the predictive power of the theory of planned behavior in the context of volunteer tourism?
- 3) Does past volunteer tourism experience act as a moderator of the relationship between the four influencing variables (attitudes, subjective norms, self-efficacy and motivation) and intended participation? If so, how and in what ways does past

volunteer tourism experience moderate the relationship between the four influencing variables and intended participation?

This chapter discusses the study findings in relation to each of the research hypotheses. It also covers implications derived from the study findings, followed by limitations of the study, and concludes with suggestions for future research.

## Results of the Study

The socio-demographic characteristics of the sample used in this study reflect those of samples used in previous research in the area of volunteer tourism. First, in relation to gender, more of the study participants were female than male (Brown & Morrison, 2003; Coghlan, 2005; McGehee, 2002; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004). Second, the age of the study participants ranged widely, with concentrations in the 21-30 and 31-40 age ranges (Brown & Morrison, 2003; Coghlan, 2008; McIntosh & Zahra, 2007; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004). Third, most of the study participants have earned their college degree or above (McGehee, 2002; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004). Fourth, occupation of the study participants varied, but many of them were students (21.6%) and professional/technical (17.3%), followed by educators (13.3%). In terms of yearly earning income, there was a wide variation, which was not surprising given the wide age ranges.

## Research Questions and Hypotheses

Tables 5.1 and 5.2 consist of a summary of the hypotheses of the study. Three out of eight hypotheses were supported, while the rest were not supported. The remainder of this section discusses implications of the results of the study.

Table 5.1 Hypotheses and Test Results

Hypotheses	Standardized Coefficient	T-value	Hypotheses Results
H1: There is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' attitudes toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in volunteer tourism.	0.71** (0.45**)†	2.66 (4.00)†	Supported
H2: There is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' subjective norms toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in volunteer tourism.	0.16** (0.12)†	2.77 (1.45)†	Supported
H3: There is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' self-efficacy toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in volunteer tourism.	0.00 (0.10)†	0.03 (1.10)†	Not Supported
H4: There is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' motivation toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in volunteer tourism.	-0.12	-0.85	Not Supported

\*\*indicates the 0.01 significance level, †indicates three components of TPB model results.

Table 5.2 Moderating Hypotheses and Test Results

Hypotheses for a Moderating Effect	Hierarchical Multiple Regression	Results
H5: The relationship between attitudes and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.	$p > .05$ $p = .103$	Not Supported
H6: The relationship between subjective norms and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.	$p > .05$ $p = .956$	Not Supported
H7: The relationship between self-efficacy and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.	$p > .05$ $p = .621$	Not Supported
H8: The relationship between motivation and intended participation in volunteer tourism is moderated by past volunteer tourism experience.	$p < .05$ $p = .045$	Partially Supported

## Research Hypotheses

Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, and 4 were tested using first and second-order confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling. Hypotheses 5, 6, 7, and 8 were tested using hierarchical multiple regression analysis. The following section discusses each hypothesis in detail.

### Research Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' attitudes toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience in the future.

Research hypothesis one was tested using first and second-order confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling. Structural equation modeling analysis supported the hypothesis, in that potential volunteer tourists' attitudes toward their intended participation were statistically significant ( $\beta = 0.72$ ,  $t$ -value = 2.66,  $p < 0.01$ ), supporting the research hypothesis, asserting that there is a positive relationship between attitudes and intended participation.

Overall, this finding was consistent with that of previous mass tourism research that has examined tourists' attitudes as a significant predictor of behavioral intention (Brown, 1999; Chen, 1998; Lam & Hsu, 2004; Lee & Moscardo, 2005). In the context of volunteering research, this finding also supported previous research that found that attitudes were a directly influential factor to behavioral intention (Greenslade & White, 2005; Okun & Sloane, 2002; Warburton &

Terry, 2000). In relation to volunteer tourism research, this finding provides insight into the relationship between potential volunteer tourists' attitudes and intended participation. Findings also provide volunteer tourism providers with a better understanding of potential volunteer tourists' attitudes. It is important that volunteer tourism providers and organizations find ways to reinforce positive attitudes and build affirmative perceptions of volunteer tourism. This can be achieved by 1) promoting the positive images of volunteer tourism as sharing, serving and learning opportunities, 2) developing a long-term program with the understanding that attitudes change slowly and require maintenance, and 3) providing accurate and clear information about volunteer tourism activities, thus facilitating participation in a volunteer tourism experience. Volunteer tourism providers can also develop ways to target potential volunteer tourists who have pre-existing positive attitudes and cultivate them as customers. Volunteer tourism providers can find these motivated potential volunteer tourists through affinity groups and social networks (both online and offline), college service learning and study abroad programs, mission-based church groups and other service-oriented volunteer organizations.

## Research Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2: There is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' subjective norms toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in volunteer tourism in the future.

First and second confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling were used to test hypothesis two and found subjective norms to have a significant influence on potential

volunteer tourists' intended participation. Therefore, research hypothesis two was supported ( $\beta = 0.25$ ,  $t\text{-value} = 2.77$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). It is believed that the social pressure groups that assert subjective norms, including family members, relatives, friends, and co-workers, influence the decision making process for the survey respondents who are interested in participating in volunteer tourism in the future.

This finding was consistent with previous mass tourism research that has found that social pressure groups have a positive impact on travel decisions (Lam & Hsu, 2006; Oh & Hsu, 2001; Phetvaroon, 2006). For example, Lam and Hsu (2006) found that Taiwanese tourists traveling to Hong Kong were influenced by their social pressure groups, including family members and friends. Phetvaroon (2006) found that subjective norms, including family members and friends, were the strongest factor that influenced making a decision to visit Phuket, Thailand.

Likewise, this finding was supported by research in volunteering which found that social pressure groups have a strong influence on participation in a variety of volunteering programs (Greenslade & White, 2005; Okun & Sloan, 2002; Warburton & Terry, 2000). For example, Greenslade and White (2005) found that volunteers with above-average participation in volunteering activities were influenced by their social pressure groups. Okun and Sloan (2002) examined students' enrollment in a volunteering program and found that social pressure groups, including family members and friends, influenced their enrollment in the program.

Perhaps most importantly, in the context of volunteer tourism research, this finding supports previous research recognizing the influence of family members, friends, co-workers, and relatives on participation in a variety of volunteer tourism activities (McGehee, 2002; McGehee & Santos, 2005; Ostrander, 1984, cited in Deery, et al., 1998; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004). Hence, it is recommended that volunteer tourism providers and organizers recognize the

power of social pressure groups and develop marketing tools and methods of information dissemination to these groups. If volunteer tourism providers find ways to facilitate the information flow from potential volunteer tourists to their groups of influence (for example, family, friends, and co-workers), potential volunteer tourists may be more likely to gain support for their volunteer tourism participation. It can be suggested that volunteer tourism organizations 1) connect with a variety of social groups using both online and offline sources that are interested in volunteer tourism opportunities, 2) develop a family, friends, and co-workers involvement program, and 3) create a web page within volunteer tourism providers' websites for family members and friends, hence facilitating potential volunteer tourists' participation in a volunteer tourism experience.

### Research Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3: There is a positive relationship between potential volunteer tourists' self-efficacy toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation in volunteer tourism in the future.

Hypothesis three was also tested using first and second-confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling. The structural equation modeling found self efficacy non-significant ( $\beta = 0.00$ ,  $t\text{-value} = 0.03$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). As a result, this hypothesis was not supported.

This non-significant result can possibly be explained as follows. Self efficacy has historically been closely related to definitive outcomes rather than future potential participation, the latter being the case for this study. Other volunteer tourism research (Brown, 2005; Coghlan, 2005; McGehee & Norman, 2002; Thoit & Hewitt, 2001) found that past volunteer tourism

experience resulted in an increase of self-efficacy and predicted a positive relationship between self-efficacy and actual volunteer tourism participation. In contrast, this study found that self-efficacy did not work to predict the less definitive outcome of future volunteer tourism participation.

In this regard, it can be argued that self-efficacy may be related to volunteer tourists' past volunteer tourism experience, but not the likelihood of future participation, because past experience is concrete and definite compared to the more ambiguous potential future participation (Bandura, 1986). This can be supported by the work of Chen, Gully, and Eden (2001) who argued that self-efficacy in general does not measure predictability correctly because of uncertainty of future performance.

Due to the fact that self-efficacy did not predict potential volunteer tourists' intended participation, two implications can be made. First, specific measurement items of self-efficacy may need to be developed to measure against potential participation (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001). Second, self-efficacy may not be interchangeable with perceived behavioral control, the third predictor of the theory of planned behavior.

#### Research Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4: There is a positive relationship between motivation toward a volunteer tourism experience and intended participation in volunteer tourism.

As with the previous hypotheses, hypothesis four was tested using structural equation modeling. Structural equation modeling found that motivation did not play a significant role for

the dependent variable, intended participation. Hence, this hypothesis was not supported ( $\beta = -0.17$ ,  $t\text{-value} = -0.85$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ).

This non-significant result may be due to a number of reasons: 1) an overlapped high association with other variables, such as attitudes and self efficacy, which may have complicated the model, as motivation alone was significantly correlated ( $r = 0.334$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) toward the study dependent variable (intended participation). In previous tourism research, Gnoth (1997) found a high association between attitudes and motivation in that both measure one's set of beliefs. 2) Another possible reason for the non-significant result may be due to low variance and high affinity of the responses. Low variance of the responses was not strong enough to discriminate motivation toward intended participation. In addition, most respondents expressed strong motivation to intended participation in volunteer tourism (mean = 4.02). 3) Chen et al. (2001) argued that predicting behavior requires specificity which is not possible given the general nature of motivational constructs. In other words, study participants could not predict with 100% confidence their motivation in regard to a future unpredictable event.

Previous volunteer tourism research that has found motivation to be a significant factor for participation in volunteer tourism was limited to study samples of respondents who had past experience participating in volunteer tourism (Broad & Jenkins, 2008; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004). In this study, both experienced and inexperienced volunteer tourists were part of the sample. It is important to note that future study may want to examine between those respondents who had participated in a volunteer tourism experience in the past and those who had not. In addition, volunteer tourism researchers, providers, and organizations may want to identify and further differentiate specific motivation attributes that are not overlapped with other predictors such as attitudes and self-efficacy. This can be achieved by 1) learning more about volunteer

tourists' unique motivations as a way to encourage volunteer tourism participation, and 2) developing marketing programs that appeal to those distinctive motivation factors. Therefore, it is suggested that future research may need further speculation of how motivation can affect volunteer tourists' behavior.

#### Research Hypotheses 5, 6, 7, and 8

Study hypotheses five, six, seven and eight were tested using hierarchical multiple regression analysis to examine whether past volunteer tourism experience helped to increase the predictive power of the dependent variable. Each of the hypotheses was tested using two approaches. First, one independent variable and past volunteer tourism experience were entered in the first step of regression analysis in order to examine their main effect. Next, if the main effect was found, the moderating variable (an independent variable \* past volunteer tourism experience) was entered as the second step to examine the moderating effect.

The first three moderating variables [past volunteer tourism experience \* (attitudes, subjective norms, and self-efficacy)] utilized in hypotheses five, six, and seven did not help to increase the predictive power of the model. In other words, each of the moderating variables did not play a significant role in strengthening the predictive power of the relationship between independent variables and the dependent variable. However, the motivation moderating variable (past volunteer tourism experience \* motivation) did appear to be statistically significant and increased the predictive power of the model.

## Research Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5: The relationship between attitudes and intended participation is moderated by potential volunteer tourists' past volunteer tourism experience.

Study hypothesis five was not supported. This finding was consistent with tourism research conducted by Phillips (2009) who examined the moderating effect of past experience over the TPB and failed to find a moderating effect of the relationship between attitudes and intention by senior citizens' casino gaming experience. Conversely, this finding contrasted with behavioral studies (Norman & Conner, 2006; Terry, Hogg, & White, 1999) which found support for past behavior increasing the predictive power of the relationship between attitudes and intention. No previous volunteering or volunteer tourism research was found that has examined the moderating role of past volunteer experience on the relationship between attitudes and intention.

So, it is argued that the relationship between potential volunteer tourists' attitudes toward a volunteer tourism experience and their intended participation was not affected by past volunteer tourism experience. This nonsignificant moderating effect may be due to a number of factors. First, this finding could come from the notion that attitudes are enduring in nature and therefore hard to change over time. Second, the composition of the sample may have influenced the findings. While the sample did consist of both experienced volunteer tourists and those who had not yet engaged in volunteer tourism, all were interested enough to be part of a volunteer tourism-related listserv or regular recipient of the VolunTourism.org newsletter. Therefore, volunteer tourism providers might want to consider going beyond simply maintaining

participant's positive attitudes toward volunteer tourism but by looking for ways to improve attitudes.

#### Research Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6: The relationship between subjective norms and intended participation is moderated by potential volunteer tourists' past volunteer tourism experience.

Hypothesis six was also not supported. This nonsignificant finding is supported by Phillip's (2009) tourism research, which failed to find a moderating effect of past gaming experience using the theory of planned behavior. As noted, no research in the context of volunteering and volunteer tourism research was found that has examined the possible moderating effect of past experience over the relationship between subjective norms and intention. In fact, very little research has examined the impact of past experience at all. This nonsignificant finding may be explained by a number of factors. First, a high correlation between subjective norms and past volunteer tourism experience may have influenced the findings. This is common because researchers were unable to know a priori about the impact of the moderating effect variable on other predictors (Morris, Sherman, & Mansfield, 1986). Secondly, this may be more evidence of the power of subjective norms. In other words, even past experience cannot change or moderate the influence of family, friends and co-workers. Third, as with hypothesis five, the composition of the sample may have influenced the findings. Therefore, as mentioned previously, if volunteer tourism providers find ways to facilitate the information flow from potential volunteer tourists to their groups of influence (for example, family, friends, and co-

workers), potential volunteer tourists may be more likely to gain support for their volunteer tourism participation, regardless of past volunteer tourism experience.

#### Research Hypothesis 7

Hypothesis 7: The relationship between self-efficacy and intended participation is moderated by potential volunteer tourists' past volunteer tourism experience.

Study hypothesis seven was not supported. In other words, the relationship between self-efficacy and intended participation was not influenced by past volunteer tourism experience. This nonsignificant finding may have been caused by a high association between self-efficacy and past volunteer tourism experience. Moreover, according to Morris, et al (1986), a traditional hierarchical multiple regression technique may not capture the "hidden linear dependencies in a data set that can constitute an insidious source of Type II error" (p. 288). This nonsignificant finding can be explained in a similar way to the relationship between subjective norms and past volunteer tourism experience. Regardless of frequency of past volunteer tourism experience, people have participated in volunteer tourism because self-efficacy alone had a positive correlation with potential volunteer tourists' intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience. Therefore, volunteer tourism providers may want to focus on encouraging the strengthening of the self-efficacy of those who plan to participate and who have participated in a volunteer tourism experience. In other words, volunteer tourism programs should focus on encouraging and supporting its potential volunteers by creating both pre- and post-participation programs that cultivate self-efficacy.

## Research Hypothesis 8

Hypothesis 8: The relationship between motivation and potential volunteer tourists' intended participation is moderated by potential volunteer tourists' past volunteer tourism experience.

In the case of hypothesis 8, the moderating variable (past volunteer tourism experience \* motivation) helped to strengthen the predictive power of the relationship between motivation and intended participation. The moderating effect was, however, in a negative direction. In other words, people who have never experienced volunteer tourism in the past were more likely to be motivated to participate in a volunteer tourism experience in the future than those who have participated in a volunteer tourism experience. This finding contrasted sharply with previous behavioral research that found that habitual behavior was more likely to be repeated (Ouellette & Wood, 1998).

Further analysis of the moderating effect of past volunteer tourism experience on the relationship between motivation and intended participation was conducted using new moderating variables [past volunteer tourism experience \* (altruism, curiosity, altruism, escape, relationship, and self-fulfillment)]. As noted in the result section, past volunteer tourism experience moderated the relationship between altruism and intended participation in a negative direction. In other words, the less people have participated in volunteer tourism the more they become altruistic in regard to intended participation in volunteer tourism. This result contrasts with much previous volunteer tourism research that has found that those who have participated in a volunteer tourism experience became altruistic to others in need (Broad, 2003; Broad & Jenkins, 2008; McIntosh & Zahra, 2007; Soderman & Snead, 2008; Wearing, 2001). This finding is

somewhat surprising in that altruism was found one of the premier motives resulting from volunteer tourism experiences. This finding raises the question whether the tourist sacrifices their discretionary income and time for the benefit of others or contributes the volunteer tourism experiences to build their own achievement. There could be a variety of reasons that describe the finding that volunteer tourism experienced groups may do not want to participate in volunteer tourism in the future more than non-experienced groups. 1) Experienced volunteer tourists may have had a negative volunteer tourism experience. More specifically, they may have participated in a similar volunteer tourism program that did not make them feel as if they had truly helped others or been provided no opportunities to contribute to the development of activities. 2) They may have participated in a short-term volunteer tourism program that did not result in quickly visible contribution. For example, Richter and Norman (2010) argued that caring for AIDS/HIV children in sub-Saharan Africa, for example, may take long-term commitment to develop a sense of security, otherwise short-term contribution may result in unstable attachment. 3) They may have participated in a volunteer tourism activity that forced them to volunteer outside their areas of interest. 4) The experience may have not included interaction with locals, and 5) volunteer tourism providers and organizations may have paid more attention to making a profit than serving a cause due to an increasing number of volunteer tourism organizations, thus resulting in a more hedonistic and profit-oriented business structure than helping others in need (Tomazos, 2010).

This negative moderating effect of past volunteer tourism experience between altruism and intended participation may potentially be reduced by the following suggestions: 1) If they do not already have a system in place, volunteer tourism providers and organizations may want to take extra care in matching appropriate volunteer trip activities with volunteer tourists' specific

interests. For example, volunteer tourism activities may have varying degrees of interaction with local residents. The actual level of interaction should be appropriately matched with the volunteer tourist's preferred level of interaction. Appropriate skill assessment is also important, as participating in an activity that a volunteer tourist may not be capable of completing can result in a negative experience. Providing volunteer tourists who are interested in direct interactive activities with locals, for instance, can help them feel as if they are truly contributing. Therefore, understanding what types of volunteer tourism activities volunteer tourists are interested in is crucial. Additionally, volunteer tourism providers and organizations may want to appeal to non-experienced people about the altruistic aspect of volunteer tourism by showing successful volunteer tourism experiences. In this way, non-experienced people may want to participate in volunteer tourism experiences. 2) Volunteer tourism providers and organizations may want to maintain contact after a volunteer tourism experience with updates on the impacts of their work on the host community. In this regard, previous volunteer tourist feel recognized and believe that their previous volunteer tourism service was worthwhile. As a result, experienced volunteer tourists may want to repeat their trip to help others. In addition, volunteer tourism providers and organizations may want to identify those experienced groups who continued their volunteer tourism experiences. Those experienced groups may repeat their volunteer tourism experiences not because they feel altruistic, but they feel more satisfied with their life after the experience than before their trip. 3) Volunteer tourism providers and organization may want to create broader alternatives. Some volunteer tourists may be unable to participate in volunteer tourism at the present time, but still want to contribute. For example, if a volunteer tourist has discretionary income, but lacks time, volunteer tourism organizations can develop and provide innovative and alternative ways for "volunteer wannabes" to participate financially. In this regard, volunteer

tourists may feel that they are still of service. 4) Volunteer tourism providers and organizations should take great care to provide accurate and complete information to potential volunteer tourists in order to prevent misconceptions and disappointments. For example, taking care of arts and crafts may not take all that long and volunteer tourists feel good about helping others when they do it. Meantime, caring for human services such as hunger, elder care, and poverty may take long and scheduling different period of time may enhance volunteer tourists' contribution. In a similar manner, volunteer tourism providers and organizations may want to provide a wider range of volunteer tourism activities ranging from short-term to long-term programs in consideration of financial issues. Many volunteer tourists are financially restrained and they take volunteer tourism when they are financially available. Therefore volunteer tourism providers and organizations may want to design a variety of volunteer tourism programs that help experienced groups of people continue their altruistic commitment.

### Summary of the Discussion

Overall, the findings of the study have provided interesting results. Pearson correlation showed that there is some positive relationship between the four predictors – attitudes, subjective norms, self-efficacy, and motivation – and intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience. Structural equation modeling analysis found that both attitudes and subjective norms were significant predictors of intended participation in the model, while self efficacy and motivation were not. Thus, study hypotheses one and two were supported, while study hypotheses three and four were not supported.

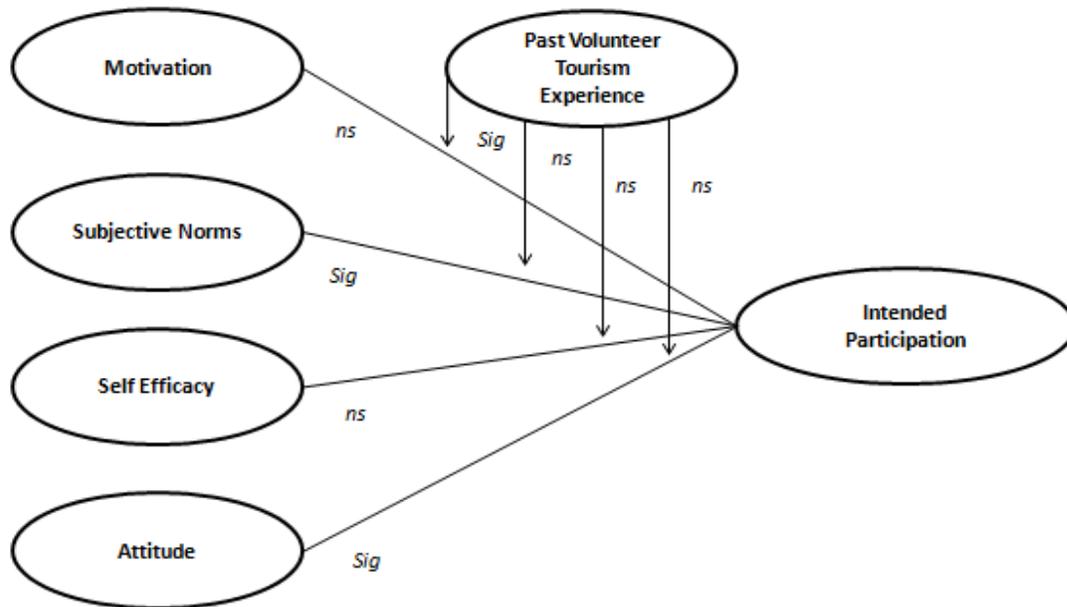
Furthermore, the moderating effect of past volunteer tourism experience on the relationship between three predictors (attitudes, subjective norms, and self-efficacy) and intended participation was not supported, while the relationship between motivation and intended participation was moderated by volunteer tourism experience in a negative direction. A further analysis of the moderating effect of past volunteer tourism experience revealed that a specific motivation factor (altruism) caused the negative direction.

## Implications

### Theoretical Implications

This study tested a revised theory of planned behavior to identify how and in what ways the three components – attitudes, subjective norms and self-efficacy – affect potential volunteer tourists' intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience in the near future. Motivation as a fourth predictor was added to the model to test whether it increased the predictive power of the model. Also, the theoretical model included past volunteer tourism experience as a moderating variable to examine whether it moderated the relationship between the predictors and intended participation (Figure 5).

Figure 5 Results of Revised Theory of Planned Behavior



Note: *sig.* indicates significant results and *ns.* indicates non-significant results.

From the theoretical perspective, the findings of this study indicated that TPB is, in general, not valid for this sample of potential volunteer tourists in the context of volunteer tourism research.

In general, attitudes were the biggest influence on this sample of volunteer tourists' potential participation in a future volunteer tourism experience. This significant role of attitudes in the model may be due to the development of volunteer-tourism specific measurement items. Much previous general tourism research used a semantic scale of attitudes and found a moderate effect size ( $\rho = 0.43$ ), but this study developed more specific attitudinal variables and found a large effect size of attitudes ( $\rho = 0.78$ ). Even though the semantic scale of attitudes can continue to play an important role in predicting human behavior, this study recommends that more

specific attitudinal variables to reflect the subject of the research can increase the predictive power of human behavior.

Subjective norms were also a significant predictor of potential volunteer tourists' participation in a future volunteer tourism experience. As discussed in the section of meta-analysis in chapter II, much previous general tourism research found that subjective norms were the weakest predictor amongst the three components of TPB, but this study found that subjective norms played a moderately significant role in predicting potential volunteer tourists' future participation in a volunteer tourism experience. This significant finding can be an important theoretical contribution. Unlike much previous general tourism research which has used a small number of subjective norm variables (two or three subjective norm variables), and often resulting in a saturated construct, this study utilized four important variables that can reflect a larger segment of volunteer tourism referents. Hence, it is recommended for future research to attempt to continue to include more representative variables of the study that increase the predictive power of the TPB.

Self-efficacy, which was a modified construct of perceived behavioral control within the TPB, did not contribute to increasing the predictive power of intention in this study. This result does not support the argument that self-efficacy and perceived behavioral control can be used interchangeably in the TPB. Therefore, it is recommended that future research which hopes to test whether a significant difference between perceived behavioral control and self-efficacy exists should use both the original variable perceived behavioral control as well as self-efficacy.

In addition, inclusion of motivation in the model of TPB did not contribute to the strengthening power of the model. As noted earlier, some motivation attributes may have a high association with other predictors so it is suggested for future research that motivation factors be

separated to detect how each influences intended participation. Moreover, motivation includes multi-dimensional factors that can apply differently to various groups. Therefore, it will be useful in future research to identify the different motivations of various groups.

Interestingly the theory of reasoned action (TRA), which was not a foundation of this study, argues that the two independent constructs of attitudes and subjective norms predict behavioral intention (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and was validated in this study. Therefore, this result introduces the notion that the TRA could be a useful tool to help future volunteer tourism researchers.

#### Implications for Volunteer Tourism Providers and Volunteer Tourism Research

Based on the findings from this study, many managerial implications can be drawn. This study found attitudes and subjective norms to be significant predictors of potential volunteer tourists' intended participation. Therefore, in terms of attitudes, it is advantageous for volunteer tourism providers to find potential volunteer tourists who have pre-existing positive attitudes toward participation in volunteer tourism. Those potential volunteer tourists can be found through affinity groups such as social networks (online and offline), college service learning and study abroad, church groups and volunteer tourism organizations.

Findings from this study recognize the power of social pressure groups. In terms of subjective norms, volunteer tourism providers and organizations may want to develop marketing tools and methods of information dissemination targeting the friends, family and co-workers of potential volunteer tourism participants. If volunteer tourism providers find ways to facilitate the information flow between potential volunteer tourists and their groups of influence, potential

volunteer tourists are more likely to gain support for, and hence participate in, future volunteer tourism.

Findings from this study also recognize the complexity of motivation. Volunteer tourism providers and organizers may want to work toward a better understanding of the different motivation factors of various types of volunteer tourists. This can be achieved by 1) learning more about volunteer tourists' unique motivations as a way to encourage volunteer tourism participation, and 2) developing marketing programs that appeal to those distinctive motivation factors.

In terms of a moderating effect of past volunteer tourism experience, this study found the moderating effect over the relationship between altruism and intended participation. As discussed earlier in this chapter, volunteer tourism providers may want to develop appropriate marketing strategies as part of both pre-trip planning and post-trip management that impact participation in a volunteer tourism experience. In addition, volunteer tourism providers and organizations may want to develop various programs that enhance volunteer tourists' potential for engaging in altruism. As suggested earlier, 1) matching appropriate volunteer trip activities, 2) recognition of previous volunteer tourism service, 3) developing alternatives, 4) developing a wider range of volunteer tourism programs, including both short-term and long-term activities in consideration of financial issues, 5) identifying people who repeat their volunteer tourism experiences, and 5) provision of accurate information of volunteer tourism activities may motivate potential volunteer tourists to participate in volunteer tourism.

Finally, as noted earlier in Chapter 1, much of the previous volunteer tourism research has focused on people who have all previously participated in a volunteer tourism experience. This study included both individuals who have participated and individuals who have not

participated in a volunteer tourism experience as a way to test for a possible moderating effect. The study found that while past volunteer tourism experience did not have a moderating effect between potential volunteer tourists' attitudes, subjective norms, and self-efficacy and their intended participation, past volunteer tourism experience did have a moderating effect between potential volunteer tourists' motivation and their intended participation, but in a negative direction. Deeper analysis revealed that past volunteer tourism experience had a moderating effect between potential volunteer tourists' specific motivation factor of altruism and their intended participation. This finding suggests that volunteer tourism providers and organizations may need to pay much greater attention to building a strong ongoing relationship with their previous volunteer tourists and to develop programs that demonstrate an obvious positive impact on the host community. As a result, this could work to better cultivate future volunteer tourists simply by building better relationships with existing volunteer tourists.

### Limitations and Future Research

As expected in all research, there are limitations to this study. First, this study focused on individuals who had either participated in a volunteer tourism experience or were interested enough to be part of the listserv for a volunteer tourism newsletter. Therefore, the findings are not to be generalized to an overall population, but rather are more focused on an affinity group of persons interested in volunteer tourism.

As noted earlier, many researchers (Conner & Armitage, 1998; Harrison, 1995) argued that self-efficacy and perceived behavioral control can be used interchangeably. As only measures of self-efficacy were used in this study, it might be valuable for future research to

utilize both concepts – self-efficacy and perceived behavioral control – to examine possible differences. In addition, revised measurement variables of attitudes, self-efficacy and motivation may be necessary for future research as the relationship because some measurement items of attitudes, self-efficacy and motivation have a high association that may have complicated the study model.

Additionally, this study utilized an online survey as described in the methods section. The online survey technique may not be the best way to reach a general population who may want to participate in a survey, but are unable to access the internet. In addition, this online survey method did not have a way to prevent individuals from accessing the survey repeatedly, although only one survey per IP address was designated.

## Conclusion

This study proposed and tested a revised theoretical model that attempted to examine how and in what way the four predicting variables – attitudes, subjective norms, self-efficacy, and motivation – affect potential volunteer tourists' intended participation in a volunteer tourism experience. Confirmatory factor analysis, as well as structural equation modeling, was used to test the hypotheses. In a very general way, Pearson correlations showed that, to a degree, all of the four predicting variables in and of themselves were significant predictors of potential volunteer tourists' intended participation when the individual variable was only considered. But further analysis revealed a more complex relationship.

As a result of hypotheses tests using structural equation modeling, two out of the four predicting variables appeared to be statistically significant: attitudes and subjective norms. Conversely, both self-efficacy and motivation were not statistically significant.

This study found a moderating effect of past volunteer tourism experience between motivation and intended participation in a negative direction. Furthermore, the moderating effect of past volunteer tourism experience exists between the motivation factor of altruism and intended participation, indicating that individuals who have never participated in volunteer tourism were influenced by their altruism to participate in volunteer tourism. Finally, findings showed that the TPB model did not hold up in the context of volunteer tourism research, but the TRA model may be a more relevant model for future volunteer tourism research.

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## APPENDIX I.

### RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

#### WELCOME TO THE VOLUNTEER TOURISM SURVEY

Hello,

Voluntourism is one of the fastest growing travel segments. It is defined as "a seamlessly integrated combination of voluntary service to a destination and the best, traditional elements of travel — arts, culture, geography, and history — in that destination" (voluntourism.org). Examples of voluntourism might include traveling to another country to assist with home building while also experiencing the culture of that country, or working with an environmental organization to collect data on an endangered species by day, and sampling the food and music of the same destination by night.

The following survey has been developed to explore the various needs and motivations of both experienced and potential voluntourists. Your responses are completely confidential and voluntary. We value your thoughts and opinions, even if you are not planning a voluntourism experience in the near future. You may find it useful to print your responses or copy and paste to a word document as you complete each page (the survey does not print out a copy once you submit your final responses, so please, if you wish to have a copy of your responses, print as you go, page-by-page) - you might be surprised at your own thoughts on your perceptions of the ideal voluntourism experience! If you have any questions or comments about the questionnaire or the survey overall, please contact John Lee via the contacts listed below. We very much appreciate your participation in this survey!

Sincerely,

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## I. INTENDED PARTICIPATION IN A VOLUNTEER TOURISM EXPERIENCE

Check the box that corresponds with your level of AGREEMENT with the following statements for a volunteer tourism experience WITHIN THE NEXT THREE YEARS.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am interested in participating in a volunteer tourism experience.	1	2	3	4	5
I want to participate in a volunteer tourism experience.	1	2	3	4	5
I intend to participate in a volunteer tourism experience.	1	2	3	4	5
I will encourage others to participate in a volunteer tourism	1	2	3	4	5
I will recommend participation in a volunteer tourism experience to others	1	2	3	4	5

## II. ATTITUDE

How do you feel about volunteer tourism? For each of the following statements, check the box regarding your attitudes toward a volunteer tourism experience.

Participating in a volunteer tourism experience would help me ...	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
... share a skill that I have.	1	2	3	4	5
... share knowledge that I have.	1	2	3	4	5
... learn a skill.	1	2	3	4	5
... learn to appreciate other cultures	1	2	3	4	5
... learn a language.	1	2	3	4	5
... conduct a research project.	1	2	3	4	5
... support a cause or issue.	1	2	3	4	5
... serve other people.	1	2	3	4	5
... serve the environment.	1	2	3	4	5
Other (please specify)					

### III. SUBJECTIVE NORMS

Check the term that corresponds with your level of agreement with the following statements regarding a volunteer tourism experience.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
My immediate family members who are important to me would encourage my participation in a volunteer tourism experience.	1	2	3	4	5
Other relatives who are important to me would encourage my participation in a volunteer tourism experience.	1	2	3	4	5
Friends who are important to me would encourage my participation in a volunteer tourism experience.	1	2	3	4	5
Coworkers who are important to me would encourage my participation in a volunteer tourism experience.	1	2	3	4	5

### IV. SELF-EFFICACY

Check the term that corresponds with your level of agreement with the following statements.

Over time, I have learned that	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
... I am able to overcome obstacles that I once found impossible.	1	2	3	4	5
... I look forward to future challenges.	1	2	3	4	5
... I feel more competent in everyday life.	1	2	3	4	5

## V. MOTIVATION

**How important are the following motives to you as you plan your volunteer tourism experience?**

	Not important at all	Unimportant	Neutral	Important	Very Important
to have a good time	1	2	3	4	5
to strengthen my family relationship	1	2	3	4	5
to strengthen my relationships with friends	1	2	3	4	5
to have an opportunity to educate my children	1	2	3	4	5
to develop a relationship with other volunteer tourists	1	2	3	4	5
to learn about other people	1	2	3	4	5
to give something back	1	2	3	4	5
to experience peace	1	2	3	4	5
to develop my personal interests	1	2	3	4	5
to be away from everyday stress	1	2	3	4	5
to be with people from different cultures	1	2	3	4	5
to learn new things	1	2	3	4	5
to meet the local people	1	2	3	4	5
to be adventurous	1	2	3	4	5
to think about personal values	1	2	3	4	5
to experience the challenge of the task	1	2	3	4	5
to work with an organization whose mission I support	1	2	3	4	5
to take part in a rare opportunity	1	2	3	4	5
to do something meaningful	1	2	3	4	5
to make a difference	1	2	3	4	5
to combine a love of travel with a desire to give back	1	2	3	4	5
to become immersed in the local culture	1	2	3	4	5
to fulfill a dream	1	2	3	4	5
to be independent	1	2	3	4	5
to do something new and different	1	2	3	4	5
to help others	1	2	3	4	5

to develop my career	1	2	3	4	5
to travel	1	2	3	4	5
to develop my knowledge of the destination	1	2	3	4	5
to be away from daily routine	1	2	3	4	5
Other (please specify)					

## **VI. Past Volunteer Tourism Experience**

How many times volunteer trips have you taken in the past?

[     ] times

## **VII. Basic Information**

1. What is your year of birth? (Age)

[     ] year

2. Indicate if you are (Gender)

[     ] male

[     ] female

3. What is your annual household income? (US\$, after taxes).

[     ] US\$

4. Indicate your highest level of formal schooling (Education):

[     ] Less than 9th grade

[     ] 9th to 12th grade

[     ] High school graduate

[     ] Some college, no diploma

[     ] Associate degree

[     ] Bachelors degree

[     ] Graduate or Professional degree

5. Please check the occupation type that most closely fits you (Occupation):

[     ] Homemaker

[     ] Executive Administrator

[     ] Laborer

[     ] Educator

[     ] Retired

[     ] Sales/Marketing

[     ] Student

[     ] Post-student Gap year

[     ] Professional/Technical

- Self-employed/Business owner
- Middle Management
- Service
- Unemployed
- Other (please specify)

## APPENDIX II.

### RESEARCH ITEMS WITH MEAN AND FREQUENCY

#### INTENDED PARTICIPATION

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Check the box that corresponds with your level of AGREEMENT with the following statements for a volunteer tourism experience WITHIN THE NEXT THREE YEARS

---

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
I am interested in participating in a volunteer tourism experience		5 (1.7)	12 (4.1)	103 (35.4)	171 (58.8)	4.51
I want to participate in a volunteer tourism experience	1 (0.3)	4 (1.4)	25 (8.7)	99 (34.5)	158 (55.1)	4.42
I intend to participate in a volunteer tourism experience	3 (1.0)	9 (3.1)	64 (22.3)	77 (26.8)	134 (46.7)	4.14
I will encourage others to participate in a volunteer tourism experience	2 (0.7)	12 (4.1)	75 (25.9)	96 (33.1)	105 (36.2)	4.00
I will recommend participation in a volunteer tourism experience to others	2 (0.7)	8 (2.8)	62 (21.5)	109 (37.7)	108 (37.4)	4.08

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## ATTITUDES

How do you feel about volunteer tourism? For each of the following statements, check the box regarding your attitudes toward a volunteer tourism experience.

Participating in a volunteer tourism experience would help me ...	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
... share a skill that I have		10 (3.4)	47 (16.2)	169 (58.3)	64 (22.1)	3.98
... share knowledge that I have	1 (0.3)	4 (1.4)	43 (14.8)	171 (59.0)	71 (24.5)	4.05
... learn a skill	1 (0.3)	5 (1.7)	27 (9.3)	157 (54.0)	101 (34.7)	4.20
... learn to appreciate other cultures		1 (0.3)	14 (4.8)	125 (43.1)	150 (51.7)	4.46
... learn a language	4 (1.4)	11 (3.8)	69 (23.8)	121 (41.7)	85 (29.3)	3.93
... conduct a research project	28 (9.7)	70 (24.1)	103 (35.5)	66 (22.8)	23 (7.9)	2.95
... support a cause or issue	2 (0.7)	9 (3.1)	37 (12.7)	135 (46.4)	108 (37.1)	4.16
... serve other people	1 (0.3)	5 (1.7)	21 (7.2)	123 (42.3)	141 (48.5)	4.36
... serve the environment	3 (1.0)	10 (3.5)	53 (18.3)	138 (47.8)	85 (29.4)	4.01

## SUBJECTIVE NORMS

Check the term that corresponds with your level of agreement with the following statements regarding a volunteer tourism experience.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
My immediate family members who are important to me would encourage my participation in a volunteer tourism experience	2 (0.7)	10 (3.5)	40 (13.8)	127 (43.9)	110 (38.1)	4.15
Other relatives who are important to me would encourage my participation in a volunteer tourism experience	1 (0.3)	12 (4.1)	53 (18.3)	132 (45.5)	92 (31.7)	4.04
Friends who are important to me would encourage my participation in a volunteer tourism experience	1 (0.3)	3 (1.0)	35 (12.1)	128 (44.3)	122 (42.2)	4.26
Coworkers who are important to me would encourage my participation in a volunteer tourism experience	1 (0.3)	10 (3.5)	81 (28.1)	112 (38.9)	84 (29.2)	3.93

## SELF-EFFICACY

---

Check the term that corresponds with your level of agreement with the following statements.

---

Over time, I have learned that ...	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
... I am able to overcome obstacles that I once found impossible	2 (0.7)	3 (1.0)	33 (11.3)	153 (52.6)	100 (34.4)	4.18
... I look forward to future challenges	1 (0.3)	3 (1.0)	19 (6.6)	129 (44.5)	138 (47.6)	4.37
... I feel more competent in everyday life	1 (0.3)	6 (2.1)	31 (10.7)	143 (49.3)	109 (37.6)	4.21

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## MOTIVATION

How important are the following motives to you as you plan your volunteer tourism experience?						
	Not Important At All	Unimportant	Neutral	Important	Very Important	Mean
To have a good time	1 (0.3)	15 (5.2)	40 (13.8)	170 (58.6)	64 (22.1)	3.96
To strengthen my family relationship	29 (10.0)	58 (20.0)	107 (36.9)	64 (22.1)	32 (11.0)	3.04
To strengthen my relationships with friends	24 (8.2)	48 (16.5)	103 (35.4)	86 (29.6)	30 (10.3)	3.17
To have an opportunity to educate my children	65 (22.6)	33 (11.5)	85 (29.6)	61 (21.3)	43 (15.0)	2.94
To develop a relationship with other volunteer tourists	8 (2.8)	15 (5.2)	71 (24.5)	153 (52.8)	43 (14.8)	3.71
To learn about other people			12 (4.1)	110 (37.8)	169 (58.1)	4.53
To give something back			7 (2.4)	89 (30.6)	195 (67.0)	4.64
To experience peace	2 (0.7)	15 (5.2)	64 (22.1)	122 (42.2)	86 (29.8)	3.95
To develop my personal interests	2 (0.7)	20 (6.9)	55 (19.0)	118 (40.7)	95 (32.8)	3.97
To be away from everyday stress	20 (6.9)	39 (13.4)	85 (29.3)	86 (29.7)	60 (20.7)	3.43

MOTIVATION (continued)

How important are the following motives to you as you plan your volunteer tourism experience?						
	Not Important At All	Unimportant	Neutral	Important	Very Important	Mean
To be with people from different cultures	2 (0.7)	4 (1.4)	16 (5.5)	107 (36.8)	162 (55.7)	4.45
To learn new things			7 (2.4)	97 (33.3)	187 (64.3)	4.61
To meet the local people	1 (0.3)	1 (0.3)	13 (4.5)	101 (34.7)	175 (60.1)	4.53
To be adventurous	5 (1.7)	9 (3.1)	43 (14.8)	94 (32.4)	139 (47.9)	4.21
To think about personal values	4 (1.4)	5 (1.7)	46 (16.0)	131 (45.5)	102 (35.4)	4.11
To experience the challenge of the task	1 (0.3)	5 (1.7)	34 (11.8)	148 (51.3)	100 (34.7)	4.18
To work with an organization whose mission I support	1 (0.3)	6 (2.1)	18 (6.2)	131 (45.2)	134 (46.2)	4.34
To take part in a rare opportunity	2 (0.7)	5 (1.7)	34 (11.7)	121 (41.6)	129 (44.3)	4.27
To do something meaningful			5 (1.7)	88 (30.2)	198 (68.0)	4.66
To make a difference		1 (0.3)	11 (3.8)	89 (30.7)	189 (65.2)	4.60
To combine a love of travel with a desire to give back	2 (0.7)	3 (1.0)	14 (4.8)	96 (33.0)	176 (60.5)	4.51

MOTIVATION (continued)

How important are the following motives to you as you plan your volunteer tourism experience?						
	Not Important At All	Unimportant	Neutral	Important	Very Important	Mean
To become immersed in the local culture	1 (0.3)	3 (1.0)	26 (9.0)	102 (35.4)	156 (54.2)	4.42
To fulfill a dream	8 (2.8)	19 (6.6)	95 (32.9)	85 (29.4)	82 (28.4)	3.74
To be independent	10 (3.4)	16 (5.5)	90 (31.0)	96 (33.1)	78 (26.9)	3.74
To do something new and different	3 (1.0)	2 (0.7)	33 (11.3)	137 (47.1)	116 (39.9)	4.24
To help others		4 (1.4)	11 (3.8)	105 (36.2)	170 (58.6)	4.52
To develop my career	35 (12.1)	63 (21.8)	97 (33.6)	55 (19.0)	39 (13.5)	3.00
To travel	2 (0.7)	15 (5.2)	39 (13.4)	111 (38.1)	124 (42.6)	4.16
To develop my knowledge of the destination	5 (1.7)	6 (2.1)	55 (19.1)	130 (45.1)	92 (31.9)	4.03
To be away from daily routine	13 (4.7)	26 (9.4)	89 (32.0)	97 (34.9)	53 (19.1)	3.54