



UNIVERSITY OF GOTHENBURG
SCHOOL OF BUSINESS, ECONOMICS AND LAW

**An Analysis of Volunteer Tourism Using the
Repertory Grid Technique**

Igor Ackerberg and Parkpoom Prapasawudi

Graduate School

Master of Science in Tourism and Hospitality Management
Master Degree Project No. 2009:65
Supervisor: Eva Gustavsson

ABSTRACT

Volunteer tourism has recently been regarded as an emergent form of alternative tourism. It has been perceived as ‘serious leisure’, ‘active vacation’, ‘justice tourism’, or even a path toward an ideal ‘sustainable tourism’. Originally, volunteer tourism was believed to attract travelers with a sense of altruism who would like to make a difference during their holidays. But, nowadays, people with more egoistic motives are also lured by the unique experiences offered by volunteer tourism. Currently, the sector is moving toward higher commercialization with more profit-oriented companies offering volunteer tourism packages, making the study of volunteer tourists’ perceptions even more important.

This research explores the people engaging in volunteer tourism by using the personal construct theory and the repertory grid technique. The study investigates how volunteer tourism is construed by volunteer travelers and members of volunteer organizations, and the implications for their expectations and satisfaction. Findings of the study are based upon empirical results from construct elicitation interviews and rating of repertory grids. Recommendations and practical implications are also provided.

Key words: volunteer tourism, volunteer travel, alternative tourism, international volunteer, personal construct, repertory grid, perception, expectation

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We would like to greatly thank our thesis supervisor, Eva Gustavsson, PhD., for her ideas, advice, assistance, encouragement and constructive comments that helped us to improve the quality of this thesis. We would also like to express our gratitude to Sven Mauleon and Angela Kalimova for providing us access to current and former volunteers from their projects. We would also like to thank all international volunteers who participated in our research for contributing their personal time and sharing their extraordinary experiences.

I would like to thank my parents and grandparents for their constant support. I would also like to thank my thesis partner, Parkpoom Prapasawudi, for very effective and creative collaboration.

Igor Ackerberg

Göteborg, June 2009

My deepest appreciation goes to my family, Chokchai, Fongthip and Titaporn Prapasawudi as well as my grandparents, for their incomparable love and support throughout my life. I also would like to thank Titikorn Pimonpun for her love and moral support. My respect and gratitude also goes to Phra Ajarn Dhammasathit and Phra Ajarn Chalorm as well as people at Wat Pha Gothenburg for their guidance, assistance and kindness during my time in Sweden. Finally, I would like to thank my thesis partner, Igor Ackerberg, for his dedication to this thesis, without him this thesis would be impossible.

Parkpoom Prapasawudi

Göteborg, June 2009

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 VOLUNTEER TOURISM: A NEW TOURISM TREND?.....	1
1.2 CHALLENGES OF COMMERCIALIZATION	2
1.3 PROBLEM ANALYSIS AND OBJECTIVES	4
1.3.1 Research questions and purposes.....	4
1.3.2 Research objectives	5
1.4 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS	6
CHAPTER 2: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK.....	8
2.1 VOLUNTEER TOURISM.....	8
2.1.1 Defining volunteer tourism.....	8
2.1.2 Critique of volunteer tourism.....	11
2.1.3 Commodification and commercialization of volunteer tourism.....	12
2.2 MARKET SEGMENTATION	15
2.3 EXPECTATIONS, EXPERIENCE AND THEIR EFFECTS ON SATISFACTION.....	16
2.4 PERSONAL CONSTRUCT THEORY	18
2.5 SUMMARY OF LITERATURE REVIEW	20
CHAPTER 3: REPERTORY GRID TECHNIQUE.....	22
3.1 THE BASICS OF THE REPERTORY GRID TECHNIQUE	22
3.2 REPERTORY GRID STRUCTURE	23
3.3 REPERTORY GRID PROCESS	24
3.3.1 Elements selection	24
3.3.2 Construct elicitation.....	25
3.3.3 Linking constructs to elements	27
3.3.4 Analysis of the repertory grids	27
3.4 ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF THE TECHNIQUE	29
CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY.....	31
4.1 OVERALL FRAMEWORK OF THIS RESEARCH	31
4.2 SAMPLING OF RESPONDENTS.....	31
4.3 ELEMENT SELECTION	32

4.4 CONSTRUCT ELICITATION.....	33
4.5 FORMATION OF THE FINAL GRID	34
4.5.1 Content analysis.....	34
4.5.2 Instructions and example testing	35
4.5.3 Pilot testing	35
4.6 REPERTORY GRID LINKING.....	36
4.7 ANALYSIS OF THE GRIDS	36
4.7.1 Cluster analysis.....	36
4.7.2 Principal component analysis	37
4.7.3 Grids comparison.....	38
4.8 SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH PROCESS.....	39
CHAPTER 5: EMPIRICAL RESULTS	40
5.1 CONSTRUCT ELICITATION INTERVIEWS	40
5.2 REPERTORY GRIDS LINKING	40
5.3 ANALYSIS OF RESPONDENT A	41
5.3.1 Cluster Analysis.....	41
5.3.2 Principal component analysis	45
5.4 ANALYSIS OF RESPONDENT B	48
5.4.1 Cluster analysis.....	48
5.4.2 Principal component analysis	51
5.5 ANALYSIS OF THE AGGREGATED GRID	54
5.5.1 Cluster analysis.....	54
5.5.2 Principal component analysis	58
5.6 GRIDS COMPARISON	61
CHAPTER 6: ANALYSIS	63
6.1 PERCEPTIONS OF VOLUNTEER TOURISM	63
6.1.1 Majority opinion.....	63
6.1.2 Alternative view.....	64
6.2 VOLUNTEER TOURIST SEGMENT AND THEIR EXPECTATIONS.....	65
6.2.1 Majority of the volunteer tourist segment	65
6.2.2 Minority of the volunteer tourist segment	66

6.2.3 Differences in expectations.....	67
6.3 ANALYSIS OF THE REPERTORY GRID TECHNIQUE APPLICATION.....	68
6.3.1 Strengths of the repertory grid technique	68
6.3.2 Difficulties and problems	70
CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS	71
7.1 VOLUNTEER TOURISM.....	71
7.2 REPERTORY GRID TECHNIQUE	72
7.3 LIMITATIONS OF THIS RESEARCH	74
7.4 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH.....	75
REFERENCES.....	76
APPENDIX 1.....	81
APPENDIX 2.....	84
APPENDIX 3.....	87
APPENDIX 4.....	88
APPENDIX 5.....	89
APPENDIX 6.....	92
APPENDIX 7.....	93
APPENDIX 8.....	94
APPENDIX 9.....	97
APPENDIX 10.....	98
APPENDIX 11.....	99

TABLE OF FIGURES

FIGURE 2.1: A conceptual schema of alternative tourism.....	10
FIGURE 2.2: Service Quality Model.....	17
FIGURE 3.1: Repertory grid process and some of the possible alternatives for each stage.....	28
FIGURE 4.1: Overall framework of this research.....	39
FIGURE 5.1: Cluster analysis dendogram (respondent A).....	42
FIGURE 5.2: Filtered PC1-PC2 map (respondent A).....	46
FIGURE 5.3: Filtered PC1-PC3 map (respondent A).....	47
FIGURE 5.4: Cluster analysis dendogram (respondent B).....	49
FIGURE 5.5: Filtered PC1-PC2 map (respondent B).....	52
FIGURE 5.6: Filtered PC3-PC4 map (respondent B).....	53
FIGURE 5.7: Cluster analysis dendogram (aggregated grid).....	55
FIGURE 5.8: Filtered PC1-PC2 map (aggregated grid).....	59
FIGURE 5.9: Filtered PC2-PC3 map (aggregated grid).....	61

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 2.1: Potential positive and negative impacts of volunteer tourism on the community.....	13
TABLE 3.1: Example of repertory grid.....	24
TABLE 5.1: Personal construct clusters (respondent A).....	44
TABLE 5.2: Principal components and correlated constructs (respondent A).....	45
TABLE 5.3: Personal construct clusters (respondent B).....	50
TABLE 5.4: Principal components and correlated constructs (respondent B).....	51
TABLE 5.5: Personal construct clusters (aggregated grid).....	57
TABLE 5.6: Principal components and correlated constructs (aggregated grid).....	58

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Volunteer tourism: A new tourism trend?

Over the last few years the popularity of alternative tourism has been growing. This trend is responding to the belief that conventional mass tourism contributes to the exploitation of destinations' social and natural environments. The alternative tourism encompasses several forms of tourism that target different niche markets. One of the most visible forms of the growing sector of alternative tourism is *volunteer tourism*, *volunteer travel*, *volunteer vacation* or *voluntourism*. Volunteer tourism is a new form of tourism which “makes use of holiday-makers who volunteer to fund and work on conservation projects around the world and which aims to provide sustainable alternative travel that can assist in community development, scientific research or ecological restoration.” (Wearing, 2004, p. 217). It could be considered as a combination of ‘alternative tourism’ and ‘volunteerism’. This form of alternative tourism is aimed at so-called new tourists, who normally would like to be labeled as *travelers* instead of tourists, the term associated with traditional mass tourism (Mowforth & Munt, 1998). The new tourists are experienced travelers who seek unique, enticing (Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004), real, natural and authentic (Mowforth & Munt, 1998) holiday experiences. The new tourists who desire to make a difference during their holidays and participate in volunteer tourism could be identified as *volunteer tourists* or *volunteer travelers*.

Volunteer tourism has been viewed quite positively by the public, unlike other forms of tourism that evoke numerous controversial opinions. Volunteer tourism has been described as a more ethical way of tourism than the traditional mass tourism as its benefits are twofold. It allows travelers to offer something back to the destinations' social and natural environments and, at the same time, to engage in the processes of personal development, self-discovery and (re)-evaluation of personal values (Henderson, 1981 cited in Coghlan, 2006; Weiler & Richins, 1995 cited in Coghlan, 2006; Wearing, 2001; 2004; Ellis, 2003 cited in Coghlan, 2006; Galley & Clifton, 2004 cited in Coghlan, 2006). At the same time, volunteer organizations are able to recruit dedicated volunteers who possess time and financial resources to work on their conservation or improvement projects (Coghlan, 2006), which ultimately benefits destination communities. However, some authors indicate its possible negative impacts, mainly to the host communities, such as negligence of host communities' desires, the demonstration effect and the conceptualizations of the ‘other’ (Guttentag, 2009).

1.2 Challenges of commercialization

The dramatic rise of popularity of volunteer tourism is confirmed by the recent research conducted by Tourism Research and Marketing (2008), which estimates that there are 1.6 million people who spend their holiday by participating in volunteer tourism activities each year (cited in Guttentag, 2009). An intensive internet search also proves this point by displaying an abundance of volunteer tourism programs around the globe offered by many local and international environmental and social non-governmental organizations (NGOs), such as the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the World Wildlife Fund (WWF) and the Earthwatch Institute. Furthermore, this growing popularity of volunteer tourism also attracts other types of organization such as universities, religious organizations, governments as well as many private tourism companies to offer different volunteer holiday packages. These available packages can be as short as two or three weeks or as long as six months or more. There is also wide variety in terms of types of voluntary projects, which include, among others, community welfare, environmental conservation, research, education, construction, business and information technology development and healthcare (Callanan & Thomas, 2005).

The growing trend of volunteer tourism complemented by its broad selection of available packages in terms of both duration and type of work makes volunteer tourism more comparable with mainstream conventional mass tourism and requires further attention as to whether it is as good as it is claimed to be. The industry would be especially in danger of losing its true identity that differentiates it from other types of tourism if it becomes more commercialized (Wearing, 2001). If most 'sending organizations' (Raymond & Hall, 2008) are private companies, then the sense of egoism might overrun the sense of altruism, which could damage the industry along with social and natural environments associated with it. Environments and local communities would be in great danger if most volunteer tourists are driven by the egoistic motives of getting away, enjoying themselves or being in fashion.

Volunteer tourism is currently positively accepted by the public. Therefore, it has created larger market size for many non-profit organizations. At the same time, the attractiveness of this prosperous field also brings in more intense competition on both local and global levels. These non-profit organizations as well as NGOs, therefore, cannot rely only on their traditional approach to marketing and service management. They must be able to cope with more intense competition between themselves and, more importantly, with competition created by many private firms

entering the market. In order to survive in a more competitive industry, these not-for-profit organizations must be able to attract new markets, retain current volunteers and deal with competitors. They could achieve this by having the core marketing strategy, which involves carefully selecting key target segments, positioning the organization and then imposing a set of marketing mix to the target markets (Kotler & Andreasen, 2000). The first and most crucial step in accomplishing the core marketing strategy is getting to know the key target segments. The organizations must understand their prospective volunteers in order to attract the right persons to the projects, as mentioned by Kotler and Andreasen (2000, p. 273),

Recruiting volunteers is simply another marketing task and should proceed in a planned strategic way. The most important element of this is undoubtedly understanding the target audience. Thus, recruiting volunteers requires getting to know the target audiences through segmentation, prospect, motivational or image studies.

Understanding the target segments, therefore, becomes one of the key strategies for volunteer organizations. Currently, there are many organizations providing international volunteer packages and also many volunteers who would like to participate in such programs. This creates high possibility of discrepancies between volunteers' perceptions and the organizations' perceptions regarding volunteer tourism and the roles of volunteer tourists. Since details and conditions of most volunteer tourism packages are described vaguely by organizers, tourists' expectations could be different from what the organizations actually offer. *Egoism* versus *altruism* is one example in which volunteer tourists might have different expectations. This misfit between customers' expectations and organizations' perception of customers' expectations could deter the level of tourists' satisfaction as their actual experience does not meet with their prior expectations.

International volunteer projects are often promoted under the headline of "active vacation", which emphasizes this combination of traveling with socially responsible activities. Many organizations attract volunteers with mottos like 'Join us to build a fairer world' (Voluntary Service Overseas, 2009), 'Want to really make a difference?' (Earthwatch), or 'It's the Experience of a Lifetime' (Cross-Cultural Solutions, 2009). These slogans, combined with vague descriptions of the trips, could create vastly different expectations among volunteer tourists. The volunteer organizations, therefore, must clearly understand their respective target audiences and design their volunteer packages to satisfy their needs and wants as well as to benefit the environments and societies. Furthermore, the organizations must also have effective communication with potential clients in order to attract and enroll them.

1.3 Problem analysis and objectives

1.3.1 Research questions and purposes

Volunteer tourism is becoming a rapidly growing branch of tourism and people around the world are increasingly willing to combine traveling with volunteer work and participate in international volunteer projects. Volunteer tourism provides an opportunity to combine recreation with making contribution to the development of local communities (Wearing, 2004), therefore giving volunteer tourists possibilities for personal development, learning and communication (Clary & Snyder, 1999). At the same time international volunteering is obviously a way of traveling and seeing the world. It seems that volunteer tourism is quite different from conventional forms of tourism and offers experiences that are superior to what conventional tourism can provide.

A growing number of organizations around the world are offering volunteer trips. A potential volunteer can easily find a program which would offer a suitable type of activity virtually in any part of the world. A simple Internet search can result in an extensive list of various international volunteer programs in the sphere of natural conservation, social development, reconstruction, education etc. Vast international volunteer networks, which unite various volunteer organizations around the world, are being created.

At the same time it is obvious that volunteer tourism has entered the phase of commercialization and there is a growing number of profit oriented organizations offering volunteer packages, which significantly intensifies competition between and among not-for-profit and profit oriented organizations. This also increases the importance of segmenting, targeting and understanding customers' expectations.

The understanding of customer's expectations is widely believed to be the corner stone of service marketing (Zeithaml, Bitner & Gremler, 2006), and has serious implications for clients' satisfaction. Lack of understanding or incorrect understanding of customer's expectations by decision makers results in poor decisions, which lead to the discrepancy between customer's expectations and actual experience (Zeithaml et al., 2006). This discrepancy eventually results in overall dissatisfaction with the service (Zeithaml et al., 2006).

Attraction of new volunteers for both not-for-profit and profit oriented organizations depends greatly on the ability to develop programs which match the assumptions and expectations of

potential clients. Retention of volunteers depends on the level of volunteers' satisfaction with the programs, which is also dependent on the extent to which the offered program matches volunteers' expectations. Therefore, better understanding of volunteer tourists' cognition by tour organizers should result in better volunteer programs, increased number of enrolled volunteers, higher volunteer tourists' satisfaction and retention rates.

Furthermore, there is still no consensus concerning what exactly volunteer tourism is, and what makes people participate in this form of traveling. There is no agreed upon definition in the academic circles, and no common understanding of the issue. To what extent is volunteer tourism different from other types of tourism? Which types of tourism can be considered as similar to it, and which types can be considered its antipodes? What characteristics can be used to differentiate volunteer tourism from other types of tourism?

Therefore, another research purpose is to make one step closer to the understanding of what volunteer tourism actually is. It is often said that reality is socially constructed, which means that any phenomenon is actually what majority of people thinks about it. As a result, we think that one possible way of understanding the phenomenon of volunteer tourism is looking at how volunteer tourism is perceived by people participating in it.

1.3.2 Research objectives

This research is aimed at exploring volunteer tourists' expectations and perceptions regarding volunteer tourism by looking at their cognition. Better understanding of volunteer tourists' perceptions concerning themselves in relation to other types of tourists allows us to make conclusions concerning their assumptions and expectations.

The approach that was used in this research is based on the psychological theory of personal constructs and the repertory grid technique developed by Kelly (1955). Studying the constructs of people in the field of volunteer tourism should let us understand the way they perceive things and, as a consequence, better understand their expectations. The repertory grid technique was used for studying these individuals' constructs.

Both the personal construct theory and repertory grid technique have been underused by researchers in the field of tourism. Therefore, while looking at volunteer tourists' perceptions and expectations, we also tested the repertory grid technique and evaluated its applicability.

Originally, the research was intended to produce generalizable results regarding volunteer tourism using the repertory grid technique. However, only a small number of respondents was reached, which, consequently, limited the generalizability of the results. Therefore, research focuses were amended to concentrate on the evaluation of the repertory grid technique according to its application for this research as well as analyzing the results acquired from the limited sample.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

In chapter one, general ideas regarding the issue of volunteer tourism as well as its recent commercialization trend has been provided. Research questions to be answered were identified. Major approaches used in the research, which are the personal construct theory and the repertory grid technique, were introduced.

In chapter two, related theoretical frameworks and prior research publications will be discussed. The concept of volunteer tourism will be looked upon from both positive and negative perspectives. The recent commodification and commercialization trends of volunteer tourism will also be touched upon. The discussion of market segmentation and service quality models related to the commercialization of volunteer tourism will follow. The theoretical foundation of this research, the personal construct theory, will be explained in more details. The section will conclude with the summary of literature review.

In chapter three, the basics of the repertory grid technique, its structure, process, as well as its advantages and disadvantages will be discussed.

In chapter four, the methodology, which was adapted to fit the research context, will be discussed. First, the overall framework of this research will be touched upon, and then explanations of different stages, which are element selection, construct elicitation, formation of the final grid, repertory grid linking, and analysis of the results will conclude the chapter.

In chapter five, empirical results will be presented. It will contain the presentation of results from construct elicitation interviews and responses from the repertory grid questionnaires. The cluster analysis and principal component analysis results derived from two contrasting questionnaires as well as the aggregated grid from all respondents will be presented. All individual grids will be compared in order to highlight the areas with high level of disagreement.

In chapter six, we will discuss major analysis findings. Both positive and negative perceptions of volunteer tourism will be revealed; the characteristics of the volunteer tourist segment and their expectations will be expressed and the advantages and drawbacks identified during the application of the repertory grid technique will be explained.

In the final chapter, conclusions for both volunteer tourism sector and repertory grid technique application will be discussed. Both academic and practical implications of the repertory grid technique will be provided. Limitations of this research will be mentioned and directions for further research in the area will be suggested.

CHAPTER 2: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Volunteer tourism is a new type of alternative tourism that has grown tremendously throughout the world. This chapter begins with an overview of volunteer tourism to provide better understanding of the particular area including its recent commercialization trend. The chapter is followed by discussions of marketing theories on segmentation, expectations, experience and satisfaction as they are highly related to the commercialization of volunteer tourism. The personal construct theory, which is the theoretical foundation for the repertory grid technique, is presented.

2.1 Volunteer tourism

Despite the growing trend of volunteer tourism in recent years, there is only a limited amount of tourism literature that discusses this particular tourism phenomenon (Wearing, 2001; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004). Much of the literature concerning volunteer tourism describes its potential benefits without acknowledging its possible negative outcomes. Moreover, large number of research publications merely aim at characterizing the profile of volunteer tourists and their motivations (Guttentag, 2009).

Alternative tourism, in general, is also considered to be an undeveloped theme compared with abundant research and frameworks in the area of mainstream conventional mass tourism (Wearing, 2001; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004). Moreover, research in the area of volunteerism in non-profit organizations is also limited and lack coherent, well-established frameworks (Clary et al., 1998; Farmer & Fedor, 1999).

2.1.1 Defining volunteer tourism

Volunteer tourism is a relatively new form of tourism and only limited amount of research has been conducted to explore this phenomenon. There is a lack of coherence in defining the term ‘volunteer tourism’. The notion “volunteer tourism” stems from two elements, which are volunteerism and tourism. Volunteerism is related to sense of altruism and self-development, as volunteers work for something they believe in (Sheard, 1992; Wearing, 2001), most commonly it is helping to make a difference. According to Clary et al. (1998), volunteerism is a kind of *planned helping*, in which

volunteers (a) often actively seek out opportunities to help others; (b) may deliberate for considerable amounts of time about whether to volunteer, the extent of their involvement, and the degree to which particular activities fit with their own personal needs; and (c) may make a commitment to an ongoing helping relationship that may extend over a considerable period of time and that may entail considerable personal costs of time, energy, and opportunity. (Clary et al., 1998, p. 1517).

As for the other element, tourism, it refers to the temporary movement of people from their normal place of work and residence to other destinations with the purpose of engaging in certain activities (Wall & Mathieson, 2006). It has a commonly accepted definition by the World Tourism Organization (WTO) provided in the Tourism Satellite Account:

Tourism comprises the activities of persons traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited. (cited in Wall & Mathieson, 2006, p. 14).

Accordingly, it has been argued that the action of traveling to another country and voluntarily paying for the opportunity to perform volunteer activities such as teaching English to children, protecting sea turtles, or promoting ecotourism is considered to be another form of alternative tourism, namely “volunteer tourism”. However, there is still a lack of consensus in distinguishing volunteer tourism from other types of tourism as well as in defining the very notion “volunteer tourism”.

Many authors have proposed that volunteer tourism is a part of alternative tourism (Wearing, 2001; 2002; Brown & Morrison, 2003; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Callanan & Thomas, 2005; Lyons & Wearing, 2008). However, some authors have associated volunteer tourism with the sphere of ecotourism and called it ‘volunteer ecotourism’, while casting some doubts on whether it could be a better form of eco-tourism (Coghlan, 2006; Gray & Campbell, 2007). Wearing (2001) proposed that volunteer tourism fits within the area of alternative tourism while overlapping with other forms of tourism within this category (see Figure 2.1).

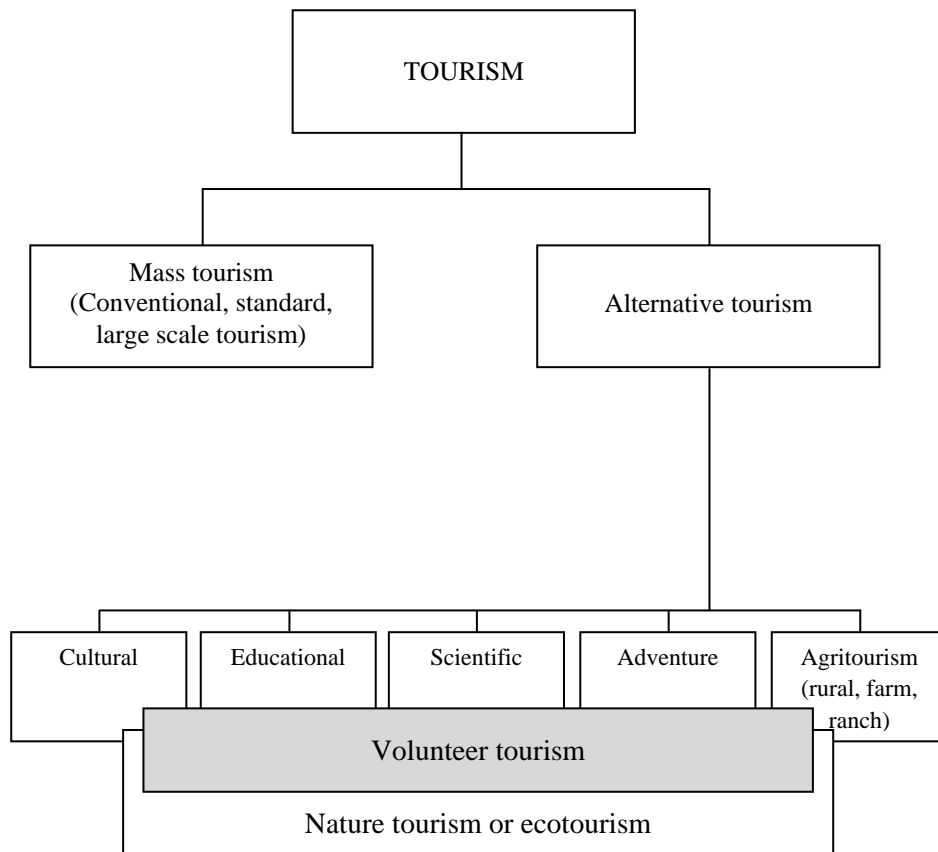


Figure 2.1: A conceptual schema of alternative tourism. (Source: Wearing, S., 2001, p. 30)

Apart from the lack of coherence on where volunteer tourism should fit within the tourism industry, there are also many available definitions of volunteer tourism. Many authors recognize it as a better form of tourism as compared to conventional mass tourism and a stepping-stone towards an ‘ideal’ type of tourism, which is sustainable tourism. In the most commonly cited definition of volunteer tourism, Wearing (2001, p. 1) related volunteer tourism with a sense of altruism and defined it as encompassing “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.” Scheyvens (2002, p. 102) viewed volunteer tourism as a more justified form of tourism than mass tourism and claimed that it “may involve individuals from Western countries paying to come to the Third World to assist with development or conservation work, as they desire to achieve something more meaningful than a pleasure-filled, self-indulgent holiday.” In addition to that, this type of “recreation” can provide enhanced opportunities for communication with local people and peers coming from different corners of the world, which results in potentially deeper understanding not only of the culture of the country, but also of the cultures of other volunteers. For some volunteer

organizations, this genre of tourism is exhibited as providing opportunities to make a difference for both travelers and destinations. They also portray unique experiences that harmoniously combine travel and social services. As mentioned by VolunTourism International (2009), VolunTourism is “[t]he *conscious*, seamlessly integrated combination of voluntary service to a destination and the best, traditional elements of travel — arts, culture, geography, history *and recreation* — in that destination.” Most of these international volunteer organizations present their organizations as either focusing on (1) the research to be completed during the research conservation trips, (2) the holiday experience that allow participants to discover local culture, view different scenery and participate in adventurous activities, or (3) the personal development opportunities of the volunteer through adventure and cross-cultural interactions (Coghlan, 2007).

In conclusion, volunteer tourism tends to be described as a form of tourism that nurtures a mutually beneficial relationship between tourists and destinations. It encourages the notions of give-and-take, care for the social and natural environments and helping to make a difference. Therefore, it is viewed as more rewarding and meaningful as compared to other types of tourism and could be a starting point for sustainable tourism (McIntosh & Zahra, 2007). The central ideas of volunteer tourism are focused on the opportunity of travelers’ altruistic action, self-discovery, self-development and (re)-evaluation of personal values and the assistance that can be offered to the host in terms of social development, scientific research or cultural and ecological conservation or restoration (Henderson, 1981 cited in Coghlan, 2006; Weiler & Richins, 1995 cited in Coghlan, 2006; Wearing, 2001; 2002; 2004; Ellis, 2003 cited in Coghlan, 2006; Higgins-Desbiolles, 2003; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Callanan & Thomas, 2005; Galley & Clifton, 2004 cited in Coghlan, 2006).

2.1.2 Critique of volunteer tourism

At present, volunteer tourism has a great acceptance by the public, including many academics in this field, who clearly present this industry in a positive way. Nevertheless, some, but far fewer, authors are critical about volunteer tourism and believe that it is not much better than other types of tourism, since it produces both positive and negative effects on the social and natural environments. Local societies are vulnerable to adverse effects of all types of tourism including volunteer tourism. Guttentag (2009) reveals some of possible negative impacts of volunteer tourism, which are neglect of locals’ needs and desires, hindering of work progress and unsatisfactory quality of work, decreased local labor demand, promotion of dependency, conceptualization of stereotypes of the

'other', poverty rationalization and cultural change created by the demonstration effect as well as short-term mission trips. Higher degree of dependency and curtailment of self-sufficiency in host communities are also likely to materialize from constant flood of volunteer tourists into the societies (McIntosh & Zahra, 2007; McGehee & Andereck, 2008). Cross-cultural understanding and self-evaluation opportunities that are claimed by many sending organization to be advantages of volunteer trips are also unproven and questioned by Simpson (2004) and Raymond and Hall (2008). These possible negative effects are even more likely to happen if volunteer tourism industry undergoes intensified commercialization. Wearing (2001) warns that the associated communities and environments would be in a great risk if volunteer tourism becomes over-commercialized.

Due to the lack of adequate regulations in volunteer tourism industry and its commercialization, some tourism supervisory bodies have voiced their concerns about the sector. They are particularly worry about such problems as incompetent volunteers, companies trying to take advantage of the volunteers, ignorance of local people's desires and short-term nature of the trips (Fitzpatrick, 2007). They perceive volunteer tourism as a new form of colonialism (Fitzpatrick, 2007). Therefore, volunteer tourism should not be perceived as truly sustainable tourism as it still needs to be proven to be so in the long run. The potential positive and negative impacts of volunteer tourism on the community are summarized by McGehee and Andereck (2008) as shown in Table 2.1.

2.1.3 Commodification and commercialization of volunteer tourism

Tourism industry has long been criticized for producing many negative impacts on societies due to the commodification and commercialization of culture, heritage, traditions and environment (Mowforth & Munt, 1998; Wall & Mathieson, 2006). The process of commodification and commercialization is particularly associated with mass tourism. Commodification or commoditization process associated with the tourism industry is the process in which cultural traditions, arts, rituals, landscapes or any other local tangible or intangible assets are transformed into a tourism product that is easily marketable and consumable (Wall & Mathieson, 2006). The original values of these local assets diminish and local people see them as new means of generating income instead of appreciating them as local treasures. Most tourists, inarguably, desire an authentic experience, however, it is them who stimulate the commodification of host communities and reduce their authenticity. Third World places, landscapes and people are turned into commodities and sold as tourist packages to the affluent tourists from Western countries (Mowforth & Munt, 1998).

Positive impacts	Negative impacts
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cross-cultural interaction between volunteer tourists and the voluntoured can result in increased understanding for both groups 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If individuals stay home and volunteer, they can save the travel costs and put those resources (both time and money) towards local volunteer efforts as well as eliminate the environmental impact of travel
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Volunteer tourists may better see the connection between local actions and global effects 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Volunteer tourists may drain valuable resources that might otherwise go to local residents
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Volunteer tourists may increase their understanding of international issues by seeing them directly (border issues, environmental issues, etc.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If not properly briefed before visiting, the behaviour of volunteer tourists can negatively impact the culture of local communities and offend residents
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Volunteer tourists may return home inspired to get more involved in environmental or social issue organizations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As with mass tourism, if carrying capacity is exceeded, environmental damage may occur
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improvement of the quality of life for targeted individuals and host communities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Volunteer tourist activities may be conducted in a way that undermines the dignity of local residents
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Volunteer tourists may have a more positive economic impact on host communities than mass tourists through more direct injections of resources into communities and less leakage 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An environment of dependency may arise as residents begin to rely on volunteer tourists to provide economic support for their communities
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Volunteer tourists are able to subsidize social programmes in areas with minimal government and private financial resources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Volunteer tourism may negatively influence perceived dignity and self-esteem among residents
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Volunteer tourists provide services in areas that do not have a culture of volunteerism among local residents 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The environment of dependency and despondency may be transferred to the next generation thereby perpetuating the problem

Table 2.1: Potential positive and negative impacts of volunteer tourism on the community (Source: McGehee, N. G. & Andereck, K., 2008, p. 22)

As a consequence, ecotourism, as the leading form of alternative tourism, has grown tremendously with the anticipation of becoming the ideal type of tourism that promotes symbiotic relationship between tourism, indigenous people and natural resources (King & Stewart, 1996). However, the ecotourism industry could not isolate itself from the strong flow of global capitalism. It has now undergone commodification and is becoming another type of tourist package being commercialized to the mass tourism market. By this instance, it is highly probable that ecotourism is as dangerous as, if not more dangerous than, mass tourism in producing negative impacts on the social and natural environments of host communities (King & Stewart, 1996).

The emergence of volunteer tourism has become a new hope in the tourism industry in reaching the ideal of sustainable tourism. Volunteer tourism was originated by many not-for-profit organizations with the primary purpose of helping communities, while making profits was their secondary aim (Wearing, 2001). The earliest volunteer travelers chose it as an alternative path to traveling allowing them to contribute to society and make a difference during their trips. Altruistic desire to help other

communities was the main motivation of the early international volunteers (Wearing, 2001). During recent period, however, volunteer tourism has undergone substantial commodification and commercialization. The industry has attracted great numbers of large tourism companies to offer volunteer tourism packages. Extensive selection of international volunteering packages is now being offered to interested participants. It is now easier than ever to participate in one of such packages, when almost everything is prepared for the volunteers, they just need to choose and pay the participant fees.

Furthermore, large networks of volunteer organizations are also being created. For example, Service Civil International, a volunteer organization which coordinates short and long term volunteer projects worldwide, has 43 branches and groups around the world and unites a growing number of partner organizations (Service Civil International, 2007). The organization offers projects in the sphere of nature conservation, social work (organization of festivals, activities for certain groups of population etc.), teaching, construction and many more (Service Civil International, 2007). Alliance of European Voluntary Organizations, another international non-governmental youth organization based in Europe, unites 43 member organizations from 27 countries in Europe, Asia and America (Alliance of European Voluntary Organizations, 2007). The organization aims at providing structure for member organizations in order to facilitate cooperation between the organizations involved in the international voluntary service (Alliance of European Voluntary Organizations, 2007). UNESCO's Co-ordinating Committee for International Voluntary Service works with about 300 organizations worldwide and has about 100 full and associated members (Co-ordinating Committee for International Voluntary Service). United Nations is actively involved in the voluntary service through its United Nations Volunteers organization, which is represented in 140 countries through the offices of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (United Nations Development Programme). These are just a few examples which can give an idea of the growing number of organizations offering this type of tourism. The opportunities and options are obviously very vast and a potential volunteer just needs to choose.

International volunteering has become a new type of tourism product. Even a travel guidebook publisher Lonely Planet published a guidebook exclusively for those interested in participating in international volunteering (Lonely Planet Publications, 2009). Greater commercialization of volunteer tourism industry, therefore, leaves the initiators like NGOs or non-profit organizations, inevitably, facing more intense competition from both NGOs themselves and from private

companies. This greater competition is forcing non-profit organizations to concentrate their operations not only on the non-profit goals, but also on commercial activities (Tuckman, 1998). The effect of a more commercialized mindset of the nonprofits will make it difficult for the public to evaluate the effectiveness of such non-profit organizations in achieving their charitable goals (Tuckman, 1998). It is, therefore, dangerous for the associated societies and environments if volunteer tourism undergoes extensive commodification and commercialization (Wearing, 2001). Sending organizations might try every means to satisfy volunteer tourists by offering some kind of voluntary works that go against local's desire (Guttentag, 2009). The genuine altruistic desire of helping the communities by non-profit volunteer organizations could be replaced by an egoistic desire of business profit in order to be able to survive in the intense capitalist market.

2.2 Market segmentation

People (or market), obviously, have different individual preferences and expectations. Firms must be able to look at the heterogeneous market as consisting of numerous small homogeneous markets and segregate them into different segments (Smith, 1956). Kotler and Andreasen (2000, p. 268) noted that “[s]egmenting the market requires partitioning the market into subgroups which are mutually exclusive, exhaustive, measurable, accessible, substantial, and possessing differential responsiveness.” Market segmentation is essential, since firms can choose their target audiences from the market segments which have potential to purchase their products or services. Firms, then, can focus their attention on the target audiences and be able to meet their needs with precision (Smith, 1956). Smith (1956, p. 5) states that “[s]egmentation is based upon developments on the demand side of the market and represents a rational and more precise adjustment of product and marketing effort to consumer or user requirements.” There are many different bases that marketers normally use to segment the market. The measures used can be general information that can be easily identified such as age, gender, geographic information, income and marital status. Marketers can also use other measures that are more difficult to distinguish but can prove to be more useful in targeting the segments. Values and lifestyles are the examples of such measures.

Volunteer tourism organizations must attract, recruit and retain volunteers in order to accomplish their missions. Therefore, segmenting the tourist market and selecting target segments which share values and understanding with the organizations is essential for the success of the organizations. The most significant step in recruiting volunteers from the target segments is getting to know them (Kotler & Andreasen, 2000) and their expectations. It is presently recognized that travelers that

engage in international volunteer tourism differ from conventional mass tourists. This segment of the market is commonly referred to as 'volunteer tourists', which belongs to the niche market segment of 'alternative tourists' or 'new tourists' (Wearing, 2001; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Coghlan, 2006). The emergence of large segment of new tourists could be linked with the new middle classes' struggle for cultural and class superiority (Stauth & Turner, 1988 cited in Mowforth & Munt, 1998). These volunteer tourists tend to have different lifestyles, values and personal constructs as compared to mass tourists since these two groups appreciate different types of tourist experience (Wearing, 2001; 2004). However, the 'volunteer tourist' sector itself is not homogeneous or unproblematic. Some volunteer tourists see themselves or are perceived by host organizations and communities as volunteers, some others as tourists (Lyons, 2003), yet others as *special type* of tourists (Gray & Campbell, 2007).

2.3 Expectations, experience and their effects on satisfaction

Understanding customers' expectations is proved to be an important marketing strategy for every firm in today's competitive environment. Expectation can influence customer's satisfaction, and, as a consequence, customer's satisfaction can influence customer's loyalty. One way of looking at the process of consumer's satisfaction formation is the analysis of consumer's expectations and perceptions. It is commonly accepted that a comparison process between prior purchase expectations and perceived actual performance could affect the level of customer's satisfaction (Woodruff, Cadotte & Jenkins, 1983). The disconfirmation theory, under which customer's satisfaction is regarded as dependent on disconfirmation between consumption experience and prior expectations, is a widely accepted view on the way customer's satisfaction is formed (Cadotte, Woodruff & Jenkins, 1987). The four main concepts of the disconfirmation paradigm are: expectations, performance, disconfirmation and satisfaction (Churchill & Surprenant, 1982). This comparison process between expectations and experience normally results in either confirmation or disconfirmation of customer's expectations. Whenever actual performance of the provider matches customer's expectations, his/her expectations are confirmed. However, a mismatch between customer's expectations and provider's actual performance can create both positive and negative disconfirmation (Woodruff et al., 1983). Positive disconfirmation is likely to occur when actual performance is perceived to be higher than the prior expectations, while negative disconfirmation happens when actual performance is perceived to be lower than the prior expectations (Woodruff et al., 1983). This confirmation/disconfirmation cognition process influences customer's satisfaction

or dissatisfaction (Woodruff et al., 1983), in which a customer is likely to be satisfied if his/her expectations are confirmed or positively disconfirmed while he/she is likely to be dissatisfied if his/her expectations are negatively disconfirmed.

Authors in service marketing area consider this process of comparing expectations and actual performance as essential for service provider's success. Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1985) introduced a commonly accepted model of service quality, in which service providers must strive to provide services that meet their customers' expectations. The process includes influencing customers' expected service through external communication, management's understanding of their customers' expectations, which is translated into service specifications and delivery of service which matches their expectations (see Figure 2.2).

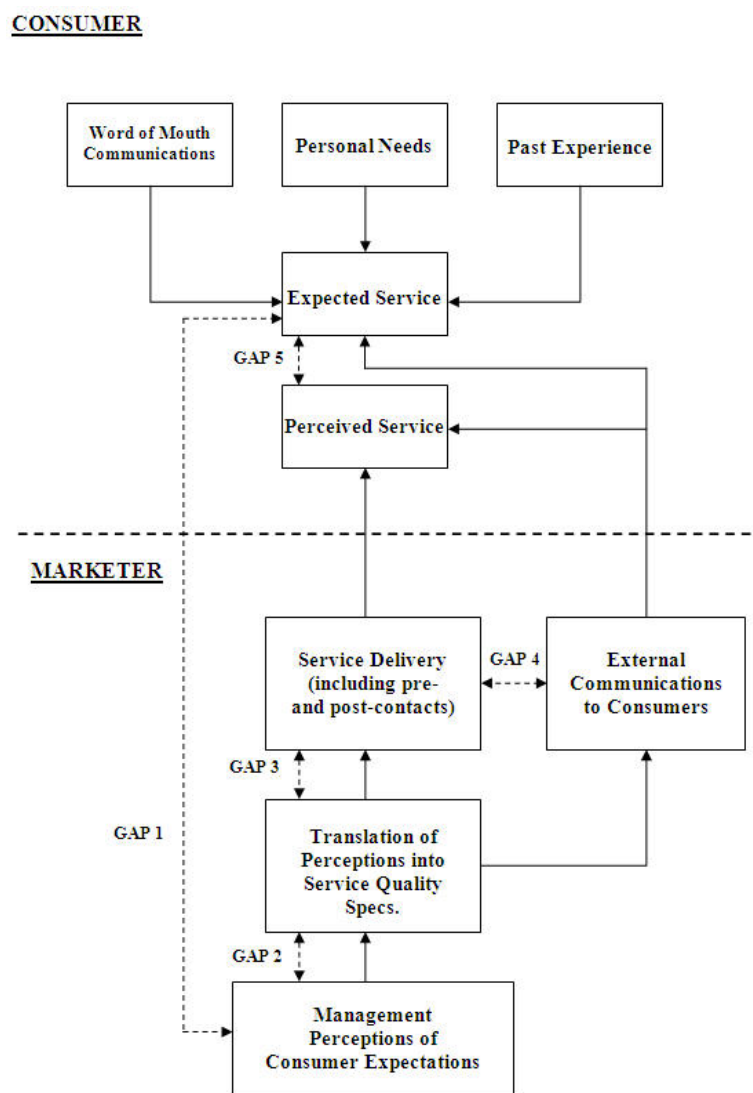


Figure 2.2: Service Quality Model (Source: Parasuraman et al., 1985, p. 44)

One of the most important elements of this service quality model is ‘management perceptions of consumer expectations’, which is equivalent to firm’s understanding of customers’ expectations. This understanding is a crucial step in service delivery as if a firm wrongly perceives customers’ expected services, it is almost impossible for the firm to deliver service that matches its customers’ expectations. Therefore, misunderstanding of customers’ expectations could lead to customers’ dissatisfaction.

People engaging in volunteer activities are motivated by many different reasons such as ‘helping the environment’, ‘expressing their values’, ‘learning about the natural environment’ or ‘socializing with people with similar interests’ (Bruyere & Rappe, 2007). Volunteer tourists who possess different motivations are, therefore, likely to have different expectations and preferences regarding volunteer journeys. Some volunteers who are driven by a chance to help the environment might expect volunteer trips to contain opportunities to conserve and restore the nature. Meanwhile, other volunteers who are motivated by a chance to interact with other people with similar interests might expect the trips to have some free time to allow them to socialize with other volunteers. Volunteer organizations must understand volunteer tourists’ expectations in order to select target segments that best suit their missions. Once the organizations are able to recruit the right persons for the right projects, they have better chances of achieving their objectives. Volunteer tourists are also likely to be more satisfied if volunteer organizations understand their expectations and offer volunteer expedition packages that match their expectations.

2.4 Personal construct theory

Personal construct theory and its counterpart, the repertory grid technique, have rarely been employed by researchers in the field of tourism (Coshall, 2000) in general, and volunteer tourism in particular. Personal construct theory has been used in many fields particularly in marketing. For example, product testing to better understand customers’ attributes of importance that influence their buying decisions.

Our research will rely on the theory of personal constructs and the repertory grid technique developed by George Kelly in the beginning of 1950s. Personal constructs (a term coined by Kelly) are patterns which a person creates and then puts upon the surrounding reality in order to make sense of it (Kelly, 1955). Constructs are bipolar, which means that they consist of two opposite poles. For example, a construct of “goodness” consists of two opposite poles: good and bad.

Therefore, the person, who uses this construct to make sense of reality, subdivides surrounding phenomena and categorizes them into groups according to the extent these phenomena are similar or different in terms of “goodness” (Rogers & Ryals, 2006). According to Kelly (1955, p. 105), construct is “a way in which some things are construed as being alike and yet different from others.” Constructs are used for forecasting and individuals use them for predicting and controlling events as scientists use hypotheses (Kelly, 1955). For example, a little child may be told by his parents that breaking windows is a bad action. If this child breaks a window and gets punished by the parents, he/she may come to the conclusion that the consequence of bad action is punishment. Thus, a child may classify all actions as either good or bad and imply that punishment will be the consequence of all actions which are classified as bad actions. This means the child uses the “good-bad” construct to predict and control the consequences of his/her actions (i.e. the construct forms the child’s expectations regarding certain actions, when “bad” actions are expected to result in punishment and “good” actions are expected to result in praise).

According to Kelly (1955), abstraction is essential for this process of sense-making. Kelly states that construct itself is an abstraction. When an individual experiences a set of events he/she tries to extract some property that repeats itself, and when such property has been extracted it becomes possible to use these properties for evaluating future events. In the previous “childish” example, a child may be told that breaking a window is a bad action. On another occasion the child may be told that breaking a vase is a bad action as well. Thus the child may notice that breaking any valuable property is considered to be a bad action. Next time this little child is tempted to break father’s watch, he/she is likely to try to predict the consequences of his/her actions using the acquired constructs (i.e. valuable/not valuable, good/bad). The child will realize (using numerous other constructs) that father’s watch is a “valuable” object, and therefore the action of breaking the watch will be considered to be a “bad” action, which will probably lead to punishment or reprimand. Just like in this example, each individual, according to Kelly, tries to extract repeating properties of numerous events and build constructs, which will be subsequently used for predicting and controlling events.

Kelly’s notion that constructs are used for predicting and controlling events is very important in the context of this research, since it means that constructs are related to individuals’ expectations. Understanding of individual’s constructs may help to see how this individual looks upon things and tries to predict certain events (i.e. what kind of expectation he/she has).

It is important to note, that, according to Kelly (1955), construct systems are not rigid and may (and should) be revised as an individual gains more experience. Kelly states that individuals constantly add new constructs and revise old ones in order to make their construct systems more effective in predicting and controlling events.

2.5 Summary of literature review

The review of literature provides us with the understanding of volunteer tourism as a new form of alternative tourism. There is a limited amount of available research in this field, and consensus in defining and explaining the growing phenomenon of volunteer tourism is still lacking. Wearing (2001; 2002; 2004) along with many other authors perceive volunteer tourism as associated with a sense of altruism and having great potentials in reaching the ideal state of sustainable tourism. At the same time, Simpson (2004), Guttentag (2009) and few others critically review the sector and present its potential negative impacts on environment and society. Volunteer tourism is also facing flood of global capitalism and becoming more commercialized. International volunteerism activities are assembled into wide variety of volunteer tourism packages. Private tourism companies are entering the sector of volunteer tourism which was largely dominated by nonprofits and NGOs.

Commercialization of volunteer tourism makes it even more essential to look at the sector from a marketing perspective. Two major marketing issues have been considered in the literature review process: *market segmentation* and *customer's expectation*. Market segmentation, the process of partitioning one heterogeneous market into many small homogeneous markets, is important for volunteer organizations for targeting their marketing strategies to attract the right groups of people. These people are referred to as *volunteer tourist*; some of them see themselves or are perceived by host organizations and communities as volunteers, however, others see themselves or are perceived as tourists (Lyons, 2003), or *special type* of tourists (Gray & Campbell, 2007).

Woodruff et al. (1983) and Parasuraman et al. (1985) emphasize the importance of understanding customer's expectations as a means to achieve high customer's satisfaction. The disconfirmation model (Woodruff et al., 1983) and the service quality model (Parasuraman et al., 1985) explain the process in which customers compare their prior-purchase expectations and perceived actual performance of the provider. Since volunteer tourists are motivated by many different reasons, they are likely to have different expectations concerning their trips. Hence, understanding their various

expectations is important for volunteer organizations to attract, satisfy and retain the right people to achieve both their charitable and business goals.

Personal construct theory explains that individuals try to extract repeating properties of many events around them and build their personal constructs to make sense of the surrounding reality and to predict and control events (Kelly, 1955). Since constructs are used by individuals to predict and control events, they are related to individuals' expectations, which are our major focus. Understanding volunteer tourists' personal construct systems can allow us to better understand their expectations and, as a consequence, better understand the sector of volunteer tourism.

CHAPTER 3: REPERTORY GRID TECHNIQUE

3.1 The basics of the repertory grid technique

In this section we will briefly look upon the repertory grid technique and some theoretical issues associated with its use. Repertory grid technique is quite a flexible method and certain modifications can be introduced depending on research objectives. A general description of the method and its most important aspects will be discussed in the following section before proceeding to the description of the methodology.

The repertory grid technique is a method of investigating the construct systems and extracting constructs which are used by individuals for making sense of reality. The technique was developed by George Kelly and is based on the psychology of the personal constructs also developed by him. The theory of personal constructs was briefly discussed in section 2.4. Originally, the repertory grid technique was devised to be used in the clinical psychology settings and applied for investigating individual patients. But since then it has attracted the attention of researchers working in other fields. Fransella and Bannister (1977) suggest that the grid technique can be regarded as a special form of structured interview, which has certain advantages as compared to the conventional structured interview (the advantages and disadvantages of the repertory grid technique will be discussed later). Fransella and Bannister (1977) note that the usual way of understanding other persons views concerning the surrounding reality is conversation, and repertory grid technique provides an opportunity to formalize the process of conversation and reflect the relationships between the construct's in mathematical terms, which gives a wide range of possibilities for statistical analysis.

The repertory grid technique is widely used in the sphere of brand management where it is aimed at understanding how customers perceive and differentiate between brands and what kind of brand images they have (Rogers & Ryals, 2006). In business-to-business context, the technique is often used to improve the understanding between partners and shed some light on how decisions are made (Rogers & Ryals, 2006). In the sphere of IT, repertory grid tests can help to improve the quality of understanding between users of IT products and technologists, as well as to better understand the reasons of disagreements between different groups (e.g. users and IT managers) (Tan & Hunter, 2002).

3.2 Repertory grid structure

The repertory grid consists of three main components: elements, constructs and linkages. The elements are any objects, people, events or anything else which is put under consideration (with the help of constructs) by an individual. The elements in any grid should refer to the area of researcher's interest. For example, Smith (1980), who used the repertory grid technique for the analysis of three managerial jobs, used a list of tasks performed by each of three managers as elements for his grid. Hankinson (2004) in his research on destination images used British towns as elements of the repertory grid. Coshall (2000) in his research on tourist images used London museums and galleries as elements of the repertory grid. For the child (interested in predicting his parents' reaction for his/her actions) from the example presented in the previous section, the elements are actions.

The second component of the repertory grid is constructs. According to Kelly (1955) constructs are patterns which are created by individuals and put upon the surrounding phenomena for making sense and predicting events. Constructs are bipolar, which means that they consist of contrasting poles. If we use the example of little child again, he/she might interpret and categorize his/her actions in terms of certain constructs. Since many parents often tell their children that some actions are good while some actions are bad, a child might use this basic general construct (i.e. the construct of "goodness" consisting of "good" and "bad" as opposite poles) for making sense of his/her actions and predicting parents' reaction. This means that the child's actions (i.e. elements) are understood with the help of the construct of "goodness", where "good" is opposed to "bad".

The third component of the repertory grid is linkages. Linkage is the way each element is described in terms of a construct. Firstly, linkages can take a form of ranking, when elements are rank ordered according to the extent they are associated with the poles of each construct. Secondly, linking can be made through rating. In this case each element is assigned a score against each construct in the grid. Another option is dichotomizing. Here elements are labeled as being associated with either the left or the right pole of each construct (Tan & Hunter, 2002). For example, the child from our example might consider his/her actions to be not equally bad or good: some actions are very bad, some are bad, some are good and some are very good. If we use a 4 point scale all actions can be rated by the child as either very good, good, bad or very bad. The numbers which will be assigned to each action will, therefore, link each element with a construct and show how each element is looked upon in terms of each construct.

The resultant repertory grid containing only one construct on the basis of the simple example about the child trying to make sense of his/her actions is presented in Table 3.1. This simple grid shows that possible actions are looked upon in terms of being either good or bad. The rating of the elements shows how actions are interpreted by the child in terms of their “goodness”. For example, “Reading a book” is rated as closest to the left construct pole “good”. The action “Playing football” is also regarded as a “good” action, but not as good as “Reading the book”. Meanwhile, “Breaking window” is rated as closest to the right construct pole meaning that the child perceives this action as “very bad”.

Construct pole (1)	Elements				Construct pole (4)
	Breaking window	Reading a book	Making noise	Playing football	
Good	4	1	3	2	Bad

Table 3.1: Example of repertory grid (Source: own example)

3.3 Repertory grid process

The process of forming a repertory grid can be subdivided into the following main stages: 1) selection of elements to be used in the grid, 2) construct elicitation, 3) linking (or rating), 4) analysis of the repertory grid.

3.3.1 Elements selection

The selection of elements for the repertory grid primarily depends on the objectives of the research. As was mentioned above, the elements used in the grid should refer to the topic of the research. It is important to note that elements can be either elicited or supplied by the interviewer. For example, Smith (1980) in his research devoted to the analysis of managerial jobs asked the managers to keep a log of the tasks they performed during a period of ten days. After this the received logs were aggregated and delivered back to the managers who were asked to add the tasks which they might perform at other times of the year (Smith, 1980). The resultant lists of tasks received from different managers were used as elements in the grid. Rogers and Ryals (2007) in their research of the key account relationships also elicited the grid elements asking interviewed managers to provide three examples of effective relationships and three examples of non-effective relationships from their personal managerial experience. Nevertheless, in some cases it is more logical to supply elements

instead of eliciting them from interviewees (e.g. when the researcher is specifically interested in understanding the views concerning a particular subject). For instance, the research aimed at identification of determinant attributes of universities conducted by Pike (2004) used supplied elements for the grid. Since the research was aimed at studying the perceptions of one particular campus, the campus management decided to supply nine elements, which included the campus itself and eight closest competitors (Pike, 2004). Analogically, Hankinson (2004) in his research on images of UK destinations chose 15 UK destinations and supplied them to the interviewees.

3.3.2 Construct elicitation

The second stage, construct elicitation, involves extraction of constructs used by the interviewees for making sense of the elements and differentiating them. Construct elicitation can be performed in many different forms. Some of the main types of construct elicitation include elicitation by triads of elements (also referred to as triadic method of elicitation), by dyads of elements, laddering, construction of pyramids or self characterization (Fransella & Bannister, 1977). The classical method of construct elicitation was described by Kelly (1955) and implies the use of element triads. Kelly (1955) proposed six types of the triadic method. The first one, the minimum context card form, is the most widely used method. The elements used in the grid are written on separate cards. The interviewee is presented with three cards (i.e. three elements) at a time and asked to tell in what way two of the presented elements are alike and still different from the third one. The likeness between the two elements is the first pole of the elicited construct, and the way in which the two elements differ from the third one is the opposite pole of the elicited construct. The second type of triadic method described by Kelly (1955) is the full context form. Here all the cards are put in front of the interviewee who is asked to tell in what ways the presented groups of elements are alike. Then the interviewee is supposed to pick two cards and tell in what way they are alike, and then to pick the next card and either add it to the first two cards or take it away (eventually all elements are supposed to be divided into groups). The interviewee is asked if the same category as in case of the first two cards is still used. The third type, sequential form, is a modification of the minimum context form. Here every new triad contains only one new element as compared to the preceding triad, and elements are, therefore, rotated systematically. The fourth form, self-identification form, is the sequential form where the only difference is that the element “myself” (if elements are people or roles, for example) is always present in the triad. The fifth form, personal role form, is a self-identification form, but in this case the interviewee is asked to model a situation and imagine that

three persons (elements) are in one place and then describe the possible actions and behavior of the three persons. The sixth type is the full context form with personal role feature. Here all elements (people or roles) are divided into groups and then the element “myself” is put into each pile and the interviewee is asked what would happen if he/she was supposed to spend an evening with these people.

Another method of construct elicitation is elicitation by dyads of elements (Fransella & Bannister, 1977). The interviewee is simply asked to say in what way the two elements are alike and different from each other. Laddering is another form of construct elicitation. Laddering is the technique which is particularly useful for eliciting higher-order (or superordinate) constructs (which are often associated with personal values), and can be used in combination with other elicitation methods (Jankowicz, 2004). In the case of laddering, the interviewee is asked to concentrate on one specific construct and say which pole he/she prefers. Then, the interviewee is asked to explain why he/she prefers the chosen pole and then asked to identify the contrasting pole (Jankowicz, 2004). Constructs can also be elicited by constructing pyramids. This method is analogous to the laddering technique, but in case of pyramiding the goal is to elicit more precise and detailed constructs (Jankowicz, 2004). Fransella and Bannister (1977) note that the movement in the case of laddering is upwards (i.e. resulting in more general constructs), while movement in the case of pyramiding is downwards (i.e. aimed at providing more details and elaborating the previously elicited constructs). The interviewee is asked to choose one pole of already existing construct and explain in more detail what it means, and then identify the opposite pole of the newly elicited pole. This means that through pyramiding one construct can be expanded to four constructs, which will describe a given issue in a more detailed way.

Another possibility of generating construct list is to supply constructs. Researchers supply their own constructs into the grid instead of eliciting them from the respondent. This approach might be more convenient, but it should be kept in mind that it moves away from the original Kelly’s approach, which implied working with individualized grids. Fransella and Bannister (1977), nevertheless, suggest that in some situations it is not reasonable to strictly follow the classic individualized approach and it is better to use supplied constructs. It is important to note that supplied constructs may be regarded as verbal labels, to which people can attach their own meanings (Fransella & Bannister, 1977). It means that even though the wording of the construct is not provided by the respondent it still can be meaningful, since he/she can interpret the supplied construct in his/her

own terms. In order to make sure that the supplied constructs are meaningful for a certain group of people, it is possible to elicit a sample of constructs from a comparable group or group itself and then supply the commonly used constructs back to the group or a larger number of people (Fransella & Bannister, 1977). This approach is widely used and may be preferable depending on the objectives of the research. For example, in the research by Latta and Swigger (1992) the constructs elicited from a professor were supplied to a group of students with the aim of identifying to what extent they share the views on one issue.

3.3.3 Linking constructs to elements

The construct elicitation stage is followed by linking. This process allows to see how the elements are ordered in the personal construct system. As mentioned earlier, linking is usually made in the form of ranking, rating or dichotomizing (Tan & Hunter, 2002). In the case of ranking, the interviewee is asked to rank order the given elements across each construct (i.e. the interviewee simply uses a scale which corresponds with the number of elements in the grid). Rating implies assigning certain score to each element across each construct. Different scales can be used for rating (e.g. 5-point, 6-point, 7-point or other scales). Jankowicz (2004) notes that larger scales give more possibilities to differentiate between the elements and include more shades of grey, but at the same time are more difficult to use for the interviewees. In the case of dichotomizing the interviewee is simply asked to sort all elements to either of the two contrasting poles of each constructs.

3.3.4 Analysis of the repertory grids

The final stage implies the aggregation of individual grids (if a researcher deals with groups of individuals) and analysis of the data contained in the grid using various quantitative and qualitative methods. In order to aggregate individual grids (which are likely to contain different constructs), all constructs need to be content-analyzed, put under the identified categories and then analyzed (Jankowicz, 2004). This process is applied when researcher works with many individual grids and elicits individual constructs with each interviewee. If the researcher decides to use supplied constructs, then the problem of aggregating individual grids is eliminated, and makes it more straightforward: if all respondents work with the same list of constructs, the results can be put in one resultant grid containing averages of all ratings obtained from the respondents (Jankowicz, 2004).

The process of the repertory grid technique and possible alternatives for each stage are graphically summarized in Figure 3.1. The figure, of course, does not include all the possible alternatives for each stage, but graphically represents the main options.

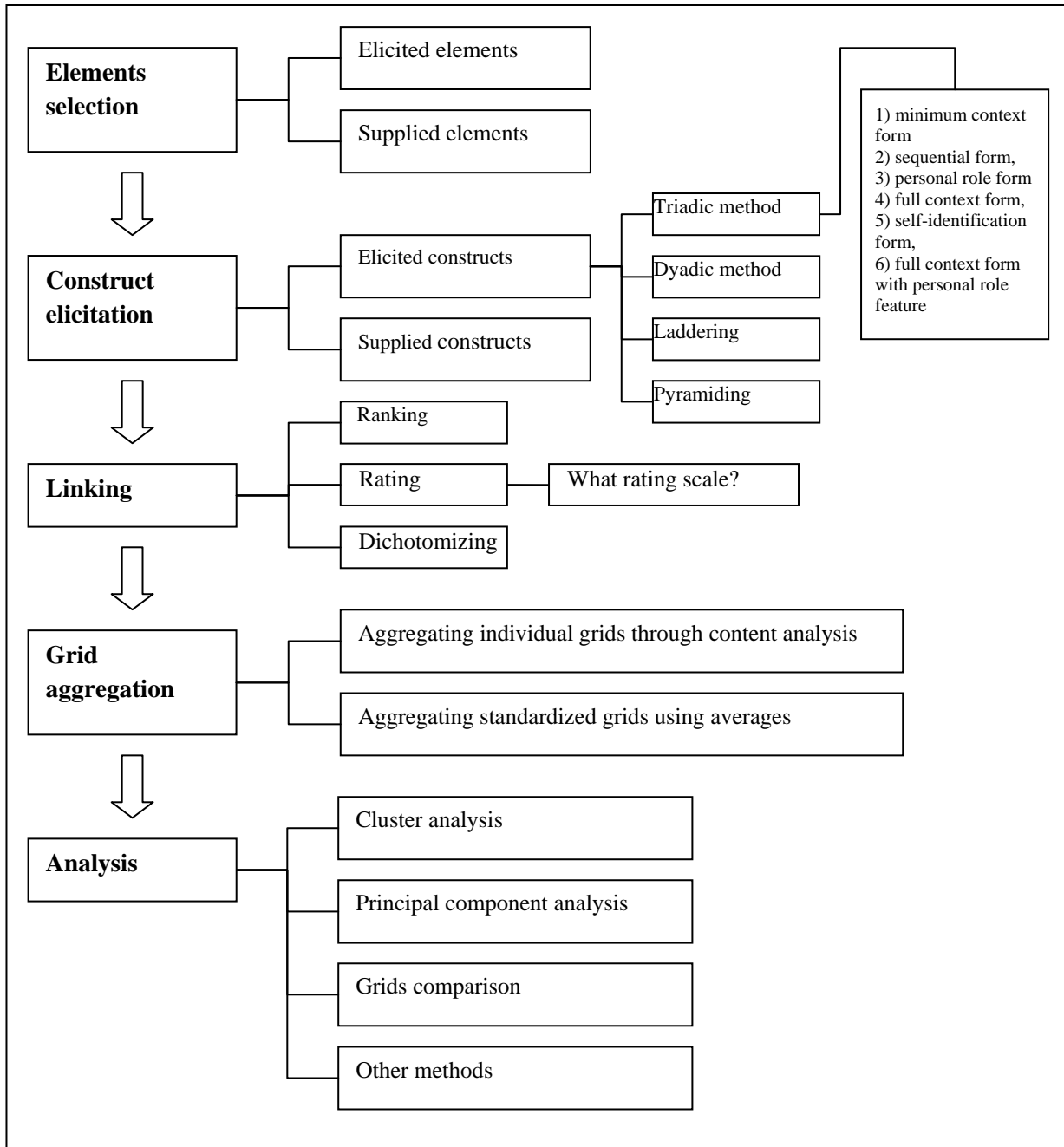


Figure 3.1: Repertory grid process and some of the possible alternatives for each stage (Source: own illustration)

3.4 Advantages and disadvantages of the technique

The repertory grid technique has its own advantages and disadvantages. One of the advantages is that it allows a highly individualized approach to each participant and allows to take into consideration the mental, emotional and personality characteristics of respondents (Smith, 1980). Other widely used research methods are often criticized for problems related to the issues of validity and reliability. The widely used fixed choice Likert-type questionnaires which use questions with predetermined attributes are usually criticized for limiting the interviewee's choice and giving no opportunity for open discussion (Hankinson, 2004). The application of in-depth interviews can partly deal with this problem and give the interviewees more space for expressing their personal thoughts, but in-depth interview cannot resolve the problem of interviewer's bias and inability to access the underlying reality (Rogers & Ryals, 2006).

This means that the way the questions are formulated by the interviewer may significantly influence the answers of respondents. The repertory grid technique allows to avoid such problems, since the process of construct elicitation minimizes interviewer's influence on interviewee. During the classic process of construct elicitation, through the triadic method, interviewee is only offered three cards with different elements to stimulate his/her thinking. He/she is neither asked any questions (as in the case of in-depth interview), nor offered any answer options (as in the case of Likert-type questionnaires). The only question which is repeatedly asked is "What two elements of the three are similar to each other, but at the same time different from the third one? And why?" Therefore, the interviewer's influence on interviewee's answers is minimized. Interviewee has no possibility to guess what kind of answer is expected by the interviewer. The technique, therefore, provides a possibility to combine the flexibility of in-depth interview containing open-ended questions with the structure of prearranged fixed-choice questionnaire, because the interviewee is free to provide highly personalized ideas provoked by the offered triads, and at the same time needs to think within strict confines of those triads, since he/she clearly understands that the ideas which are not relevant to the offered three elements will not be accepted by the interviewer.

Another often mentioned problem associated with other research methods is that respondents often provide answers which they think are expected from them or which are socially accepted (referred to as the social desirability effect). The problem of giving socially acceptable answers is important in the context of this research, since volunteer tourism involves consideration of such issues as altruism, helping other people, being socially and environmentally responsible etc. The established

social norms encourage manifestation of altruism, mercy, social responsibility and, therefore, the respondents might be stimulated to provide biased answers. The repertory grid technique can minimize these problems, since at the stage of construct elicitation respondents are forced to use their abstract thinking which allows the interviewer to reach the underlying levels of respondents' thinking (Rogers & Ryals, 2006). Smith (1980) notes that one practical advantage of the method is the possibility of graphical presentation of results, which might be useful if the technique is used in managerial setting, when the results are used for management development and can be immediately shown to managers.

There are some problematic issues associated the repertory grid technique. One of the disadvantages is that it requires much time and interviewees tend to lose patience during the process (Rogers & Ryals, 2006). Due to this problem, the application of the technique for larger samples becomes time-consuming and expensive (Hankinson, 2004). In addition to that, the technique is believed to require skilled interviewers, which also makes it more expensive (Sampson, 1972).

Another disadvantage is the difficulty of retest (Rogers & Ryals, 2006) or the replicability issue. This problem is associated with the fact that personal construct systems are believed to be constantly changing (Kelly, 1955). Individuals gain new experience and modify their construct systems to reach higher precision in forecasting events. This means that even if the same test is applied to the same person at different points in time, it is likely to produce differing results due to personal changes that have occurred.

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

4.1 Overall framework of this research

The repertory grid technique was used. The process consisted of the standard stages inherent in the repertory grid technique: selection of elements, construct elicitation, grid aggregation, linking and analysis. The repertory grid technique was modified in order to better fit the research objectives and was tested in practice.

The first step of the research involved selection of appropriate elements for the grid. It was decided that seven types of tourists, including the element “international volunteer traveler”, will be supplied to the interviewees as elements. After that interviews were conducted with four international volunteers and one member of volunteer organization, during which constructs were elicited. The constructs were acquired through the application of the triadic method with a combination of minimum context and self-identification forms. Each interview resulted in a list of approximately 25-30 constructs. The list of all constructs derived from the five interviews was content analyzed. The content analysis was conducted by two persons in order to increase reliability of the analysis results. After that the final standardized grid, containing seven elements (the same as used during the five interviews) and 30 constructs was formed (the final grid is provided in Appendix 1). After the grid ranking pilot session, the final grid was distributed among ten respondents, who rated the seven elements across 30 constructs using a 7-point rating scale. The completed grids were aggregated by computing averages for each cell of the grid, after which the individual grids and the aggregated grid were analyzed using repertory grid analysis software (GridSuite 4).

4.2 Sampling of respondents

Here, volunteer tourists or international volunteer travelers encompass those travelers who participate in volunteer work while traveling overseas with a trip shorter than one year, regardless of whether they also participate in other types of tourism during the trip or whether performing volunteer work is the main purpose of their expedition. Members of volunteer organizations are management or staff within volunteer organizations who may work part-time or full-time with the organizations that offer volunteer expedition packages for volunteer tourists. Four international volunteer travelers and one member of organization, interviewed in order to complete the construct

elicitation process, were chosen through convenience sampling. The process of sampling also had a snow-ball sampling feature, since we used our contacts to reach other volunteers. We visited a seminar conducted by “Humana People to People” in Gothenburg in order to reach volunteers. As a result of this visit, one volunteer participating in the program organized by this organization was interviewed during the construct elicitation stage. Furthermore, one of us made a trip to Thailand in March expecting to reach a large number of international volunteers from “OpenmindProjects” to distribute the questionnaire. However, March is a summer holiday period for Thailand and all schools are close, which means that most volunteers already finished their missions and left the locations. Nevertheless, some volunteers from this particular program were reached through the internet.

4.3 Element Selection

The process of repertory grid formation started from the selection of elements. As mentioned above, the elements of the grid are any aspects which are important within a specific research area, which is *volunteer tourism* here. Different types of tourist were chosen to be used as the elements in order to understand how international volunteers perceive themselves and volunteer tourism in comparison with other tourists. Kelly (1955) stated that the process of sense making is essentially the process of discriminating between things. That means that in order to understand what certain phenomenon is we need to compare it with something similar. The conventional wisdom states that “everything gets known through comparison”. This logic is supported by the very definition of construct provided by Kelly (1955) who stated that construct is a way in which two or more things are alike and thereby different from a third or more things. Therefore, the understanding of the phenomenon of volunteer tourism can be reached through giving the interviewees a possibility to compare it with other types of traveling and identify in what important ways volunteer tourism differs from them.

The next step involved choosing between elicited and supplied elements. In case of elicited elements, the interviewees could be asked to identify other types of tourism by themselves. The second alternative (i.e. supplied grid elements) implies provision of a single standard set of elements to all interviewees. The second alternative (supplied elements) was selected.

The list of elements was derived from a categorization of many available types of tourists, including the numerous niche or specialty types of tourists with their own adjectives. The objective of this

categorization was to choose the types of tourism which could fully represent the wide spectrum of available forms of recreation. As a result, a list of seven elements was formed: (1) International volunteer traveler, (2) Event tourist, (3) Package tourist, (4) Adventure tourist, (5) Backpacker, (6) Eco-tourist and (7) Cultural tourist.

The decision for supplying elements, instead of eliciting them, was dictated by the objectives of the research. Firstly, the research is aimed at studying the given set of elements from diverse research participants, since after the stage of construct elicitation (discussed below) the identical grid with a standard set of elements and constructs was to be delivered to a larger number of respondents, and therefore it was important to work with a standardized set of elements. Secondly, it was important to ensure that the elements in the final grid are within the range of convenience of the elements. The range of convenience relates to construct's ability to describe an element. For example, a construct "commercial pop fan/progressive rock fan" is not likely to describe the personality of someone's grandfather (Fransella & Bannister, 1977). This means that the element "grandfather" is out of the range of convenience of this construct. Elicitation of constructs on the basis of the same set of elements can ensure that all elements are within the range of convenience of the elicited constructs.

Tan and Hunter (2002) proposed some guidelines for selecting appropriate elements. First, elements must be discrete (Stewart & Stewart, 1981). Second, elements must be homogeneous (Easterby-Smith, 1980). Third, elements must not be evaluative (Stewart & Stewart, 1981). Finally, elements should be representative of the domain to be examined (Beail, 1985; Easterby-Smith, 1980). The selected elements comply with the criteria mentioned above. The elements represent forms of tourism that can be differentiated between each other. At the same, time they are homogeneous, since they all are types of tourists. They do not contain any evaluative components, which could hint interviewees that some types are preferable. Finally, the elements directly refer to the research area.

4.4 Construct Elicitation

In order to elicit constructs, five interviews (four with international volunteers and one with a member of volunteer organization) were conducted. The constructs were elicited by the triadic sort method, which is considered to be the classical method of generating constructs (Tan & Hunter, 2002). A mixture of two forms of triadic method was used: simple minimum context form and self-identification form. As was mentioned above, triad is a set of three elements to be shown to the

respondent at a time for each elicitation. Fifteen different triads composed using the seven supplied elements were offered during each interview. Each participant was offered a different set of fifteen triads. The triads were selected through stratified random sampling method with the rule that ten of them must contain “International volunteer traveler” as one of the elements (self-identification form) and five of them must not contain this element (minimum context form). Therefore, for each of the five interviews a list of fifteen triads including ten triads that contained the element “International volunteer traveler” (which is the special focus of this study) and five triads that do not contain this element was formed. The participants were offered three cards at a time and, then, were asked to group any two similar elements and say in which way they are similar and yet different from the third element. The interviewees were given freedom to choose any labels of similarities and differences that were relevant to them. However, a laddering process was sometimes employed to encourage participants to further elaborate on the constructs. Some general probing questions were used in order to extract participants’ underlying assumptions and interpretations that are associated with the constructs.

The interviews were recorded and then analyzed for forming lists of elicited constructs. The recorded interviews were analyzed simultaneously and separately by two of us. Then, the results were compared in order to increase reliability of the process. The total number of 122 constructs was elicited during the five interviews.

4.5 Formation of the final grid

4.5.1 Content analysis

The list of 122 constructs was consequently content-analyzed. The process of content-analysis started from categorization of constructs. Any categorization starts from defining the units of analysis (content units) and where these units should be found (context units) (Jankowicz, 2004). In case of categorization of constructs, constructs act as both content and context units (Jankowicz, 2004). The final list of 122 constructs was analyzed for identifying common themes among them. The first construct from the list was put in a separate category. If the second construct had a common meaning with the first one, it was put in the same category with the first one. If the meaning was different, the construct formed a separate category. The same was done with all constructs, until all items were put into separate categories. The categorization was conducted by two persons to increase its reliability. The categories which were agreed upon and those which were

not agreed upon were identified. The meaning of the categories was discussed and redefined in the case of disagreement. The categories were revised and finalized. After this the constructs that were closest to the meaning of other constructs within the same category and were representative of the category were pulled and used for forming the final repertory grid, which was to be delivered to a larger number of respondents.

4.5.2 Instructions and example testing

Since the process of repertory grid rating differs from answering the conventional fixed-choice questionnaires and might be confusing for some respondents, the first page of the questionnaire was devoted to the presentation of a simple example, aimed at clarifying the rating process. The exemplary grid (about four seasons) was given to two students that we did not know, found in the School of Business, Economics and Law at the University of Gothenburg, who correctly understood the process and correctly rated the elements. After brief conversation with these two students, we came to the conclusion that the main problem associated with the rating process is that respondents tend to associate “positive” poles of the constructs (e.g. colorful, pleasant, bright, hot as compared to “negative” poles colorless, unpleasant, dark, cold) with higher ratings, which is not always the case in the repertory grid, where “positive” and “negative statements” are mixed and can get both high and low ratings. In addition to the repertory grid itself and the example, the final grid also contained a brief face-sheet data section with eight questions (see Appendix 1).

4.5.3 Pilot testing

After the final repertory grid was formed, it was pilot tested with one international volunteer. The pilot testing session indicated that the conclusion that respondents tended to associate positive construct poles with higher ratings was correct. Nevertheless, after spending some time carefully examining the provided example, the respondent understood the principle and, as the ratings indicate, correctly filled out the grid. In case of some constructs the respondent had problems deciding how to rate certain elements, stating that a certain type of traveling might take different forms and the rating for some constructs might range from low to high depending on what situation is under consideration. For example, the respondent stated that the element “adventure tourists” may be rated differently in the case of construct “being close to nature/being away from nature” since there may be different types of adventure tourism involving different levels of “being close/away from nature”. Nevertheless, in such rare cases the respondent was suggested to think of

all possible situations and decide what a typical “adventure tourist” (or other type) is. In our opinion, this was not a significant problem, since the natural reaction of any respondent in such situation would be to give an averaged answer, keeping in mind the possible situations, which does not contradict our research objectives. The whole process took about 45 minutes. Since the respondent filled out the repertory grid without any help from outside, managed to understand the technique correctly, it was decided that the final repertory grid did not need any revision and could be delivered to larger number of respondents. The answer of the pilot respondent was included in the pool of filled-out grids and was treated as a normal one.

4.6 Repertory grid linking

The final repertory grid (see Appendix 1), containing 30 final constructs acquired during the five elicitation interviews, was distributed among ten respondents. Respondents were asked to rate each element of the grid (i.e. each type of tourists) across the provided 30 constructs using a 7-point scale. 7-point scale was used because there are seven elements in the repertory grid, and the respondents, therefore, could have an opportunity to give a different rating for each element.

4.7 Analysis of the grids

The obtained results, ten questionnaires, were analyzed with the help of “GridSuite 4” software. All grids were aggregated by calculating average rating for each cell of the grid. The individual grids as well as the aggregated grid were analyzed. Two most contrasting grids were selected from the ten questionnaires to be analyzed and presented. Respondent A’s grid represents a more general perspective which complies with the opinion of the majority of respondents within the sample. Respondent B’s grid represents alternative perceptions of the topic that are interesting to point out. The techniques used include cluster analysis, principal component analysis and grids comparison, which are the most commonly applied techniques for analyzing repertory grids.

4.7.1 Cluster analysis

Cluster analysis is a technique that highlights the statistical relationships of constructs and elements in a grid and groups them into clusters. Elements and constructs are grouped into clusters according to the similarity between them, which is calculated by summing the differences inside distinct groups of elements or constructs. Therefore, construct clusters (or element clusters) consist of

constructs (or elements) which are similar to each other within the cluster and at the same time are distinct from other constructs (or elements).

The function 'Cluster Analysis' of the "GridSuite 4" software was used to analyze the data. The columns (elements) and rows (constructs) of the grids were rearranged and the elements (or constructs) with high similarity were placed close to each other, forming distinct element clusters (or construct clusters). During the process of cluster analysis all clusters were automatically reversed in order to discover relationships between constructs. This means that in order to discover the similarity between construct one and construct two, the difference was calculated twice: one time between *un-reversed* construct one and *un-reversed* construct two, and then between *un-reversed* construct one and *reversed* construct two, and the result with lower difference was accepted. For example, the construct 'Reluctant to give up comfortable life (left pole)/Willing to give up comfortable life (right pole)' was automatically reversed in order to discover relationship with the construct 'Dirty (left pole)/Clean (right pole)'. Therefore, the result of the analysis shows that 'dirty' is highly correlated with 'willing to give up comfortable life' while 'clean' is correlated with 'reluctant to give up comfortable life'.

The results of the cluster analysis obtained with the help of the software include a dendrogram that graphically demonstrates the clusters of elements and constructs, as well as cluster statistics standing behind the graph. A threshold of 75.0% matching score was set and relationships below 75.0% were considered as statistically insignificant. The resultant dendograms and cluster statistics were interpreted by looking at two adjacent elements (or constructs) with highest matching score and then finding the next element (or construct) with highest similarity score above 75.0%.

4.7.2 Principal component analysis

Principal component analysis is a technique which implies identification of distinct patterns of variability in the grids. The distinct patterns of variability are identified by looking at the correlation between ratings in the rows. The pattern accounting for the largest amount of variability is identified and becomes 'principal component one' or 'PC1'. The procedure is repeated and the second distinct pattern accounting for the next largest part of variability becomes 'principal component two' or 'PC2', and so on, until all of the variability has been accounted for.

Therefore, principal components consist of constructs, which, nevertheless, are not equally correlated with the component. Some constructs strongly correlate with the component (with a

structure coefficient above 75.0%) and others weakly correlate with the component (with a structure coefficient below 75.0%). The results of principal component analysis are plotted on the graphs. The principal components are graphically displayed as x-axis and y-axis of the graph, and the constructs are plotted as straight lines. The angles between the construct lines and component axis show correlation between constructs and component axis: the lower the angle, the higher the correlation. The length of the straight lines represents the amount of variance in the rating of a specific construct. Elements are plotted in the graphs according to the level of association with x-axis and y-axis.

The function 'Principal Component Analysis' was used and the results of this function include principal component analysis graphs, showing the relationships between elements and constructs using pairs of components (i.e. one graph for PC1-PC2, one for PC1-PC3 and one for PC2-PC3 if three components are derived from the data); tables containing variance percentage each component accounts for, and structure coefficients for all constructs in relation to each component. A threshold of structure coefficient of 75.0% was set, and all constructs that correlated with the component at the level below 75.0% were considered as having weak correlation with the component and, therefore, were filtered out from the final graphs in order to make the pictorial interpretation clearer. It is important to note that on the filtered maps the elements are plotted in the same way as on the unfiltered maps on the basis of total number of 30 constructs from the grid. The number of components extracted and graphed depends on the structure of each grid. In the analysis of the grids, we used as many components as was required to cover at least 80% of variance. For example, if PC1 has 38.06% variance, PC2 has 26.80% and PC3 has 23.61, thus covering 88.47% of the variance, only three components are enough to be used. The resultant graphs were interpreted by looking at the position of each element on the graph in relation to other elements and plotted constructs, which made up the principal components.

4.7.3 Grids comparison

The individual grids from all respondents were compared using the 'SharedGrids' function of the "GridSuite 4" software to identify the differences between respondents' ratings for each cell of the grid. This comparison allowed us to identify which constructs and elements the respondents agreed upon, and which they did not agree upon.

4.8 Summary of the research process

The overall process of this research is graphically presented in Figure 4.1.

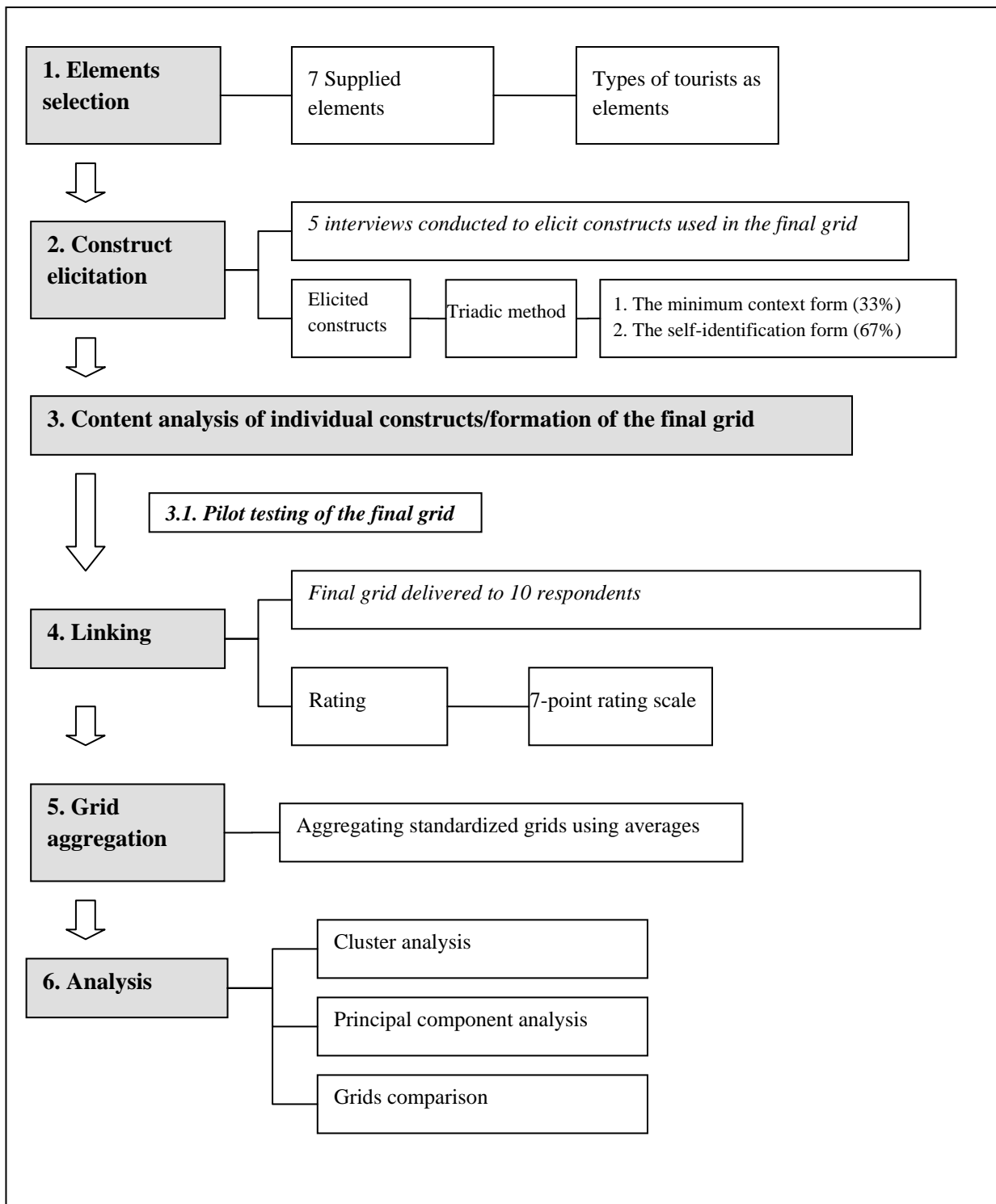


Figure 4.1: Overall framework of this research (Source: own illustration)

CHAPTER 5: EMPIRICAL RESULTS

5.1 Construct elicitation interviews

Each interviewee produced approximately 25 – 30 personal constructs. Some of these constructs are unique to one particular interviewee, while, some (in a much higher proportion) are common for all interviewees. An example of a unique personal construct is “clean” versus “dirty” provided by one volunteer traveler. Some of the personal constructs mentioned by most of the interviewees relate to the issue of altruism versus egoism, such as “helping people” versus “for your own experience” or “think of somebody else” versus “do it just for fun”. Constructs of many interviewees referred to the opportunity to develop themselves and the uniqueness of volunteering experience. For example, “get new perspectives” versus “do not get new perspective” and “nothing really special” versus “mind-blowing experience”. Many constructs mentioned by the interviewees also relate to the opportunity to gain more in-depth knowledge about the destination countries, represented by such constructs as “see more of the country” versus “do not see the country”, “get to know and learn the culture” versus “just have fun and do not get to learn anything” and “go as a big group and see the country” versus “really see how it is to be in the country and to live in the country”. As a result of these five interviews a list of total 122 personal constructs was formed.

The interviewees were also asked to explain their international volunteering experiences in order to gain more general information. Most interviewees viewed their volunteer tourism experiences as really helping to make a difference and had a very positive opinion of it, which reinforces the stereotypical perspective of the general public regarding volunteer tourism. However, some interviewees had more critical views on volunteer tourism and mentioned several problems related to it, such as the rigidity and bureaucracy of the organizer. The interviewees’ volunteering experiences were mostly related to social work such as teaching English to underprivileged children in Thailand, looking after young delinquents in South Africa, mobilizing the community to build local school for children in Malawi, and helping homeless people, refugees and children in Italy.

5.2 Repertory grids linking

The questionnaires were sent to current and former international volunteer tourists as well as members of volunteer organizations via e-mail. Ten questionnaires were answered and returned to us. Nine questionnaires are from volunteer tourists, while one questionnaire is from a member of

volunteer organization. Among the returned questionnaires, eight were answered by female respondents and two by male respondents. Respondents' countries of residence include Sweden, Germany, the Netherlands, Russia, China and Thailand. Two most distinct grids were chosen to be presented along with the aggregated grid containing average ratings calculated using the responses from all respondents. The ratings from all grids were compared and the differences were denoted. The results of the analysis will be presented hereafter.

5.3 Analysis of respondent A

5.3.1 Cluster Analysis

Completed repertory grid from respondent A was analyzed using cluster analysis technique and the result is graphically presented in Figure 5.1 (see Appendix 2 for its cluster statistics). These clusters were formed by calculating the similarity between the elements and between constructs that can distinct the particular cluster from other elements or constructs. Only the relationships with a matching score above 75.0% were considered as clusters, other relationships (with a matching score below 75.0%) are not statistically valid to form a cluster.

When looking at a wider perspective, this cluster analysis of the elements shows that the respondent segregates seven types of travelers into two major groups. The first group includes adventure tourist, backpacker, eco-tourist and international volunteer traveler which are a more exciting and adventurous group, while the second group consists of cultural tourist, event tourist and package tourist which tends to be a clean group of tourists that seek a more ordinary experience during their holidays.

According to Figure 5.1, elements of the repertory grid which are the seven types of tourists including *international volunteer traveler* can be divided into two distinct clusters according to their statistical similarity. This respondent perceives package tourist as highly similar to event tourist with the matching score as high as 91.0% and, therefore, forming the strongest cluster. These two types of tourists within the cluster seem to have many things in common and are characterized by such construct poles as “shallow cultural experience”, “being bounded”, “traveling with group”, “ordinary experience”, “coward”, “decisions taken by someone else”, “doing things you can do at home” and “doing something for yourself”.

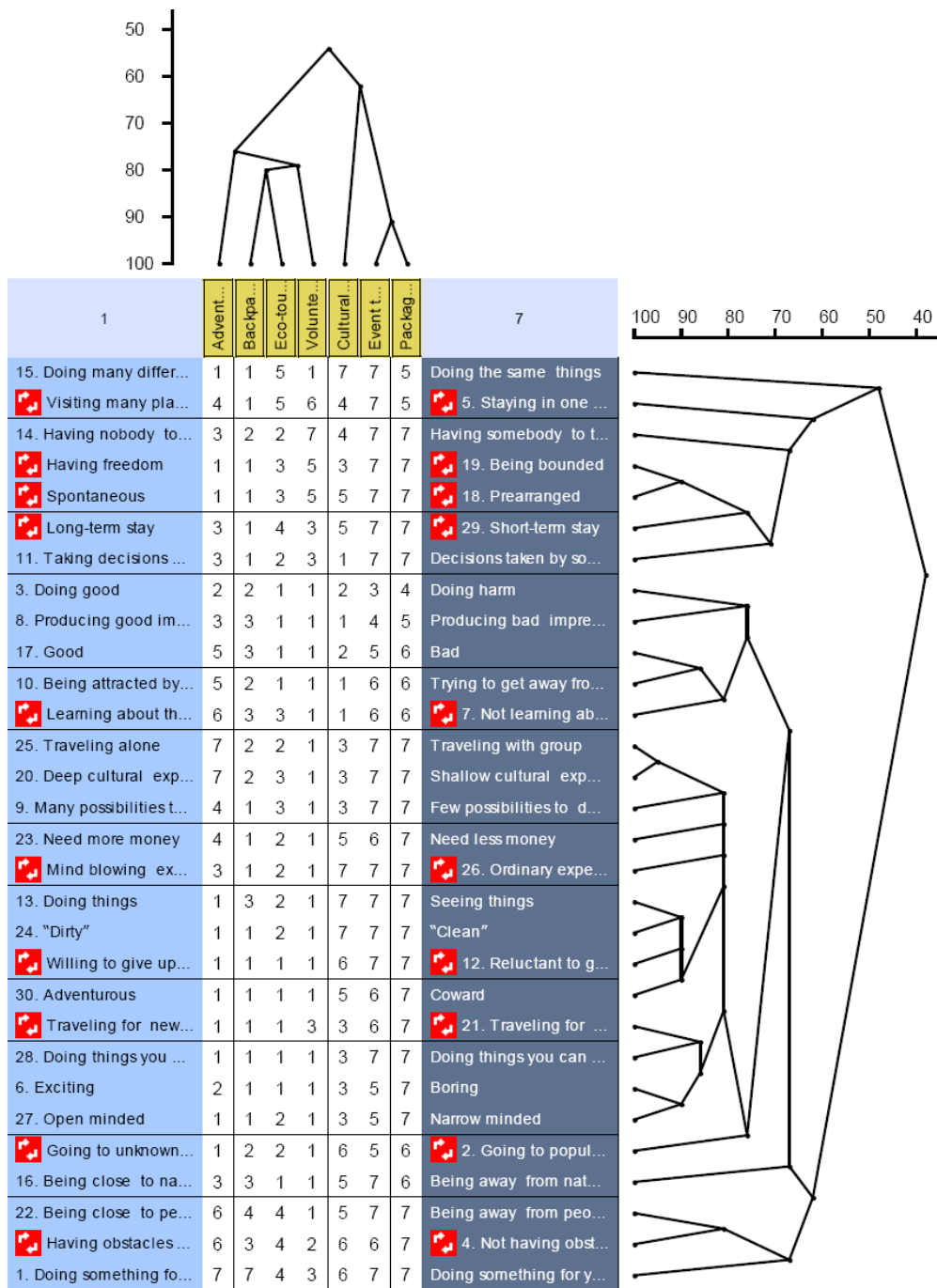


Figure 5.1: Cluster analysis dendrogram (respondent A)

The other statistically significant cluster includes backpacker, eco-tourist, volunteer traveler and adventure tourist. The analysis demonstrates that the respondent perceives these four types of travelers as having something in common that can distinguish them from other types of tourists, especially from package tourist and event tourist. Backpacker is associated with eco-tourist with the matching score of 80.0%, while volunteer traveler is connected with eco-tourist at the level of 79.0%. Adventure tourist and backpacker have a matching score of 76.0%. This cluster is

characterized by such construct poles as “willing to give up comfortable life”, “adventurous”, “exciting”, “doing things you cannot do at home”, “going to unknown places” and “open minded”.

There are two more relationships between the elements, however, at a lower level than the threshold of 75.0%, which is, therefore, considered to be statistically insignificant. Nevertheless, it is useful to present their relationships so that the overall information could be identified. An association between cultural tourist and event tourist at the level of 62.0% shows that the respondent perceives event tourist to have a weak relationship with cultural tourist, mainly on the basis of such construct poles as “doing the same things”, “ordinary experience”, “seeing things”, “clean”, “reluctant to give up comfortable life”, and “not having obstacles to get over”. The weakest relationship for this respondent is between volunteer traveler and cultural tourist at a level of 54.0%. These two types of tourists are similar to each other in such aspects as producing good impression, doing good, being attracted by the destination and learning about the country. However, there are many constructs according to which the respondent perceives these two types of travelers as completely opposite. For example, volunteer traveler is perceived as doing many different things, getting mind blowing experience and dirty, while cultural tourist is perceived as doing the same things, getting ordinary experience and clean.

The respondent’s personal constructs were also categorized into clusters according to their statistical similarity with each other through the cluster analysis as shown in Figure 5.1. Table 5.1 summarizes major clusters of personal constructs according to the dendogram and the cluster statistics.

According to Table 5.1, these constructs were segregated into groups with different levels of closeness between the constructs, in which some are as high as 95.0% (i.e. traveling alone/traveling with group with deep cultural experience/shallow cultural experience), while some can be as low as 76.0% (such as doing good/doing harm with producing good impression/producing bad impression). The first cluster is mainly about the quality of the experience. It includes such constructs as, for example, deep cultural experience, mind-blowing, exciting, adventurous, dirty, uncomfortable and visiting unknown places versus shallow cultural experience, ordinary, boring, coward, clean, comfortable and visiting popular places. These qualities of experience are perceived by the respondent as highly correlated with whether the traveler is alone or travels with group. That is, traveling alone tends to have a deeper cultural experience which is more exciting and adventurous than traveling with group.

Clusters	Construct pole	Construct pole
Cluster 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Traveling alone • Deep cultural experience • Many possibilities to develop yourself • Need more money • Mind blowing experience • Doing things • “Dirty” • Willing to give up comfortable life • Adventurous • Traveling for new experience • Doing things you cannot do at home • Exciting • Open minded • Going to unknown places 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Traveling with group • Shallow cultural experience • Few possibilities to develop yourself • Need less money • Ordinary experience • Seeing things • “Clean” • Reluctant to give up comfortable life • Coward • Traveling for pleasure • Doing things you can do at home • Boring • Narrow minded • Going to popular places
Cluster 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Having freedom • Spontaneous • Long-term stay 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Being bounded • Prearranged • Short-term stay
Cluster 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Doing good • Producing good impression • Good • Being attracted by the destination • Learning about the country 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Doing harm • Producing bad impression • Bad • Trying to get away from the home country • Not learning about the country
Cluster 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Being close to people • Having obstacles to get over 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Being away to people • Not having obstacles to get over

Table 5.1: Personal construct clusters (respondent A)

The second cluster is about freedom, pre-arrangement and length of stay. The respondent perceives those travelers who pre-arrange their trips or have their trips pre-arranged as having less freedom and traveling with shorter trip than those who tend to be spontaneous on their trips.

The third cluster relates to ethical issues as it includes such constructs as “doing good” versus “doing harm” and “producing good impression” versus “producing bad impression”. The respondent also perceives those travelers who travel just to get away from their home countries as worse than those who are attracted by the destinations as the latter learn about the country they visit and also produce good impression.

The last cluster consists of constructs “being close to people” versus “being away from people” and “having obstacles to get over” versus “not having obstacles to get over”, indicating that those trips which are characterized by closeness to people tend to have more obstacles than those that are characterized by being away from people.

5.3.2 Principal component analysis

The grid from respondent A was also analyzed using principal component analysis. Three principal components (PCs) were extracted from the respondent’s personal constructs and graphed as shown in Figures 5.2 and 5.3. The graphs were filtered and show only constructs with the structure coefficient stronger than ± 0.75 (see Appendix 3 for unfiltered maps). It is clear that the unfiltered maps look too complicated and contain many constructs which are not strongly correlated with PC1 and PC2, which significantly complicates the picture. In order to make these maps clearer, all constructs with correlation scores below ± 0.75 were omitted.

Table 5.2 summarizes constructs that have strong coefficient weights for each PC. These three components cover as high as 93.56% of variance, which allows us to use only three components to analyze the data to explain this respondent’s perceptions (PC1 versus PC2 and PC1 versus PC3). The table showing all structure coefficients of the constructs forming the principal components and the variance percentage table are provided in Appendix 4. As shown in Table 5.2, PC1 is related to the aspect of experience of the expedition, PC2 is about ethical and cultural issues and PC3 is dealing with the organization of the trip.

Principal Components	Left-hand side (-x) or Bottom (-y)	Right-hand side (+x) or Top (+y)
PC1 (37.3% of variance)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Going to unknown places • Doing things • “Dirty” • Willing to give up comfortable life • Mind blowing experience • Doing many different things • Adventurous • Being close to nature 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Going to popular places • Seeing things • “Clean” • Reluctant to give up comfortable life • Ordinary experience • Doing the same things • Coward • Being away from nature
PC2 (35.1% of variance)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learning about the country • Good • Being attracted by the destination • Traveling alone • Deep cultural experience • Producing good impression • Being close to people • Doing something for someone else 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not learning about the country • Bad • Trying to get away from the home country • Traveling with group • Shallow cultural experience • Producing bad impression • Being away from people • Doing something for yourself
PC3 (21.1% of variance)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Having somebody to turn to • Being bounded • Staying in one place • Prearranged 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Having nobody to turn to • Having freedom • Visiting many places • Spontaneous

Table 5.2: Principal components and correlated constructs (respondent A)

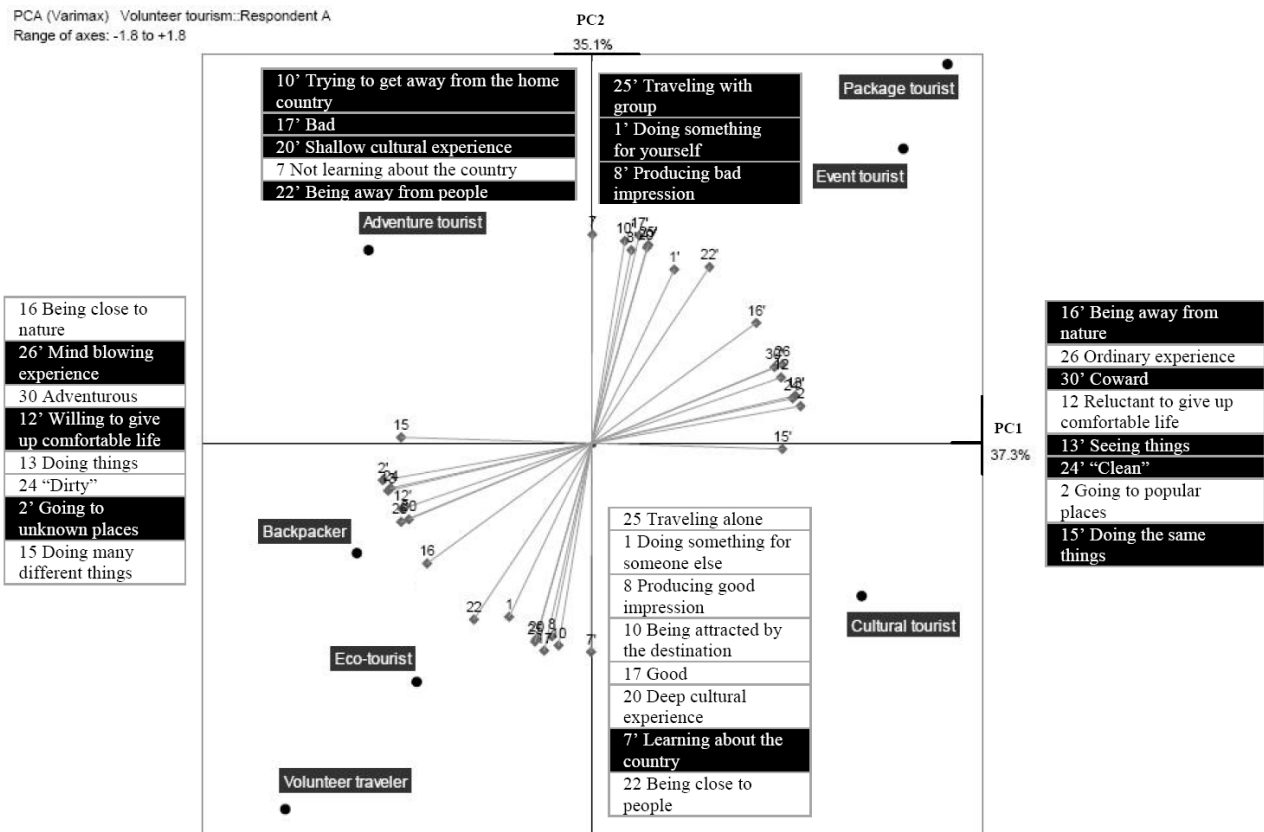


Figure 5.2: Filtered PC1-PC2 map (respondent A)

Figure 5.2, capturing 72.42% of variance, shows the relationships between each type of tourists and constructs from the dimensions of PC1 (x-axis) and PC2 (y-axis). Volunteer traveler is located at the very bottom-left of the graph (coefficients of -1.42 for PC1 and -1.69 for PC2). It is located in the bottom-left quadrant along with eco-tourist and backpacker. This position on the graph of volunteer tourist implies that the respondent perceives volunteer tourist to be similar to eco-tourist and backpacker since, for example, they all go to unknown places, they are willing to give up comfortable life, they are adventurous, they seek deep cultural experience, they produce good impression and they do something for someone else. In other words, volunteer traveler, eco-tourist and backpacker are all perceived as being ethical and adventurous tourists. However, the respondent perceives volunteer traveler as much more extreme in terms of the aforementioned characteristics, according to its position on the graph. Furthermore, package tourist and event tourist are perceived as the most opposite types of tourists to volunteer traveler as they are plotted at the very top-right corner of the graph. Package tourist and event tourist are characterized by such statements as “going to popular places”, “ordinary experience”, “coward”, “not learning about the country”, “producing bad impression” and “doing something for yourself”. Adventure tourist is perceived as opposite to cultural tourist, as the former tends to be rather dirty and adventurous but at the same time

producing bad impression and getting shallow cultural experience, while the latter is fairly clean and coward but at the same time producing good impression and getting deep cultural experience.

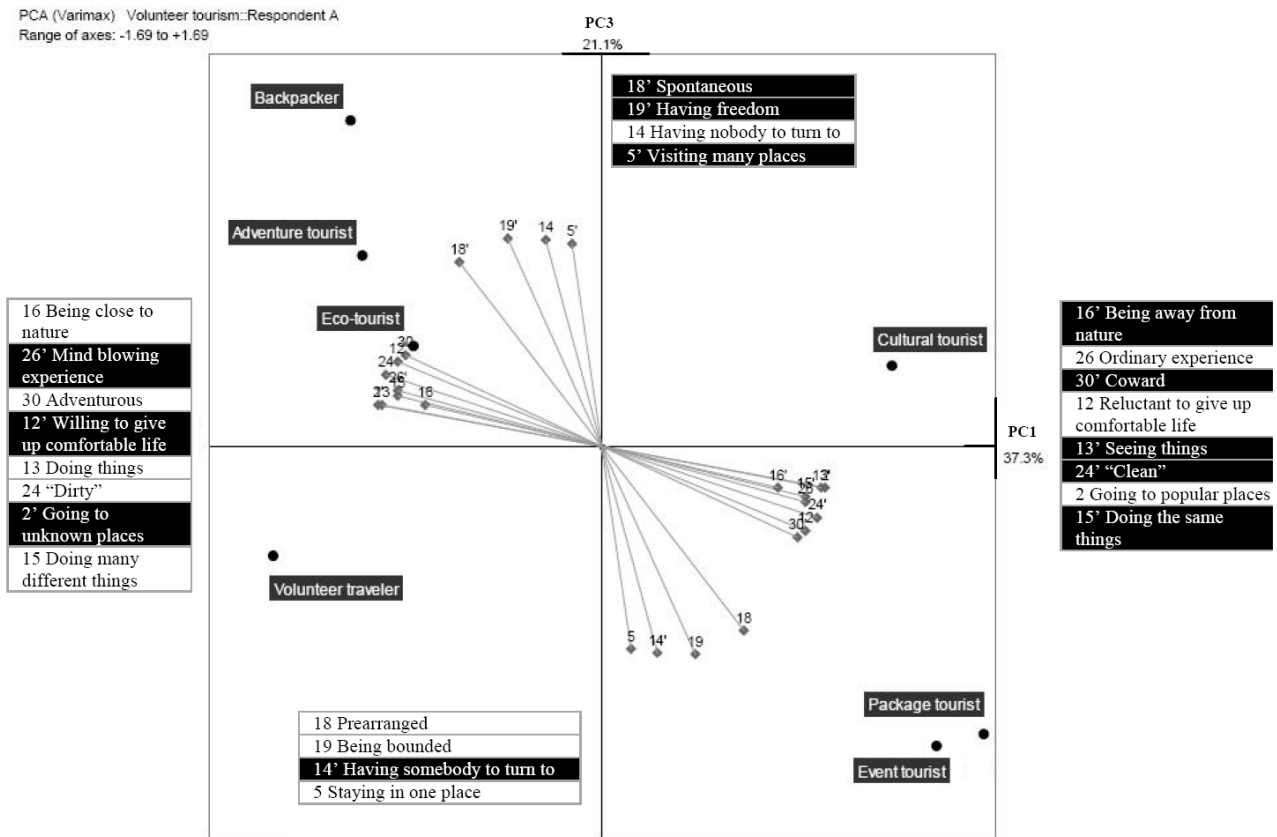


Figure 5.3: Filtered PC1-PC3 map (respondent A)

Figure 5.3, capturing 58.4% of the total variance, is the combination of PC1 (x-axis) and PC3 (y-axis). According to this figure, volunteer traveler is the only type of tourists that is located at the bottom-left quadrant of the graph and is quite farther away from other types of tourists. Its location on the graph indicates that the respondent perceives volunteer traveler as very different from other types of tourists when looking at it from the combined dimensions of type of experience and organization of the trip. Volunteer traveler has high level of characteristics from the left-hand side of PC1 such as pursuing mind-blowing experience and doing many different things. At the same time, the respondent believes that volunteer traveler is similar to package tourist and event tourist in terms of, for instance, having somebody to turn to, staying in one place and being bounded, however, at a much lesser extent. Unlike Figure 5.2, where volunteer traveler is grouped with eco-tourist and backpacker, this graph shows that volunteer traveler is quite different from backpacker as the latter is highly spontaneous and has much freedom. In this graph, backpacker and eco-tourist are grouped together with adventure tourist as all of them tend to have the same types of experience

and also tend to be less rigid as compared with other types of travelers. Volunteer traveler is also very different from cultural tourist as the former seems to be perceived as interesting by the respondent while the latter is perceived as very ordinary.

5.4 Analysis of respondent B

5.4.1 Cluster analysis

The results of the grid distribution indicate that not all people think of volunteer tourism in the same way. As an indication of this, we would like to discuss the grid of another respondent, which represents an alternative view on the discussed issues. This grid was chosen because it looks different and much more confusing than the grids of other respondents. Figure 5.4 is the graphical representation of the cluster analysis of respondent B's grid (the cluster statistics behind this figure can be found in Appendix 5).

As indicated in Figure 5.4, the element clusters are not so distinct and the elements are more isolated from each other than in the case of respondent A. Volunteer tourist is highly correlated with event tourist (86.0% matching score) and package tourist (79.0% matching score). The respondent perceives these types of tourists as sharing some common characteristics as they go to popular places, clean, and are attracted by the destinations. The next closely related elements are backpacker and event tourist (77.0% matching score). It is interesting to note that the respondent views these two types of tourists as having less freedom than almost every other type of tourists in the grid. The last relationship between elements with matching score higher than 75.0% is between package tourist and adventure tourist (76.0% matching score). These two types of tourists are perceived as staying in one place, not taking decisions by themselves, going to popular places, and traveling alone. If the threshold of 75.0% matching score is used as determinant of cluster, then the cluster analysis of this respondent's grid shows only one cluster which consists of volunteer traveler, event tourist, package tourist, backpacker and adventure tourist. There are also two more relationships at the level below 75.0%, namely between adventure tourist and eco-tourist (72.0% matching score) and between cultural tourist and eco-tourist (71.0% matching score). Accordingly, respondent B associates volunteer tourist primarily with event tourist and package tourist. Meanwhile, backpacker and adventure tourist are also perceived as having some common characteristics with volunteer tourist.

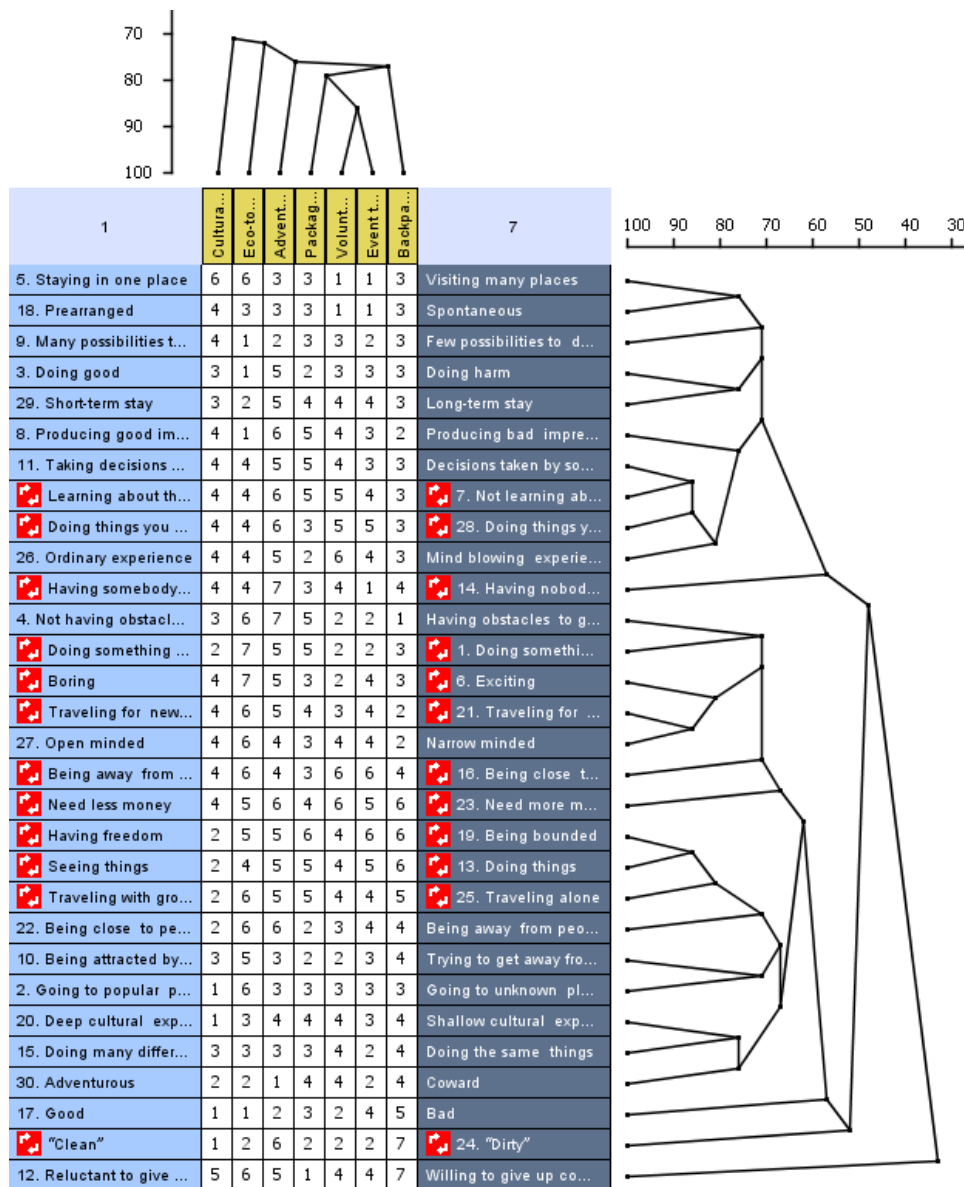


Figure 5.4: Cluster analysis dendrogram (respondent B)

The construct cluster analysis produced some distinct clusters, even though many of the constructs correlate at the level below 80.0%. The construct clusters of respondent B with the level of association above 75.0% are presented in Table 5.3.

The first distinct cluster consists of four constructs that refer to the decision-making process as well as types of activities and experience during the trips. The respondent perceives those tourists who take decisions by themselves as getting ordinary experience and doing things that can be done at their home countries but, at the same time, getting to learn about the destinations. Meanwhile, those whose decisions are taken by someone else are perceived as getting extraordinary experience from

activities that cannot be done at their home countries but not having the opportunities to learn about the destinations.

Clusters	Construct pole	Construct pole
Cluster 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Taking decisions by yourself • Learning about the country • Doing things you can do at home • Ordinary experience 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decisions taken by someone else • Not learning about the country • Doing things you cannot do at home • Mind blowing experience
Cluster 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Boring • Traveling for new experiences • Open minded 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exciting • Traveling for pleasure • Narrow minded
Cluster 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Having freedom • Seeing things • Traveling with group 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Being bounded • Doing things • Traveling alone
Cluster 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Staying in one place • Prearranged 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Visiting many places • Spontaneous
Cluster 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Doing good • Short-term stay 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Doing harm • Long-term stay
Cluster 6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Deep cultural experience • Doing many different things • Adventurous 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shallow cultural experience • Doing the same things • Coward

Table 5.3: Personal construct clusters (respondent B)

The next statistically valid cluster includes three constructs: “exciting/boring”, “traveling for pleasure/traveling for new experience” and “open minded/narrow minded”. It is interesting to note that for this respondent the construct poles “traveling for new experience” and “open minded” are associated with boredom, and the poles “narrow minded” and “traveling for pleasure” are associated with excitement.

The third cluster consists of three constructs that are associated with the organization of the expeditions. It is very interesting to note that this respondent associates those tourists who travel alone as having less freedom than those who travel with group. However, those who travel alone are perceived as doing things rather than seeing things during their trips.

The fourth construct cluster consists of two constructs indicating that those tourists who prearrange their trips or have their trips prearranged tend to stay in one place during their trips. Meanwhile, the tourists who are spontaneous are more likely to visit many places during their expeditions.

The fifth cluster shows that respondent B views travelers who stay for short periods of time as better than those who stay for long periods, as the latter are perceived as doing harm during their holidays.

The last construct cluster demonstrates that respondent B perceives those tourists who seek deep cultural experience and do many different activities during their expeditions are more adventurous than those who seek shallow cultural experience and perform the same activities.

5.4.2 Principal component analysis

The principal component analysis of respondent B's grid requires looking upon four principal components which cover 81.81% of variance. It means that we will need to analyze the position of the element "volunteer tourist" on two maps based on two pairs of principal components (PC1-PC2 and PC3-PC4). Only constructs with correlation scores of ± 0.75 or above will be plotted on the maps (the unfiltered maps are provided in Appendix 6). The filtered map for PC1-PC2 is presented in Figure 5.5 and the filtered map for PC3-PC4 is presented in Figure 5.6. Structure coefficients (i.e. matrix of correlation of each construct with the components) along with the percentage of variance each component accounts for are presented in Appendix 7.

Principal Components	Left-hand side (-x) or Bottom (-y)	Right-hand side (+x) or Top (+y)
PC1 (20.8% of variance)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Many possibilities to develop yourself • Having obstacles to get over • Going to unknown places • Doing something for someone else • Being away from people • Exciting • Traveling for pleasure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Few possibilities to develop yourself • Not having obstacles to get over • Going to popular places • Doing something for yourself • Being close to people • Boring • Traveling for new experience
PC2 (20.6% of variance)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Doing things • Being bounded • Shallow cultural experience 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seeing things • Having freedom • Deep cultural experience
PC3 (19.6% of variance)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Taking decisions by yourself • Producing good impression • Learning about the country • Short-term stay 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decisions taken by somebody else • Producing bad impression • Not learning about the country • Long term stay
PC4 (14.8% of variance)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mind blowing experience • Doing things you cannot do at home 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ordinary experience • Doing things you can do at home

Table 5.4: Principal components and correlated constructs (respondent B)

The constructs which form principal components one, two, three and four and have strong correlation scores (equal or more than ± 0.75) are presented in Table 5.4. According to the table, PC1 is generally associated with excitement, challenge and development, and PC2 with freedom, depth and limits of experience. The principal component three is strongly correlated with the following constructs: "taking decisions by yourself/decisions taken by someone else", "producing good/bad impression", "not learning/learning about the country" and "short-term/long term stay".

Component four is correlated with two constructs, namely “ordinary/mind blowing experience” and “doing things you can/cannot do at home”.

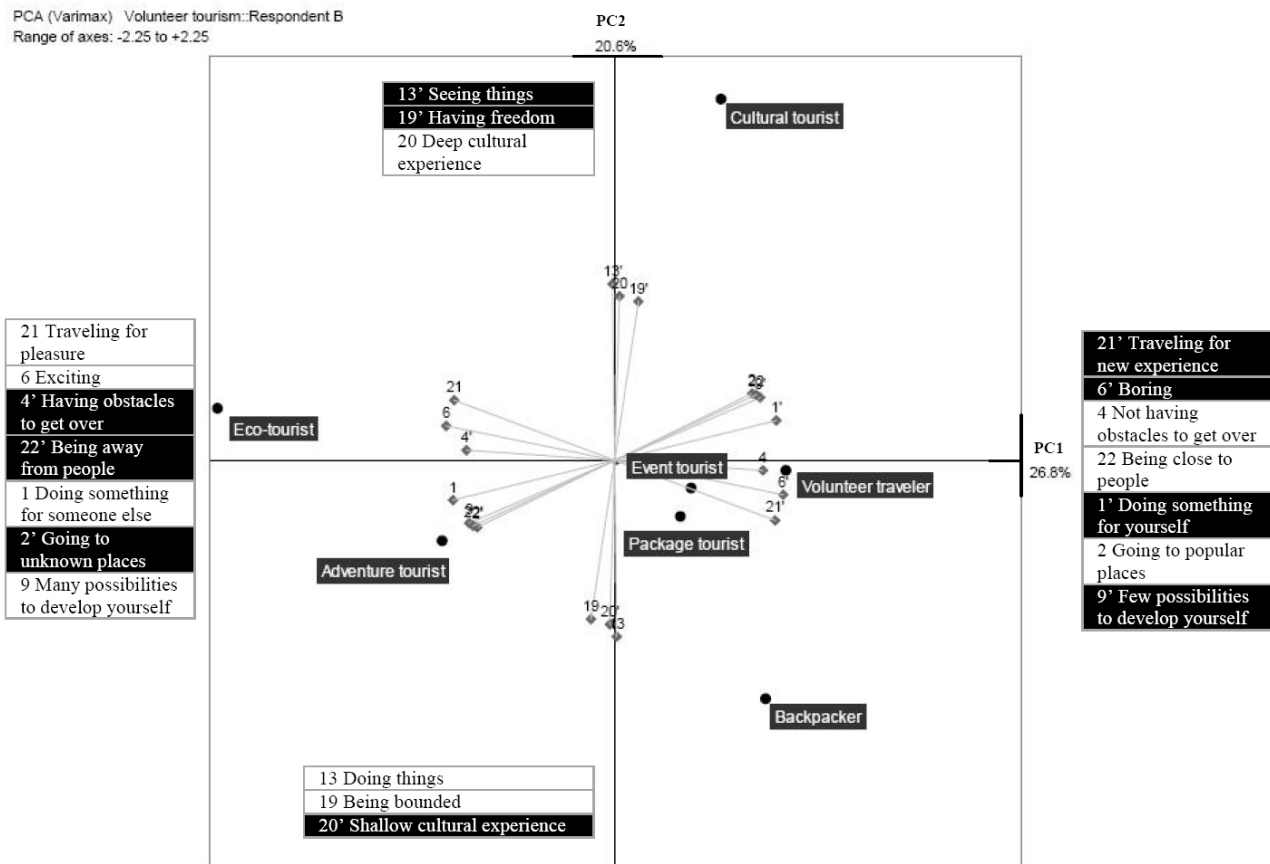


Figure 5.5: Filtered PC1-PC2 map (respondent B)

The filtered PC1-PC2 map (covering 41.4% of variance) is presented in Figure 5.5. The map gives a clearer picture of the respondent’s perception of volunteer traveling. It can be seen from PC1-axis that this respondent perceives volunteer tourism as rather boring, without obstacles to get over and giving few possibilities for self-development. Volunteer tourism, in this case, is characterized as implying closeness to people and going to popular places. The map also shows that in terms of cultural experience, freedom and seeing versus doing (PC2 axis) volunteer tourism is perceived as occupying some average position as neither shallow nor deep, neither bounded nor free, neither action nor contemplation oriented. Volunteer tourist is in the same group with event and package tourists, and it is strongly opposed to adventure and eco-tourism. Volunteer tourism is characterized as rather boring, giving few possibilities for development, and at the same time neither deep nor shallow in terms of experience and the freedom it can give.

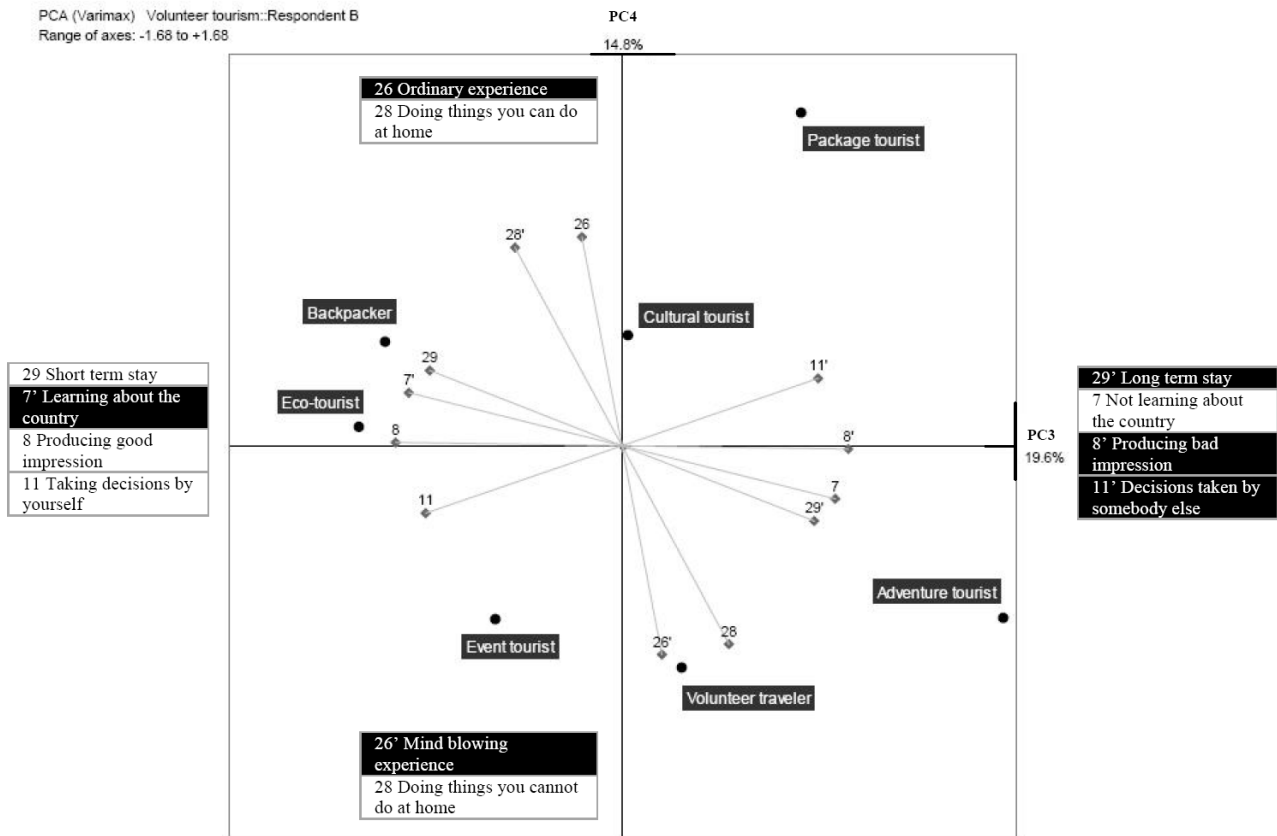


Figure 5.6: Filtered PC3-PC4 map (respondent B)

Figure 5.6 presents the other two principal components which account for the lower amount of variance (34.4%). This map shows that volunteer traveling is positioned somewhere in the middle in terms of PC3 constructs demonstrating that the respondent does not associate volunteer tourism with either side of the construct poles, i.e. volunteer traveler was given a rating of “4” for constructs “producing good/bad impression”, “taking decisions by yourself/decisions taken by somebody else”, and “short term/long term stay” and rating of “3” for “learning/not learning about the country”. Interestingly, in terms of producing impression, the construct which is strongly correlated with PC3 (line 8 is parallel to the axis of PC3), backpackers and eco-tourists are regarded as producing better impression than volunteers as the former are on the far left of the graph, while international volunteer is plotted in the center of the map. The position of volunteer travelers in terms of PC4 indicates that volunteer traveling is considered as a special and unusual experience as compared to other types of traveling. Getting back to the Figure 5.5, which indicates that volunteer tourism is regarded as boring and giving few possibilities for personal development, it is possible to make a conclusion that the respondent perceives international volunteering experience as special and unusual, but still thinks that it is not exciting. It is interesting to note that package tourism

which is perceived as providing very ordinary experience (Figure 5.6, PC4) is at the same time regarded as more exciting than volunteer traveling (Figure 5.5, PC1).

5.5 Analysis of the aggregated grid

The average ratings were calculated using all ten repertory grids in order to explain the general ideas and perceptions of the whole group of respondents. Some of the cells were rated similarly by all respondents, while some other cells were rated differently. The table showing these similarities and differences will be presented and discussed shortly after the cluster analysis and principal component analysis, which will be presented hereafter.

5.5.1 Cluster analysis

The repertory grid with average ratings from all ten respondents was analyzed using cluster analysis technique and the result is graphically presented in Figure 5.7 (see Appendix 8 for cluster statistics). As mentioned earlier, these clusters were grouped by calculating the similarity between the elements and between constructs that can distinct the particular cluster from other elements or constructs. The 75.0% matching score threshold was still employed to judge if the clusters were statistically valid. However, this time, the relationships within the clusters are quite strong with many of the matching scores above 80.0%.

The dendogram, built on the basis of cluster analysis of the aggregated grid, is shown in Figure 5.7. It illustrates that the elements (types of tourists) can be grouped into three distinct clusters, which are (1) event and package tourists, (2) cultural tourist, eco-tourist and volunteer traveler, and (3) backpacker and adventure tourist.

Overall, package tourist is perceived as highly similar to event tourist with the matching score of 86.0%, which is the strongest relationship between the elements. These two types of tourists are perceived by most respondents as having such characteristics as “doing something for themselves” and “traveling for pleasure”. Furthermore, they tend to have their trips pre-arranged and travel shortly to popular places.

The next cluster which has a matching score of 85.0% includes cultural tourist, eco-tourist and volunteer traveler. The dendogram illustrates that, in general, the respondents perceive these three types of travelers as very similar, while at the same time they are quite different from the first

cluster (package tourist and event tourist). Within this cluster, volunteer traveler is correlated with eco-tourist at the level of 85.0% while eco-tourist is correlated with cultural tourist at the level of 85.0% as well. Eco-tourist and volunteer tourist are similar in terms of such characteristics as, for example, “doing something for someone else” and “willing to give up comfortable life”. Eco-tourist and cultural tourist are characterized as having freedom and being open-minded. People participating in such types of expeditions as cultural, eco and volunteering tend to be perceived by the respondents as “good” and “producing good impression”.

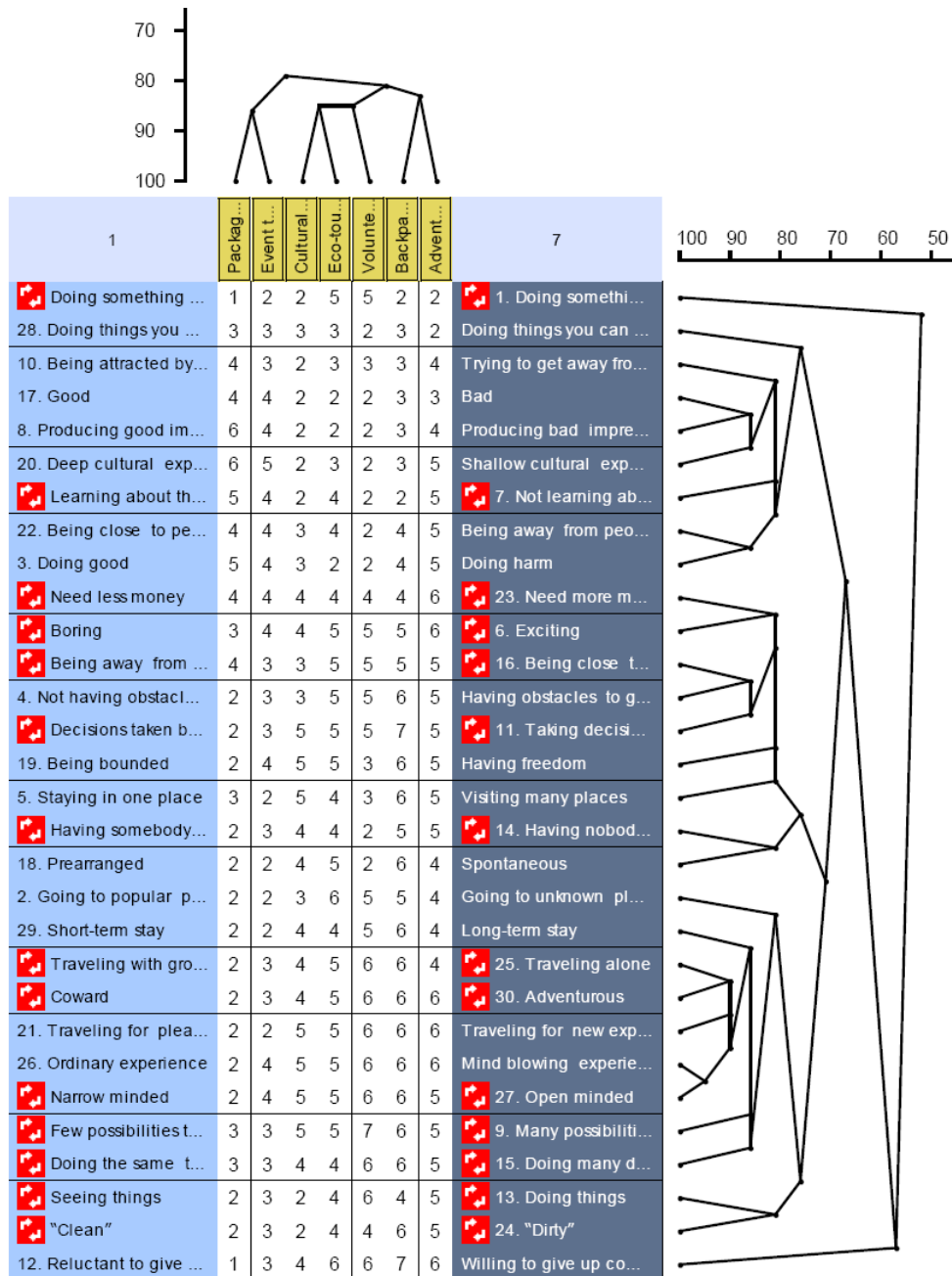


Figure 5.7: Cluster analysis dendrogram (aggregated grid)

The last distinct cluster consists of backpacker and adventure tourist. These two types of travelers have a matching score of 83.0%. The elements in this cluster are characterized by such construct poles as “adventurous”, “traveling for new experience”, “mind-blowing experience”, “willing to give up comfortable life” and “dirty”. This cluster also has quite a strong relationship with the second cluster, as volunteer traveler correlates with backpacker at the level of 81.0%. When comparing the second (volunteer, cultural and eco-tourists) and third clusters (backpacker and adventure tourist) with the first cluster (package and event tourists), it can be seen that the second and third clusters are perceived as more open-minded, better and seeking a more extraordinary experience as compared to the first cluster.

There is also another relationship between event tourist and cultural tourist at the level of 79.0%. These two types of tourists are similar to each other as they both do something for themselves and do not have many obstacles during their trips. However, there are many aspects in which these two types of travelers are quite different. For example, cultural tourist is perceived as visiting many places and seeking deep cultural experience while event tourist tends to stay in one place and seeks only shallow cultural experience.

The personal constructs from the aggregated grid were also categorized into clusters according to their statistical similarity with each other and the dendrogram showing the results is presented in Figure 5.7. Table 5.5 summarizes major clusters of personal constructs according to the dendrogram and cluster statistics.

Most of the constructs in each cluster are strongly correlated as their correlation scores are mostly higher than 80.0%. The first cluster is related to the issues of experience quality and style, which is represented by such constructs as “ordinary” or “mind-blowing”, “clean” or “dirty” and “visiting popular places” or “unknown places”. It also relates to the issue of altruism and egoism as well as the abilities to develop oneself during the trip. Within this cluster, adventurous travelers who travel alone to visit unknown places for a long period of time to seek extraordinary experience through doing many different things are perceived as having more opportunities to develop themselves. They are regarded as more open-minded than those who travel with a group to visit popular places for a short time to seek ordinary experience through seeing and doing the same things.

The second cluster is associated with the issue of trip organization. It can be pointed out that the respondents perceived travelers who prearrange their trips or have their trips prearranged also have less freedom and only stay in one place. On the contrary, travelers who are spontaneous on their

trips are regarded as having freedom to visit many places. It is also interesting to note that the trips with somebody to support the travelers and help with making the decisions are perceived as needing less money than those trips in which travelers do not have anybody to turn to for support.

Clusters	Construct pole	Construct pole
Cluster 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Narrow minded • Ordinary experience • Coward • Traveling with group • Traveling for pleasure • Few possibilities to develop yourself • Short-term stay • Doing the same things • Seeing things • “Clean” • Going to popular places 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Open minded • Mind blowing experience • Adventurous • Traveling alone • Traveling for new experience • Many possibilities to develop yourself • Long-term stay • Doing many different things • Doing things • “Dirty” • Going to unknown places
Cluster 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Being away from nature • Not having obstacles to get over • Decisions taken by someone else • Need less money • Boring • Being bounded • Staying in one place • Having somebody to turn to • Prearranged 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Being close to nature • Having obstacles to get over • Taking decisions by yourself • Need more money • Exciting • Having freedom • Visiting many places • Having nobody to turn to • Spontaneous
Cluster 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good • Producing good impression • Deep cultural experience • Being close to people • Doing good • Learning about the country • Being attracted by the destination • Doing things you cannot do at home 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bad • Producing bad impression • Shallow cultural experience • Being away from people • Doing harm • Not learning about the country • Trying to get away from the home country • Doing things you can do at home

Table 5.5: Personal construct clusters (aggregated grid)

The last cluster refers to ethical issues as it includes such constructs as “good” versus “bad”, “producing good impression” versus “producing bad impression” and “doing good” versus “doing harm”. The cluster shows that, in general, the respondents perceive those travelers who try to get away from their home countries and just go to do things that they can also do at home as worse than those who are attracted by the destinations and travel to do something different from what they do at home. Again, those tourists with a desire to learn about the country and seek deep cultural experience, are perceived as producing good impression, unlike those who are not willing to learn about the country or just seek shallow cultural experience from their trips.

5.5.2 Principal component analysis

In this section, the principal component analysis of the aggregated grid containing the averages of all available grids will be presented. We will use three principal components covering 88.47% of the variance. Table 5.6 containing the constructs that form each of the three components is presented below. The unfiltered maps are provided in Appendix 9. The statistical data behind the principal component analysis of the aggregated grid as well as its variance percentage are presented in Appendix 10.

Principal Components	Left-hand side (-x) or Bottom (-y)	Right-hand side (+x) or Top (+y)
<p>PC1 (38.1% of variance)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Many possibilities to develop yourself • Traveling for new experience • Willing to give up comfortable life • Doing many different things • Adventurous • Having obstacles to get over • Doing things • Exciting • Being close to nature • Doing things you cannot do at home 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Few possibilities to develop yourself • Traveling for pleasure • Reluctant to give up comfortable life • Doing the same thing • Coward • Not having obstacles to get over • Seeing things • Boring • Being away from nature • Doing things you can do at home
<p>PC2 (26.8% of variance)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Producing good impression • Deep cultural experience • Learning about the country • Doing good • Being attracted by the destination • Being close to people 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Producing bad impression • Shallow cultural experience • Not learning about the country • Doing harm • Trying to get away from the home country • Being away from people
<p>PC3 (23.6% of variance)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Staying in one place • Being bounded • Prearranged • Having somebody to turn to 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Visiting many places • Having freedom • Spontaneous • Having nobody to turn to

Table 5.6: Principal components and correlated constructs (aggregated grid)

Principal component one covers 38.1% of the total variance. The constructs forming the first principal component refer to such issues as excitement, novelty and variety of experience, challenge and development. The construct pole “exciting” is associated with personal development, new experience, challenge and closeness to nature.

Principal component two covers 26.8% of the total variance and largely refers to some ethical issues, depth of cultural experience and interaction with people. The construct poles “producing good impression” and “doing good” are associated with deep cultural experience, presence of learning, interest in the destinations and closeness to people.

Principal component three accounts for 23.6% of variance and is primarily about the trip organization and the associated degree of freedom. The construct pole “having freedom” is associated with the possibility to visit many places and ability to take spontaneous decisions. At the same time, the pole “having freedom” is associated with being alone and impossibility of expecting support from anyone.

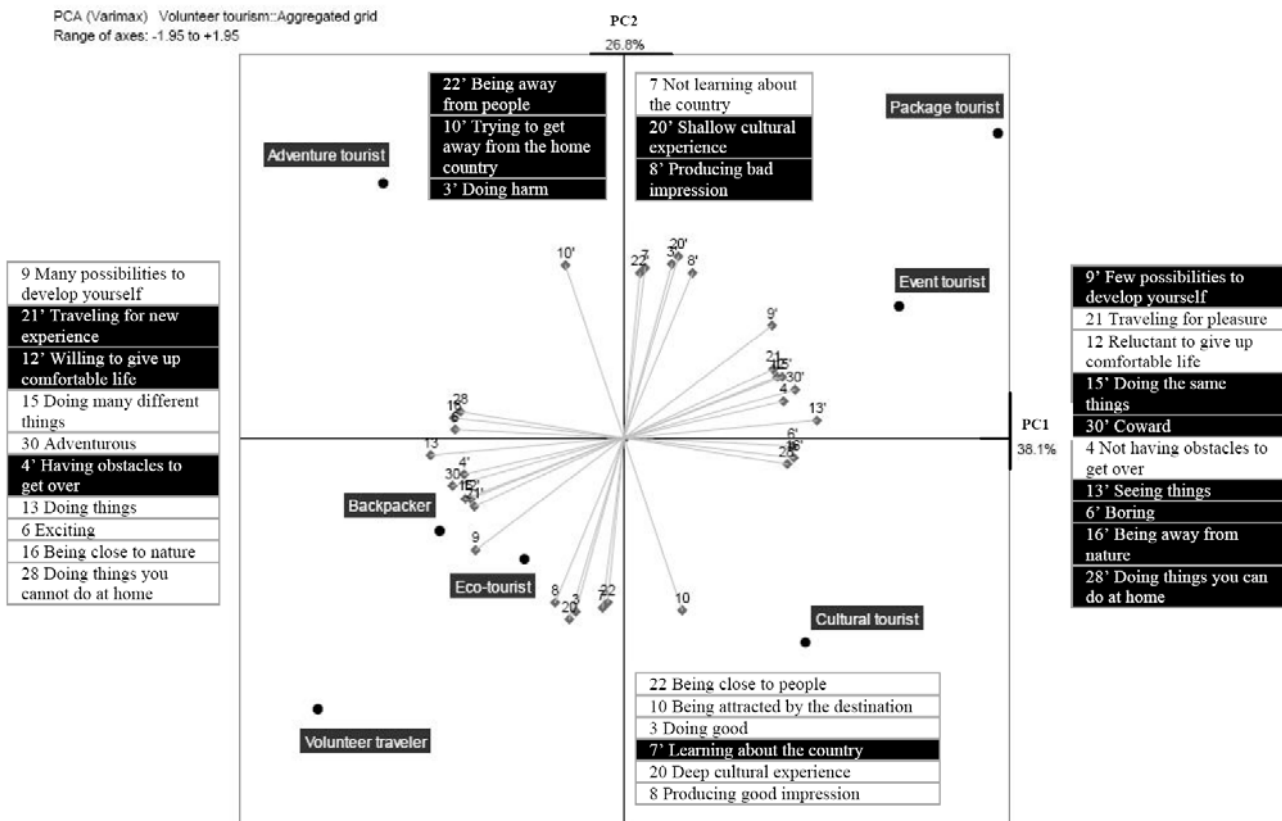


Figure 5.8: Filtered PC1-PC2 map (aggregated grid)

Figure 5.8 represents the position of the element “volunteer tourism” and the other six types of tourists on the basis of the principal components one and two. As in the case of individual grids the map contains only the constructs which are strongly correlated with the components.

It is clear that volunteer tourism is positioned separately from other types of tourism and perceived as something rather distinct in terms of both principal component one and principal component two. According to the aggregated ratings the element “volunteer traveler” is plotted in the lower left quadrant associated with construct poles with largely positive meanings. Volunteer tourism is perceived as allowing to do many different things that cannot be done at home (PC1). It is regarded as exciting, adventurous and giving many possibilities for self-development. Volunteer travelers are

thought of as traveling for new experience, willing to give up comfortable life and being close to nature. At the same time volunteer travelers are believed to do good, instead of harm, and produce good impression (PC2). They are attracted by the country they visit, are close to the people and get a deeper cultural experience.

The two other types of tourists which are closest to volunteer traveler are backpacker and eco-tourists. These two types of tourists are plotted at the same quadrant with volunteer traveler, but are perceived to be closer to other more conventional types of travelers. The element “package tourist” is plotted at the edge of the upper right quadrant of the map and is characterized with the construct poles with generally negative in meanings. Package tourist is perceived as the strongest antagonist of volunteer traveler. The element “event tourist” is perceived as something very similar to package tourist, even though it is not perceived so negatively. Cultural tourists and adventure tourists are perceived as two types of traveling which occupy the position between the two radical points of volunteer traveler and package tourist. Adventure tourists are perceived as similar to package tourists in terms of producing bad impression and getting shallow cultural experience. At the same time adventure tourism is believed to be exciting, challenging and giving possibilities for personal development, which makes it comparable with volunteer traveling. Cultural tourists, on the other hand, are regarded as close to volunteer travelers in terms of producing good impression and getting deep cultural experience. Nevertheless, cultural tourism is considered to be analogous to package tourism in some aspects, such as being boring and giving few possibilities for self-development.

Figure 5.9 gives a possibility to look at the elements from a slightly different angle. The presented map is based on two principal components: PC2, which was already discussed earlier, and PC3, which primarily refers to the issues of trip organization and extent of freedom.

It can be seen on the graph that in terms of trip organization, volunteer travelers are perceived to be quite close to the more conventional types of tourists, such as package tourists. Volunteer trips are regarded as prearranged and implying certain boundaries, which implies a possibility to get support from the organizers of the trips. Moreover, volunteer travelers are believed to be attached to one place, instead of traveling to many different places.

Cultural tourists, eco-tourists and adventure tourists are believed to have more freedom than volunteer, event and package tourists. Backpacking is thought of as the least prearranged and the most spontaneous type of traveling. Backpackers are strongly opposed to package tourists, being the most contrasting points on the map.

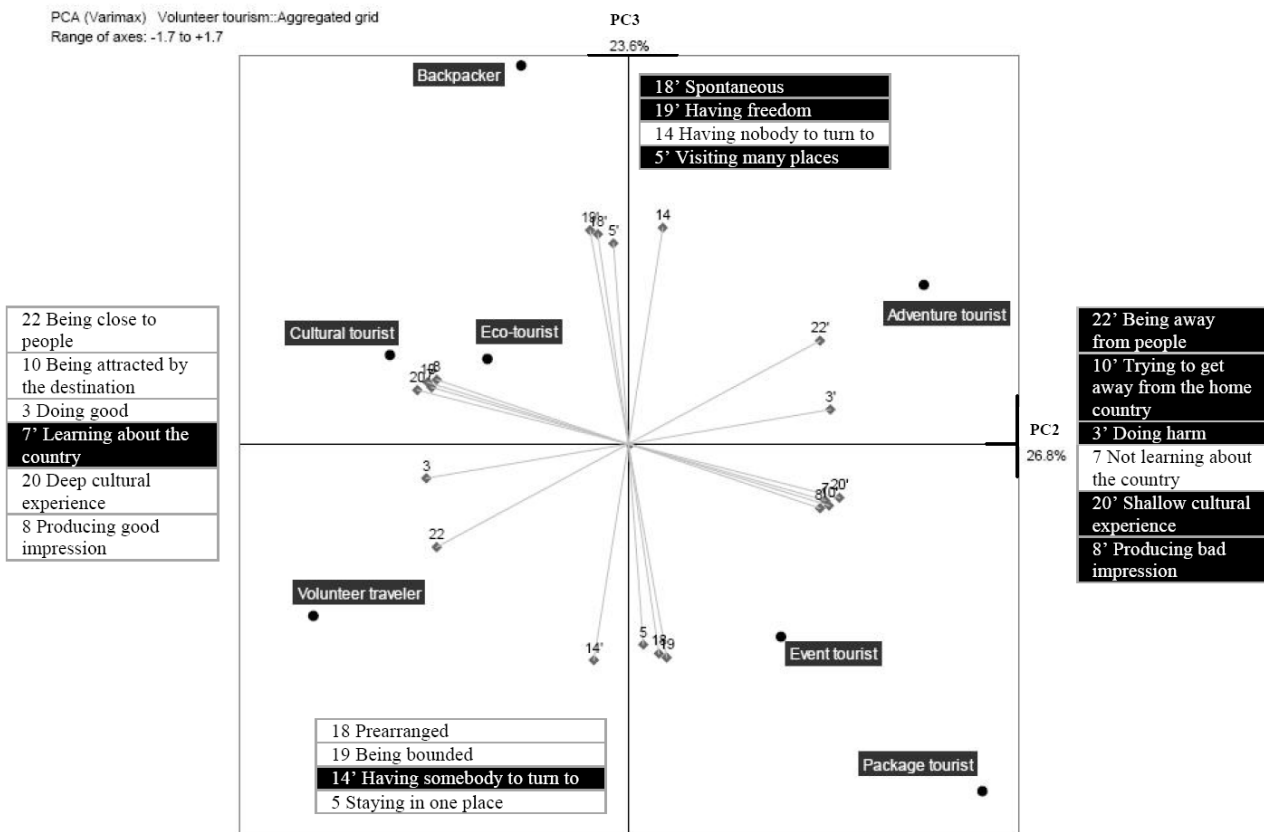


Figure 5.9: Filtered PC2-PC3 map (aggregated grid)

5.6 Grids comparison

The table showing grid comparison scores indicating the disagreement among respondents' perceptions is presented in Appendix 11. Higher scores in the cell mean higher disagreement among the respondents concerning that particular cell. According to the appendix, constructs for the element "volunteer tourist" with high level of disagreement (constructs with scores higher than 35) among all respondents include:

- Exciting/Boring
- Not learning about the country/Learning about the country
- Taking decisions by yourself/Decisions taken by somebody else
- Being bounded/Having freedom
- Need more money/Need less money
- Dirty/Clean
- Open minded/Narrow minded
- Doing things you cannot do at home/Doing things you can do at home

The comparison also demonstrates that the respondents tend to agree that volunteer tourism gives many possibilities for self-development and provides a mind-blowing experience. They also agree that tourists who participate in volunteer expeditions produce good impression and are willing to give up their comfortable life during the trips.

All respondents have similar perceptions about cultural tourist, backpacker, eco-tourist and event tourist since the comparison scores for these four elements are relatively low. At the same time, the perceptions concerning adventure tourist, volunteer traveler and package tourist are rather incongruent as the comparison scores are relatively high.

CHAPTER 6: ANALYSIS

6.1 Perceptions of volunteer tourism

6.1.1 Majority opinion

The results of cluster analysis and principal component analysis of the aggregated grid and respondent A's grid (which is very close to the aggregated grid) demonstrate that most of the volunteer tourists from our sample have similar positive views regarding volunteer tourism, which comply with the conclusions made in dominant studies on this issue. According to the cluster analysis of the ratings from respondent A and the aggregated grid, volunteer traveler is grouped into the same cluster together with other types of alternative tourists such as eco-tourist, cultural tourist and adventure tourist (see Figures 5.1 and 5.7). This grouping indicates that most respondents perceive volunteer tourism as belonging to the area of alternative tourism and having many similarities with other forms of tourism within this group. Our empirical results are aligned with major part of existing research within the field of volunteer tourism according to which volunteer tourism is considered to be a form of alternative tourism (Wearing, 2001; 2002; Brown & Morrison, 2003; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Callanan & Thomas, 2005; Lyons & Wearing, 2008). Moreover, the empirical results prove that the majority of respondents associate volunteer tourism with eco-tourism (85.0% from average grid and 79.0% from respondent A's grid). This idea is in line with Coghlan (2006) and Gray and Campbell (2007), who address volunteer tourism as 'volunteer ecotourism'. The results of the principal component analysis, as shown in Figures 5.2 and 5.8, indicate that the element "package tourist" is regarded as radically opposite to the element "volunteer tourist". These results reinforce the conceptual schema of alternative tourism (see Figure 2.1) proposed by Wearing (2001), who claims that volunteer tourism does not fit within the area of 'mass tourism (conventional, standard, large scale tourism)'.

The principal component analysis of the aggregated grid and respondent A's grid also confirms the conclusions made by many authors, according to whom volunteer tourism is perceived as a 'good' type of tourism. According to the results, graphically presented in Figures 5.2 and 5.8, volunteer tourist is characterized by such positive construct poles as "mind blowing experience", "doing many different things", "adventurous", "exciting" and "willing to give up comfortable life". More importantly, most respondents perceive it as producing good impression, doing good, and, therefore, as a "good" type of tourist. The figures also suggest that volunteer tourist, compared with

other types of tourists, tend to get deeper cultural experience and learn more about the country they visit. Furthermore, people participating in volunteer tourism are also perceived as having many possibilities to develop themselves during the expeditions. These positive perceptions of most of the respondents are in line with the established views on volunteer tourism expressed by many authors, such as Wearing (2001; 2002; 2004), Stoddart and Rogerson (2004), Callanan and Thomas (2005) and McIntosh and Zahra (2007). These authors perceive volunteer tourism as a positive type of tourism allowing to achieve something more than just a pleasure-filled holiday through making a difference for the nature and society and at the same time allowing them to (re)-evaluate and develop themselves. Volunteer tourism is promoted by most of international volunteer organizations as expeditions with unique experience and opportunity to truly understand the destinations (VolunTourism International, 2009), and this matches the perceptions of most respondents.

6.1.2 Alternative view

Even though, most of the respondents' views on volunteer tourism are coherent with the established perspectives of dominant authors, some of the respondents provided alternative views on the issue. Respondent B's repertory grid is an example of such views. According to the cluster analysis as shown in Figure 5.4, volunteer tourist is strongly correlated with event tourist (86.0% matching score) and package tourist (79.0% matching score). Since package tourist is the main type of conventional tourist, this view opposes the well-established perspectives of many authors that describe volunteer tourism as a form of alternative tourism that is different from, and mostly superior, to the conventional mass tourism (Wearing, 2001; 2002; 2004; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Callanan & Thomas, 2005; Lyons & Wearing, 2008). However, it is, to some extent, aligned with the conclusions made by some researchers suggesting a more critical view upon volunteer tourism. Such authors as Simpson (2004) and Guttentag (2009) view volunteer tourism as a form of tourism which is not better than conventional mass tourism and which can also produce negative effects on the society.

The principal component analysis of respondent B's grid also represents a different view on volunteer tourism. According to Figure 5.5, volunteer tourist is perceived as highly similar to package tourist and event tourist, while different from eco-tourist, cultural tourist, backpacker and adventure tourist. It is interesting to point out that the respondent perceives volunteer tourism as consisting of those tourists with egoistic motivations, not having many obstacles to get over and also not having so many possibilities to develop themselves during the trip. Moreover, Figure 5.6

shows that respondent B perceives volunteer tourist as producing relatively bad impression and not learning about the visited country. These negative perceptions contrast with the positive views of such dominant authors as Wearing (2001; 2002; 2004) and Scheyvens (2002) who describe volunteer tourists as having sense of altruism and trying to make a difference during their trips. The results of the analysis also question the advantages of volunteer tourism as promoted by many of the international volunteer organizations claiming that it allows the participants to get an authentic experience and learn about the destinations while having many opportunities to develop themselves (Coghlan, 2007).

6.2 Volunteer tourist segment and their expectations

The growth of volunteer tourism during recent years along with its commercialization and commodification makes volunteer tourism easily accessible for everyone who is interested and is willing to devote their money and time to charitable work. Therefore, the market segment of 'volunteer tourist' as well as the importance of identifying such segment has grown tremendously.

6.2.1 Majority of the volunteer tourist segment

According to the cluster analysis of the aggregated grid, as shown in Figure 5.7, the respondents perceive themselves as a distinct group of tourists who share some common characteristics with other types of alternative tourists, and at the same time move themselves away from the conventional mass tourists. The respondents perceive volunteer tourist as highly similar to eco-tourist and cultural tourist as well as associated with backpacker and adventure tourist at a lower level. The principal component analysis of the average grid also demonstrates a view, similar to the results of the cluster analysis. According to Figures 5.8 and 5.9, most of the respondents perceive people who participate in volunteer tourism as, to some extent, similar to people participating in eco-tourism trips. The average ratings for the element *volunteer tourist* from all respondents in the aggregated grid and the results from the principal component analysis demonstrate that volunteer tourist segment is perceived as consisting of those tourists who have a sense of altruism and would like to do something for someone else. They are also perceived to be adventurous and looking for challenges. They enjoy learning new cultures, gaining new experience and developing themselves. They do not mind to go to unpopular places and are willing to give up their comfortable life. They do not mind to stay in one place and being attached to the organization as long as they can do many different things that they cannot do at home during the trip. The empirical results of our study are

aligned with the conclusion of Wearing (2001; 2004) that describes volunteer tourists as those who are very different from conventional mass tourists and appreciate different types of tourist experience that are beneficial to the social, natural and economic situation of host community and also contribute to their own self-development.

The expectations of these volunteer tourists concerning their international volunteer trips are clearly different from what they would expect of other types of tourism. According to the results of our analysis, volunteer tourists expect to travel to unknown places and stay in one particular place. They also expect to have many obstacles during their holidays so that they can also have many possibilities for personal development. Moreover, they expect to interact with other people and gain deep cultural experience. They expect to perform many different activities that they cannot do in their home countries and expect those activities to be exciting and adventurous. They expect their trips to be pre-arranged and properly organized by the organizations and expect to have some personal support during their expeditions in case of any troubles they might encounter. Most importantly, they are willing to give up their comfortable life at home in order to do something for someone else and, therefore, they expect to produce positive impressions and to get warm reception from other people, especially the host communities.

6.2.2 Minority of the volunteer tourist segment

According to the research done by Lyons (2003) and Gray and Campbell (2007), however, the volunteer tourist segment is not a homogeneous or unproblematic one. In their research they claim that some volunteer tourists see themselves or are perceived by host organizations and communities as volunteers, while some others are perceived as tourists (Lyons, 2003), yet others are perceived as *special type* of tourists (Gray & Campbell, 2007). Furthermore, the commercialization of volunteer tourism makes the segment attractive for more tourists from around the globe and stimulates the expansion of the volunteer tourist segment. These facts were confirmed by our empirical results as the respondents of our questionnaire do not only reside in developed countries like Sweden, the Netherlands and Germany, but also live in such developing countries as Thailand. The age of the respondents engaging in volunteer expeditions also ranges from 19 to 36 years. Moreover, the response from respondent B also demonstrates that there could be more than just one view upon volunteer tourism. The results of the cluster analysis and principal component analysis of respondent B's grid illustrate a different perception according to which volunteer tourist is viewed as similar to package tourist and event tourist, while different from other types of alternative tourists

like eco-tourist (see Figures 5.4, 5.5 and 5.6). Volunteer tourist segment, as perceived by respondent B, consists of those tourists who have a sense of egoism and participate in volunteer expeditions just to do something for themselves. The respondent expects to go to popular places and not to learn much about the destinations during his/her volunteer trips, which is identical to conventional mass tourists. Moreover, the respondent expects that his/her pre-arranged volunteer package will imply being secured and bounded to the organization, which is also comparable with the ordinary tourist package. Respondent B expects to have few obstacles to overcome during volunteer trips and expects the trips to be boring.

6.2.3 Differences in expectations

The results of the comparison of all available grids, presented in Appendix 11, correspond to the conclusions made by Bruyere and Rappe (2007), who state that people engaging in volunteer activities are motivated by many different reasons such as 'helping the environment', 'expressing their values', 'learning about the natural environment' or 'socializing with people with similar interests'. The appendix demonstrates that the respondents perceive volunteer tourism differently, therefore, implying that they have different motivations for participating in volunteer trips as well as different expectations concerning such expeditions. The respondents have different perceptions of whether volunteer tourists are open-minded or narrow-minded. Therefore, it confirms the arguments made by Bruyere and Rappe (2007) who states that volunteers have different motivations and that some of them would like to help other people or the environment or interact with other people (open-minded) and others would like to express their values or just learn about the culture (narrow-minded).

The constructs with high degree of disagreement among the respondents imply that different expectations concerning volunteer tourism might exist in these areas (see Appendix 11). The results suggest that some volunteers might expect exciting activities during the trips, while others might expect rather routine and boring jobs. Some volunteers might expect to have opportunities to learn about the countries they visit, while others might not expect such learning opportunities and might just expect to spend time being close to nature. Some volunteers might want to be free to take decisions by themselves, while others might expect to be bounded and wait for the decisions to be taken by somebody else. Some volunteers might expect that the expeditions will be dirty, while others might expect that such trips will be clean and, therefore, could be disappointed if they have to get themselves dirty during the trips. Some volunteers might expect to engage in activities that

they cannot do in their home country, while others might expect to perform activities that are identical to what they can also do in their country of residence. The amount of money to be paid by participants is also an issue of disagreement among the respondents as some perceive volunteer tourism as requiring more money as compared to other types of tourism, while, others perceive it as requiring less money. This is the case because the itinerary of the trips is, sometimes, not spelled out and it can be ambiguous for the tourists what they will get for the money paid.

6.3 Analysis of the repertory grid technique application

Currently the repertory grid technique is underused. However, we believe that it deserves much more attention from academics and business practitioners, since it might give many new possibilities for understanding various perceptions and views of people.

6.3.1 Strengths of the repertory grid technique

First of all, it is important to mention that the repertory grid technique proved to be a very flexible method which can be modified depending on research context and objectives, at the same time retaining the essential components of the method. All stages of the process (i.e. element selection, construct elicitation, linking, grid aggregation and analysis) allow many alternative approaches and can be designed to best fit the research objectives. In this study, a combination of classical and modified approaches was used. For example, the application of a standardized grid derived from the process of content analysis of the data acquired during the construct elicitation stage (modified approach), instead of working with separate individual grids (classical approach) allowed us to ensure better comparability and reach larger number of respondents without conducting many construct elicitation interviews. At the same time, this approach allowed to ensure that most of the constructs used by this group of population are extracted. Our study indicated that at certain point of the construct elicitation stage, interviewees started to repeat the constructs which were already obtained during prior interview sessions. Therefore, conducting more interviews after this point of theoretical saturation became unnecessary. All constructs used in the final repertory grid of our study were obtained during the first three interviews and the last two interviews did not provide any new constructs that had not been elicited before. Even though the wordings were different, they conveyed the messages similar to those obtained during the prior interview sessions.

As mentioned earlier, the repertory grid technique was originally developed for clinical psychology and implies highly individualized approach to interviewees. It is especially true about the classical

method when each individual interview results in the rating of individualized grid, i.e. rating of interviewee's personally elicited elements and constructs. In the case of our study one step towards standardization was made by aggregating individually elicited constructs into a standardized grid which was consequently rated by all participants of the study. Nevertheless, we believe that the adopted approach remained highly individualized. The chosen method of construct elicitation minimized interviewer's bias and influence on interviewees, since the interviewees were not asked any questions which could hint what kind of answers were expected and, therefore, the provided answers were highly individualized. An interesting comment was given by one of the interviewees, who noted that the process of interviewing is much easier when there is a dialog between interviewee and interviewer, which illustrates that absence of such hints is not always easy for interviewees. In the case of the repertory grid technique, the interview is more likely to be considered as monologue (or an internal dialog) in which interviewee largely talks to him/herself and interviewer plays a role of attentive listener, who occasionally directs interviewee and asks for clarifications. The only stimulus we provided during the construct elicitation sessions was the offered cards with triads of elements, which triggered and structured interviewees' thinking. As a result, the interviewees were given freedom to provide individualized answers but at the same time were kept within the limits, thus, providing only relevant information.

In addition to minimizing influence on interviewees' answers and giving structure to interview sessions, construct elicitation allowed us to acquire constructs referring to the topics which could have been avoided in case of application of other research methods. In-depth interviewing, structured interviewing or fixed-choice questionnaires are all primarily based on researcher's own perception of the subject, and, therefore, there is a high risk to exclude topics that seem to be irrelevant to researcher, but are important for interviewee.

The application of the repertory grid technique allowed us to give the interviewees important points of reference. During the construct elicitation and grid rating processes, the participants were asked to compare seven types of tourists which allowed us to set important benchmarks and look at volunteer tourism in relation to these benchmarks. Due to the possibility to use such benchmarks, the application of the repertory grid technique gives more meaningful results as compared to other more widely used techniques, such as likert-type fixed choice questionnaires, structured and unstructured interviews.

In addition to the above mentioned advantages, it is important to note that the application of the repertory grid technique made it possible to use analysis methods which resulted in graphic representation of the collected data. The two major types of repertory grid analysis, cluster analysis and principal component analysis, allowed us to summarize and graphically demonstrate how volunteer tourism is perceived by international volunteers.

6.3.2 Difficulties and problems

The conducted study indicated some problems and difficulties associated with the application of the repertory grid technique. First of all, there were difficulties associated with the process of construct elicitation. The process of construct elicitation proved to be quite lengthy (45 – 60 minutes for 15 triads) and required much intellectual efforts from the interviewees. Four of the five interviewees who participated in the construct elicitation interviews stated that the process was difficult, but at the same time interesting.

The process of rating proved to be complicated and time consuming. Since the repertory grid technique is not as widely used as, for example, Likert-scale technique, respondents find the process of grid rating confusing. One particular problem is that respondents tend to associate construct poles which are positive in meaning with higher rating irrespective of whether it is a left-side or right-side pole. Nevertheless, the provision of a simple example in the beginning of the questionnaire helped to resolve this problem.

The final grid contained 30 constructs and seven elements, which is equivalent to a questionnaire containing 210 questions. The pilot rating session took 45 minutes. The length of repertory grid can significantly decrease response rate since there is a high risk that respondents either decide not to fill the grid out or get too tired before they finish. Personal presence of interviewer might be helpful for ensuring that respondent finishes the process of rating, but unfortunately is not always possible. The problem of low response rate due to grid's length is inevitable and should be primarily dealt with through delivering the grid to larger number of respondents.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS

7.1 Volunteer tourism

Nowadays, the tourism industry has grown tremendously and many forms of alternative tourism are available for different niche markets according to their preferences. Volunteer tourism has become one of the fast growing types of alternative tourism. The number of organizations offering this type of vacation and the number of people participating in it are on the rise. Therefore, studying volunteers' perceptions and expectations becomes imperative for all organizations offering volunteer packages. International volunteer organizations should segregate the whole tourist market and identify their target audiences according to motivations and expectations of the tourists. They must be able to attract volunteer tourists who are in agreement with them in terms of motivations and objectives. By doing so, they are likely to satisfy their volunteers as they can provide services which comply with volunteers' expectations.

Based on our analysis, it can be concluded that, in general, volunteer travelers construe their international volunteer trips as similar to eco-tourism trips and different from package tourism trips. Volunteer tourism is perceived positively by most of the respondents and characterized by such construct poles as "exciting", "adventurous", "allowing to do many different things that cannot be done at home" and "giving many possibilities for self-development". Volunteer travelers are considered to be a 'good' type of tourists that travel for new experience, are willing to give up comfortable life, are close to nature, do something good and produce good impression. They travel because they are attracted by destinations and stay close to people to get a deeper cultural experience in one particular place. However, there are few aspects in which volunteer tourism is regarded as similar to package tourism, which are the pre-arrangement of the trips that decreases the extent of freedom but at the same time allows participants to get support from trip organizers.

Moreover, the empirical results show that volunteers' perceptions are not the same and, therefore, this particular group of people can be subdivided into smaller and more homogeneous segments. The analysis demonstrates that some volunteer tourists perceive volunteer tourism as similar to event tourism and package tourism. Accordingly, they perceive volunteer tourism as highly different from other types of alternative tourism, such as eco-tourism and adventure tourism. International volunteer expeditions, according to the perspectives of this smaller group, do not have any obvious superiority over other types of tourism. While, it is regarded as giving special

experience, it is still characterized by such aspects as being boring, without obstacles to get over and giving few possibilities for self-development.

The grids comparison analysis also demonstrates some interesting points that could be used as basis for segmenting volunteer tourists. Constructs with high difference scores could be used by volunteer organizations for differentiating their prospective international volunteers as these constructs are characterized by high degree of disagreement among all respondents. The expeditions' itinerary should be spelled out more clearly in order to clarify to volunteers what extent of excitement, learning opportunities, freedom of decision making, boundaries, cleanliness, and what types of activities should be expected of the expeditions. The organizations should also try to learn more about the motivation of prospective volunteers and must try to differentiate between volunteers with narrow-minded motives and those with more open-minded motives. Moreover, specific programs which can fit special expectations of potential volunteers can be developed on the basis of identified differences.

7.2 Repertory Grid technique

The repertory grid technique proved to be a promising research method giving much space for researcher's own design decisions to fit the research context. During our study, we identified both advantages and disadvantages associated with the application of the repertory grid technique. We strongly believe that the advantages of the technique outweigh its disadvantages and make it an attractive alternative, especially for studies aimed at exploring people's personal perceptions, attitudes, assumptions and expectations.

The main advantages of the repertory grid technique identified during this study include the flexibility of the method, honesty of produced data, possibility to access the underlying cognition of respondents and ability to uncover topics that were previously undiscovered or were not thought of by researcher. Flexibility of the method is associated with wide range of available options for designing each stage of the method, from the element selection stage to the analysis of the grids, thus allowing the process to best fit research context and objectives. The honesty of produced data and possibility to access underlying thinking and previously undiscovered topics or topics that may not be thought of by researcher primarily result from the fact that the concepts used in the research (in this case constructs) were provided by the respondents during the construct elicitation stage, and not by the researchers. Moreover, the technique provided an opportunity to present the obtained

data in the form of graphic cognitive maps and cluster dendograms, which allowed us to easily analyze the positions of the element “volunteer tourist” in relation to the other six elements and the identified personal constructs.

The main disadvantages of the repertory grid technique identified during this study include the overall complexity of the method, the amount of time required for construct elicitation interviews and grid rating, and, most importantly, low questionnaire response rates. The construct elicitation interviews proved to be long, rather stressful and requiring much intellectual tension from the interviewees. The process of grid rating might be confusing for the respondents and required detailed explanation. The process of rating seven elements across 30 constructs also proved to be long and tiresome for the respondents. All these factors can result in low response rates.

Even though, we came across some difficulties associated with the method during the research, the application of the repertory grid technique allowed us to produce sensible results and reach better understanding of the phenomenon of volunteer tourism. We believe that the repertory grid technique is currently undeservedly underused, and has much potential for studies aimed at better understanding of human perceptions, attitudes, assumptions, values and expectations. The possibility to reach the underlying personal thinking given by the technique was especially useful taking into consideration that volunteer tourism is a relatively unexplored field and much attention should be paid to the extraction of previously undiscovered concepts.

The applicability of the repertory grid technique, nevertheless, is not limited to academic research. Repertory grid technique can be used by functioning organizations for improving their understanding of clients. Repertory grids, analogical to one developed within this study, can be used by volunteer organizations for inspecting perceptions, assumptions and expectations of prospective volunteers and selection as well as development of programs which can fit and fulfill their expectations. Moreover, repertory grids can be used for the selection of volunteers whose goals and expectations comply with the charitable goals of the organization. Furthermore, the technique can be successfully used for studying other forms of tourism and identifying their distinctive characteristics, for both academic and practical purposes.

Repertory grid technique can also be used in opposite direction to investigate how effectively organization communicates with its potential clients. For example, organization can use the grid to investigate its potential volunteers’ perceptions after they read advertising materials. If their

perceptions do not comply with organization's intended message, certain improvements should be made to eliminate possible discrepancy between volunteer's expectations and future experience. The technique can be used for identifying causes of dissatisfaction.

The technique can be used inside organizations for exploring to what extent members of organization understand and share organizational values. Grids comparison, for example, could help to identify whether the organization has strong or weak organizational culture. High difference ratings would indicate weak culture and low difference would indicate strong culture.

Furthermore, the repertory grid technique can be used as a tool to improve internal communication and resolve conflicts. The opposing parties can use grids to better understand each others' views, to negotiate and eliminate causes of conflicts.

7.3 Limitations of this research

It is important to note that the original Kelly's approach was modified in this study. The classical repertory grid test implies working with individual grids, which means that each respondent forms and rates his/her own individual grid. In this study an aggregated grid was formed after conducting five construct elicitation interviews, which made the approach less individualized. The application of the classical approach to a large sample, nevertheless, would still require content analysis of the individual grids, which would reduce the amount of individualized data. Therefore, when the repertory grid technique is applied to larger samples the problem of losing some individualized data is inevitable. Our approach, nonetheless, allowed us to adapt the method for a larger sample.

Another major limitation of this research is that the sample size is rather small and the samples were not randomly selected. This limitation has implications for the external validity of the results. This research was constrained in terms of space and time, since we could not randomly select larger group of volunteer tourists to fill out our repertory grid questionnaire. Therefore, it is worth mentioning that one must be careful in generalizing the results from this thesis beyond the specific research context.

One more limitation relates to the impossibility to use decimal values for the aggregated grid in the "GruidSuite 4" software. Therefore, round-off numbers were input in the grid, which could slightly reduce the accuracy of the analysis results.

7.4 Suggestions for further research

We believe that this research should shed some light on the issue of volunteer tourism, and provide an alternative view on the issue. Furthermore, it should introduce the repertory grid technique for further use by researchers. Our research has shown that the people participating in international volunteer tourism tend to differ from conventional tourists. Volunteer tourism requires further attention in order to provide basis for considering it to be better form of tourism.

Further research could be done using the repertory grid technique to analyze personal constructs of volunteer tourists, members of volunteer organizations and host communities in order to discover the similarities and differences in perceptions and expectations of these three major parties involved in volunteer tourism. It is particularly interesting to study host communities' perspectives as many researchers usually claim that volunteer tourism is beneficial to destinations' societies. Therefore, research with a different perspective could possibly confirm or disprove this widely established opinion.

References

- Alliance of European Voluntary Organizations. (2007). *Members of the Alliance*. Retrieved April 26, 2009, from Alliance of European Voluntary Service Organisations: <http://www.alliance-network.eu/index.php?page=Page-2>
- Beail, N. (1985). An introduction to repertory grid technique. In N. Beail (Ed.), *Repertory Grid Technique and Personal Constructs* (pp. 1-26). Cambridge, MA: Brookline Books.
- Brown, S. & Morrison, A. M. (2003). Expanding volunteer vacation participation. An exploratory study on the mini-mission concept. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 28 (3), 73–82.
- Bruyere, B. & Rappe, S. (2007). Identifying the motivations of environmental volunteers. *Journal of Environmental Planning and Management*, 50 (4), 503 – 516.
- Cadotte, E. R., Woodruff, R. B. & Jenkins, R. L. (1987). Expectations and norms in models of consumer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 24 (8), 305 – 314.
- Callanan, M. & Thomas, S. (2005). Volunteer tourism. Deconstructing volunteer activities within a dynamic environment. In M. Novelli (Ed.), *Niche Tourism. Contemporary Issues, Trends and Cases* (pp. 183–200). Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Churchill, G. A. & Surprenant, C. (1982). An investigation into the determinants of customer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 19 (11), 491 – 504.
- Clary, E. G., Snyder, M., Ridge, R. D., Copeland, J., Stukas, A. A., Haugen, J., et al. (1998). Understanding and assessing the motivations of volunteers: A functional approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74 (6), 1516-1530.
- Clary, E. G. & Snyder, M. (1999). The motivations to volunteer: Theoretical and practical considerations. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 8 (5), 156-159.
- Coghlan, A. (2006). Volunteer tourism as an emerging trend or an expansion of ecotourism? A look at potential clients' perceptions of volunteer tourism organizations. *International Journal of Nonprofit & Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 11, 225-237.
- Coghlan, A. (2007). Towards an integrated image-based typology of volunteer tourism organisations. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 15 (3), 267-287.
- Co-ordinating Committee for International Voluntary Service. (n.d.). *CCIVS Members*. Retrieved April 26, 2009, from Co-ordinating Committee for International Voluntary Service: <http://www.unesco.org/ccivs/New-SiteCCSVI/CcivsMembers/Members-accueil.htm>
- Coshall, J. T. (2000). Measurement of tourists' images: The repertory grid approach. *Journal of Travel Research*, 39 (August), 85-89.

- Cross-Cultural Solutions. (2009). *Volunteer Abroad or Intern Abroad with Cross-Cultural Solutions, Volunteer Abroad Programs in 12 Countries, 1 to 12 Weeks*. Retrieved April 12, 2009, from Cross-Cultural Solutions: <http://www.crossculturalsolutions.org/>
- Earthwatch. (n.d.). *Earthwatch Expeditions - You can make a difference with Earthwatch*. Retrieved April 12, 2009, from Earthwatch Europe: <http://www.earthwatch.org/europe/expeditions/>
- Easterby-Smith, M. (1980). The design, analysis and interpretation of repertory grids. *International Journal of Man-Machine Studies*, 13, 3-24.
- Ellis, C. (2003). Participatory environmental research in tourism: A global view. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 28, 45-55.
- Farmer, S. M. & Fedor, D. B. (1999). Volunteer participation and withdrawal: A psychological contract perspective on the role of expectations and organizational support. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership*, 9(4), 349-367.
- Fitzpatrick, L. (2007, July 26). *Vacationing like Brangelina*. Retrieved April 17, 2009, from Time: <http://www.time.com/time/magazine/article/0,9171,1647457-2,00.html>
- Fransella, F. & Bannister, D. (1977). *A Manual for Repertory Grid Technique*, London: Academic Press Inc. Ltd.
- Galley, G. & Clifton, J. (2004). The motivational and demographic characteristics of research ecotourists: Operation Wallacea volunteers in South East Sulawesi, Indonesia. *Journal of Ecotourism*, 3, 69-82.
- Gray, N. J. & Campbell, L. M. (2007). A decommodified experience? Exploring aesthetic, economic and ethical values for volunteer ecotourism in Costa Rica. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 15 (5), 463-482.
- Guttentag, D. A. (2009). The possible negative impacts of volunteer tourism. *International Journal of Tourism Research*.
- Hankinson, G. (2004). Repertory grid analysis: An application to the measurement of destination images. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 9 (2), 145-153.
- Henderson, K. (1981). Motivations and perceptions of volunteerism as a leisure activity. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 13, 260-274.
- Higgins-Desbiolles, F. A. (2003). Reconciliation tourism: Tourism healing divided societies! *Tourism Recreation Research*, 28 (3), 35-44.
- Jankowicz, D. (2004). *The Easy Guide to Repertory Grids*. Chichester: John Wiley and Sons.
- Kelly, G. A. (1955). *The Psychology of Personal Constructs*. New York: Norton & Company Inc.

- King, D. A. & Stewart, W. P. (1996). Ecotourism and commodification: protecting people and places. *Biodiversity and Conservation* 5, 293-305.
- Kotler, P. & Andreasen, A. R. (2000). Strategic marketing for non-profit organizations. In M. J. Baker, *Marketing Theory: A Student Text* (pp. 264-283). Cengage Learning EMEA.
- Latta, G. F. & Swigger, K. (1992). Validation of the repertory grid for use in modeling knowledge. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science*, 43 (2), 115-129.
- Lonely Planet Publications. (2009). *Volunteer: A traveller's guide to making a difference around the world*. Retrieved April 19, 2009, from Lonely Planet:
http://shop.lonelyplanet.com/Primary/Product/General_Travel/Reference/PRD_PRD_2281/Volunteer+A+Travellers+Guide.jsp?bmUID=1240146838526
- Lyons, K. (2003). Ambiguities in volunteer tourism: A case study of Australians participating in a J-1 visitor exchange program. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 28, 5-13.
- Lyons, K. D. & Wearing, S. (2008). Volunteer tourism as alternative tourism: Journeys beyond otherness. In K. D. Lyons, & S. Wearing (Eds.), *Journeys of Discovery in Volunteer Tourism* (pp. 3-11). Cambridge, MA: CABI Publishing.
- McGehee, N. G. & Andereck, K. (2008). 'Pettin' the critters': Exploring the complex relationship between volunteers and the voluntoured in McDowell County, West Virginia, USA, and Tijuana, Mexico. In K. D. Lyons, & S. Wearing (Eds.), *Journeys of Discovery in Volunteer Tourism* (pp. 12-24). Cambridge, MA: CABI Publishing.
- McIntosh, A. J. & Zahra, A. (2007). A cultural encounter through volunteer tourism: Towards the ideals of sustainable tourism? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 15 (5), 541-556.
- Mowforth, M. & Munt, I. (1998). *Tourism and sustainability: New tourism in the third world*. London: Routledge.
- Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. & Berry, L. (1985). A conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research. *Journal of Marketing*, 49, 41- 50.
- Pike, S. (2004). The use of repertory grid analysis and importance-performance analysis to identify determinant attributes of universities. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education*, 14 (2), 1-18.
- Raymond, E. M. & Hall, C. M. (2008). The development of cross-cultural (mis)understanding through volunteer tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16 (5), 530-534.
- Rogers, B. & Ryals, L. (2006). Using repertory grid for identifying the underlying realities in key account relationships. *International Journal of Market Research*, 49 (5), 595 – 612.
- Sampson, P. (1972). Using the repertory grid test. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 9 (1), 78-81.

- Scheyvens, R. (2002). *Tourism for Development: Empowering Communities*. Harlow: Pearson Education.
- Service Civil International. (2007, 03 22). *About us: Service Civil International*. Retrieved April 26, 2009, from Service Civil International: http://www.sciint.org/about_us.phtml
- Sheard, J. (1992). Volunteering and society 1960–1990. In R. Hedley, & J. D. Smith (Eds.), *Volunteering & Society, Principles and Practice*. London: Bedford Square Press.
- Simpson, K. (2004). 'Doing development': The gap year, volunteer-tourists and a popular practice of development. *Journal of International Development*, 16, 681-692.
- Smith, M. (1980). An analysis of three managerial jobs using repertory grids. *The Journal of Management Studies*, 17 (2), 205 – 213.
- Smith, W. R. (1956). Product differentiation and market segmentation as alternative marketing strategies. *The Journal of Marketing*, 3-8.
- Stauth, G. & Turner, B. (1988). Nostalgia, postmodernism and the critique of mass culture. *Theory, Culture and Society*, 5, 509-526.
- Stewart, V. & Stewart, A. (1981). *Business Applications of Repertory Grid*. London: McGraw-Hill.
- Stoddart, H. & Rogerson, C. M. (2004). Volunteer tourism: The case of Habitat for Humanity South Africa. *Geographical Journal*, 60, 311–318.
- Tan, F. B. & Hunter, M. G. (2002). The repertory grid technique: A method for the study of cognition in information systems. *MIS Quarterly*, 26 (1), 39-57.
- Tourism Research and Marketing. (2008). *Volunteer Tourism: A Global Analysis*. Barcelona: Atlas.
- Tuckman, H. P. (1998). Competition, commercialization, and the evolution of nonprofit organizational structures. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 17 (2), 175-194.
- United Nations Development Programme. (n.d.). *About us*. Retrieved April 26, 2009, from United Nations Volunteers: <http://www.unv.org/about-us.html>
- Voluntary Service Overseas. (2009). *Volunteering - VSO*. Retrieved April 12, 2009, from Voluntary Service Overseas: <http://www.vso.org.uk/volunteering/>
- VolunTourism International. (2009). *Welcome Potential VolunTourists*. Retrieved February 21, 2009, from VolunTourism.org Travel and Volunteer Opportunities: <http://www.voluntourism.org/travelers.htm>
- Wall, G. & Mathieson, A. (2006). *Tourism Changes, Impacts and Opportunities*. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.

- Wearing, S. (2001). *Volunteer Tourism: Experiences that Make a Difference*. New York: CABI Publishing.
- Wearing, S. (2002). Re-centring the self in volunteer tourism. In G. M. Dann (Ed.), *The Tourist as a Metaphor of the Social World* (pp. 237–262). Wallingford: CABI.
- Wearing, S. (2004). Examining best practice in volunteer tourism. In R. A. Stebbins, & M. Graham (Eds.), *Volunteering as Leisure/ Leisure as Volunteering* (pp. 209-224). Wallingford: Oxford; UK: CABI Publishing.
- Weiler, B. & Richins, H. (1995). Extreme, extravagant and elite: A profile of ecotourists on Earthwatch expeditions. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 20, 29-36.
- Woodruff, R. B., Cadotte, E. R. & Jenkins, R. L. (1983). Modeling consumer satisfaction processes using experience-based norms. *Journal of Marketing Research*, (August), 296-304.
- Zeithaml, V. A., Bitner, M. J. & Gremler, D. D. (2006). *Services Marketing: Integrating Customer Focus Across the Firm*, 4th Edition. NY: McGraw-Hill.

Appendix 1

Questionnaire

The objective of this questionnaire is to study the perceptions of international volunteer travelers and volunteer organizations regarding the phenomenon of volunteer tourism. We really appreciate your cooperation. Thank you very much for your time!

Part I: Please fill out the following grid by rating each **type of traveler** on the scale of **one (1)** to **seven (7)** according to your perception of each traveler's association with each statement. **One (1)** represents closeness of an element to the statement on the **LEFT side** of the grid, while **seven (7)** represents closeness of an element to the **RIGHT side**. In the exemplary grid below elements are seasons; in the grid which you will fill out the elements are types of travelers. Please see the example below.

Example: Please note that the grid below reflects the perception of a person living in Northern Europe! Winters are very cold, dark, unpleasant and colorless!

Left side (1)	Elements (Seasons)				Right side (7)
	Summer	Spring	Fall	Winter	
Hot (1)	2	3	5	7	Cold (7)
Dark (1)	7	5	3	1	Bright (7)
Unpleasant (1)	7	5	4	3	Pleasant (7)
Colorful (1)	1	2	5	7	Colorless (7)

"1" in this box means that the respondent perceives "summer" as very "colorful" (i.e. as "1" correspondent to the statement on the left side).

"4" in this box means that the respondent perceives "fall" as neither "unpleasant" nor "pleasant" (i.e. "4" is in the middle).

"7" in this box means that the respondent perceives "winter" as very "cold" (i.e. as "7" correspondent to the statement on the right side).

Repertory Grid: Please fill in the following grid.

Left side (1)	Types of travelers						Right side (7)
	International volunteer traveler	Event tourist ¹	Package tourist ²	Adventure tourist ³	Backpacker ⁴	Eco-tourist ⁵	
1. Doing something for someone else (1)							Doing something for yourself (7)
2. Going to popular places (1)							Going to unknown places (7)
3. Doing good (1)							Doing harm (7)
4. Not having obstacles to get over (1)							Having obstacles to get over (7)
5. Staying in one place (1)							Visiting many places (7)
6. Exciting (1)							Boring (7)
7. Not learning about the country (1)							Learning about the country (7)
8. Producing good impression (1)							Producing bad impression (7)
9. Many possibilities to develop yourself (1)							Few possibilities to develop yourself (7)
10. Being attracted by the destination (1)							Trying to get away from the home country (7)
11. Taking decisions by yourself (1)							Decisions taken by somebody else (7)
12. Reluctant to give up comfortable life (1)							Willing to give up comfortable life (7)
13. Doing things (1)							Seeing things (7)
14. Having nobody to turn to (1)							Having somebody to turn to (7)
15. Doing many different things (1)							Doing the same things (7)
16. Being close to nature (1)							Being away from nature (7)
17. Good (1)							Bad (7)
18. Prearranged (1)							Spontaneous (7)

1. Visiting a place mainly to attend special event or festival. For example, tourists who visit Beijing to attend the Olympic games.
2. Traveling by buying pre-arranged, all-inclusive or chartered package
3. Traveling to areas where they should "expect the unexpected", participating in activities such as trekking, bungee jumping, mountain biking or rafting.
4. Independent budget travelers, who tend to use public transport, stay in hostels and use backpack.
5. Traveling to natural areas minimizing impacts on the nature, emphasizing conservation of the environment and improvement of local people's well-being
6. Visiting historic or large cities and their cultural facilities such as museums and theatres; interested in traditions of indigenous cultural communities and their values and lifestyle.

Left side (1)	Types of travelers							Right side (7)
	International volunteer traveler	Event tourist	Package tourist	Adventure tourist	Backpacker	Eco-tourist	Cultural tourist	
19. Being bounded (1)								Having freedom (7)
20. Deep cultural experience (1)								Shallow cultural experience (7)
21. Traveling for pleasure (1)								Traveling for new experience (7)
22. Being close to people (1)								Being away from people (7)
23. Need more money (1)								Need less money (7)
24. "Dirty" (1)								"Clean" (7)
25. Traveling alone (1)								Traveling with group (7)
26. Ordinary experience (1)								Mind blowing experience (7)
27. Open minded (1)								Narrow minded (7)
28. Doing things you cannot do at home (1)								Doing things you can do at home (7)
29. Short-term stay (1)								Long-term stay (7)
30. Adventurous (1)								Coward (7)

Part II: Please answer the following questions

I am a ...	<input type="checkbox"/> Volunteer <input type="checkbox"/> Member of volunteer organization
I participated in international volunteer program before	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes (Please specify for how long _____) <input type="checkbox"/> No
My destination country (-ies)	
Types of my volunteer projects	
I will continue to participate in volunteer projects	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No
Age	
Gender	
Country of residence	

Appendix 2

Cluster statistics: Respondent A

Cluster Analysis: Elements

		matching	mean similarity	inner similarity	middle similarity	difference	z-score
Event tourist	with Package tourist	91.0%	-4	91	37	54	2.33
Backpacker	with Eco-tourist	80.0%	-10	80	53	27	1.15
Volunteer traveler	with Eco-tourist	79.0%	18	78	46	32	2.37
Adventure tourist	with Backpacker	76.0%	30	74	40	34	3.36
Event tourist	with Cultural tourist	62.0%	13	70	40	30	2.16
Volunteer traveler	with Cultural tourist	54.0%	32	54	0	0	0.00

Cluster Analysis: Constructs

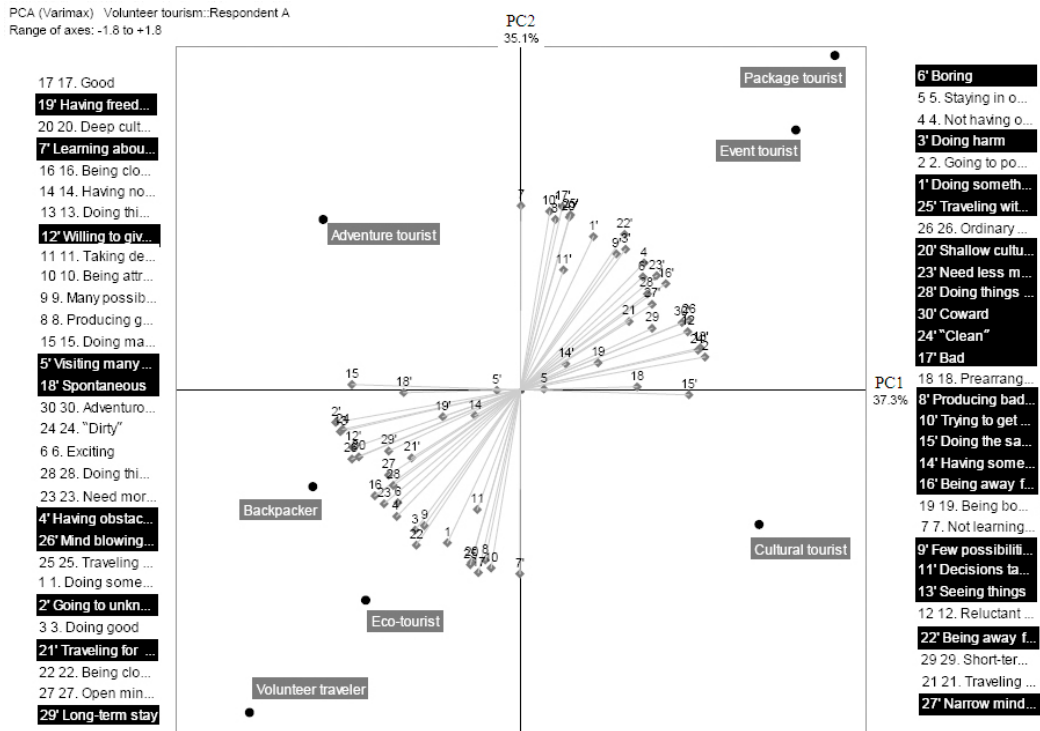
		matching	mean similarity	inner similarity	middle similarity	difference	z-score
20. Deep cultural experience/Shallow cultural experience	with 25. Traveling alone/Traveling with group	95.0%	-2	95	50	45	2.78
18. Prearranged/Spontaneous	with 19. Being bounded/Having freedom	90.0%	-5	90	48	42	2.67
24. "Dirty"/"Clean"	with 12. Reluctant to give up comfortable life/Willing to give up comfortable life	90.0%	-5	90	55	35	2.18
13. Doing things/Seeing things	with 24. "Dirty"/"Clean"	90.0%	25	87	53	34	3.41
6. Exciting/Boring	with 27. Open minded/Narrow minded	90.0%	-5	90	57	33	2.10
30. Adventurous/Coward	with 12. Reluctant to give up comfortable life/Willing to give up comfortable life	90.0%	38	84	53	31	4.07

10. Being attracted by the destination/Trying to get away from the home country	with	17. Good/Bad	86.0%	-7	86	46	40	2.46
6. Exciting/Boring	with	28. Doing things you cannot do at home/Doing things you can do at home	86.0%	25	87	56	31	3.07
28. Doing things you cannot do at home/Doing things you can do at home	with	21. Traveling for pleasure/Traveling for new experience	86.0%	39	85	54	31	3.98
10. Being attracted by the destination/Trying to get away from the home country	with	7. Not learning about the country/Learning about the country	81.0%	21	81	44	37	3.71
9. Many possibilities to develop yourself/Few possibilities to develop yourself	with	20. Deep cultural experience/Shallow cultural experience	81.0%	23	84	53	31	3.12
22. Being close to people/Being away from people	with	4. Not having obstacles to get over/Having obstacles to get over	81.0%	-9	81	44	37	2.27
9. Many possibilities to develop yourself/Few possibilities to develop yourself	with	23. Need more money/Need less money	81.0%	33	77	54	23	2.99
26. Ordinary experience/Mind blowing experience	with	13. Doing things/Seeing things	81.0%	46	83	52	30	4.82
26. Ordinary experience/Mind blowing experience	with	23. Need more money/Need less money	81.0%	49	68	52	16	3.64
30. Adventurous/Coward	with	21. Traveling for pleasure/Traveling for new experience	81.0%	55	68	49	19	5.25
3. Doing good/Doing harm	with	8. Producing good impression/Producing bad impression	76.0%	-12	76	38	38	2.38
8. Producing good impression/Producing bad	with	17. Good/Bad	76.0%	35	69	39	29	4.61

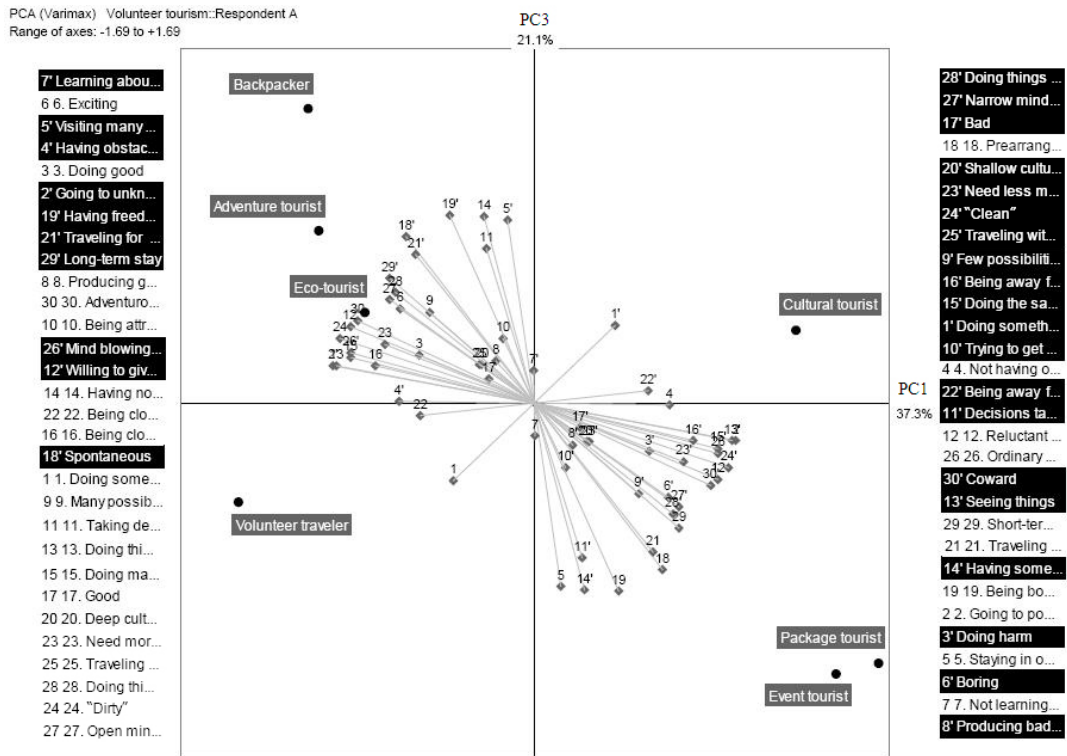
impression								
27. Open minded/Narrow minded	with	2. Going to popular places/Going to unknown places	76.0%	55	67	48	20	5.53
18. Prearranged/Spontaneous	with	29. Short-term stay/Long-term stay	76.0%	18	78	49	29	2.86
29. Short-term stay/Long-term stay	with	11. Taking decisions by yourself/Decisions taken by somebody else	71.0%	29	71	49	22	2.92
4. Not having obstacles to get over/Having obstacles to get over	with	1. Doing something for someone else/Doing something for yourself	67.0%	14	72	37	35	3.45
16. Being close to nature/Being away from nature	with	2. Going to popular places/Going to unknown places	67.0%	56	67	47	20	5.68
19. Being bounded/Having freedom	with	14. Having nobody to turn to/Having somebody to turn to	67.0%	35	69	47	22	3.45
25. Traveling alone/Traveling with group	with	7. Not learning about the country/Learning about the country	67.0%	51	59	43	16	4.58
14. Having nobody to turn to/Having somebody to turn to	with	5. Staying in one place/Visiting many places	62.0%	37	64	43	21	3.81
16. Being close to nature/Being away from nature	with	22. Being close to people/Being away from people	62.0%	47	54	43	11	2.78
15. Doing many different things/Doing the same things	with	5. Staying in one place/Visiting many places	48.0%	35	58	43	15	2.95
3. Doing good/Doing harm	with	11. Taking decisions by yourself/Decisions taken by somebody else	38.0%	45	50	0	0	0.00

Appendix 3

Unfiltered PC1-PC2 map (respondent A)



Unfiltered PC1-PC3 map (respondent A)



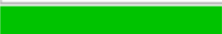



Appendix 4

Principal component analysis: Respondent A

Structure coefficient (Varimax)

	PC 1	PC 2	PC 3
1. Doing something for someone else/Doing something for yourself	-0.38	-0.80	-0.37
2. Going to popular places/Going to unknown places	0.96	0.17	-0.18
3. Doing good/Doing harm	-0.55	-0.74	0.23
4. Not having obstacles to get over/Having obstacles to get over	0.64	0.66	-0.01
5. Staying in one place/Visiting many places	0.13	0.01	-0.87
6. Exciting/Boring	-0.64	-0.59	0.45
7. Not learning about the country/Learning about the country	0.00	0.96	-0.15
8. Producing good impression/Producing bad impression	-0.19	-0.89	0.20
9. Many possibilities to develop yourself/Few possibilities to develop yourself	-0.50	-0.71	0.43
10. Being attracted by the destination/Trying to get away from the home country	-0.15	-0.94	0.31
11. Taking decisions by yourself/Decisions taken by somebody else	-0.23	-0.63	0.74
12. Reluctant to give up comfortable life/Willing to give up comfortable life	0.88	0.30	-0.36
13. Doing things/Seeing things	-0.94	-0.22	0.18
14. Having nobody to turn to/Having somebody to turn to	-0.24	-0.13	0.89
15. Doing many different things/Doing the same things	-0.88	0.03	0.22
16. Being close to nature/Being away from nature	-0.76	-0.56	0.18
17. Good/Bad	-0.22	-0.96	0.11
18. Prearranged/Spontaneous	0.61	0.01	-0.79
19. Being bounded/Having freedom	0.40	0.14	-0.89
20. Deep cultural experience/Shallow cultural experience	-0.25	-0.90	0.18
21. Traveling for pleasure/Traveling for new experience	0.57	0.36	-0.70
22. Being close to people/Being away from people	-0.54	-0.81	-0.06
23. Need more money/Need less money	-0.71	-0.60	0.28
24. "Dirty"/"Clean"	-0.93	-0.21	0.31
25. Traveling alone/Traveling with group	-0.26	-0.91	0.18
26. Ordinary experience/Mind blowing experience	0.88	0.36	-0.24
27. Open minded/Narrow minded	-0.69	-0.45	0.49
28. Doing things you cannot do at home/Doing things you can do at home	-0.66	-0.50	0.53
29. Short-term stay/Long-term stay	0.69	0.32	-0.60
30. Adventurous/Coward	-0.84	-0.35	0.39

Variance percentage

PC	Eigenvalue	% Variance	Cumulative %	Scree
1	11.20	37.33	37.33	
2	10.53	35.09	72.42	
3	6.34	21.15	93.56	
4	1.25	4.16	97.72	
5	0.40	1.33	99.05	
6	0.28	0.95	100.00	

Appendix 5

Cluster statistics: Respondent B

Cluster Analysis: Elements

		matching	mean similarity	inner similarity	middle similarity	difference	z-score
Volunteer traveler	with Event tourist	86.0%	-7	86	75	11	2.78
Volunteer traveler	with Package tourist	79.0%	20	81	74	7	2.29
Event tourist	with Backpacker	77.0%	34	79	72	7	2.54
Package tourist	with Adventure tourist	76.0%	41	77	71	6	1.97
Adventure tourist	with Eco-tourist	72.0%	45	74	73	1	0.35
Eco-tourist	with Cultural tourist	71.0%	49	74	0	0	0.00

Cluster Analysis: Constructs

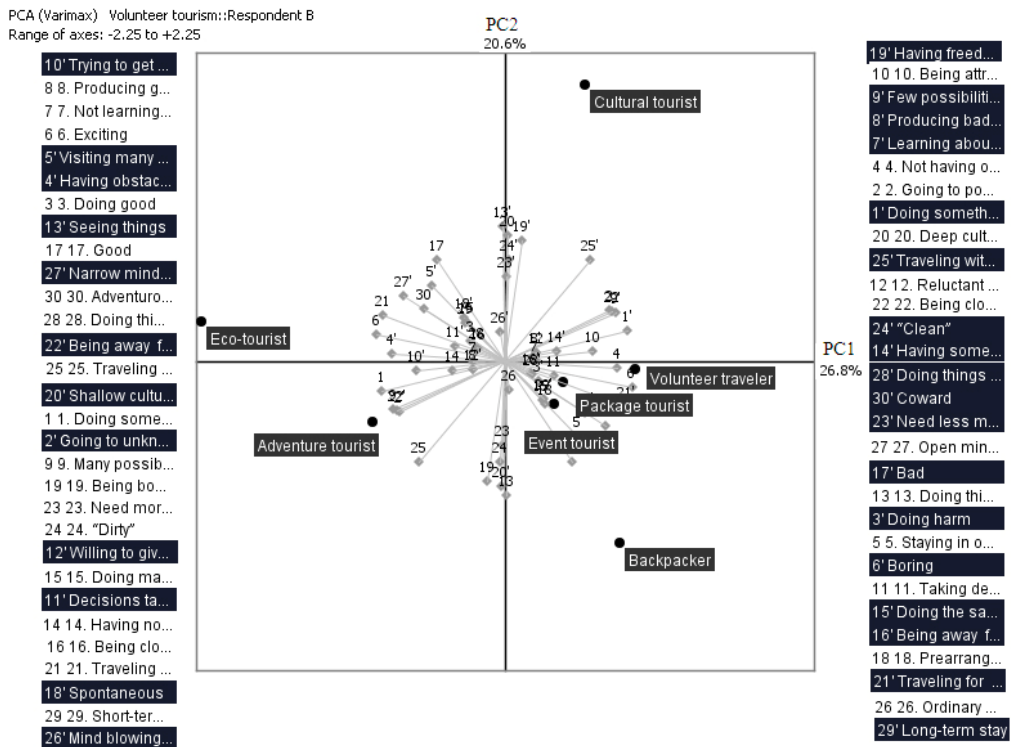
		matching	mean similarity	inner similarity	middle similarity	difference	z-score
11. Taking decisions by yourself/Decisions taken by somebody else	with 7. Not learning about the country/Learning about the country	86.0%	-7	86	59	27	2.58
13. Doing things/Seeing things	with 19. Being bounded/Having freedom	86.0%	-7	86	52	34	3.31
7. Not learning about the country/Learning about the country	with 28. Doing things you cannot do at home/Doing things you can do at home	86.0%	21	81	58	23	3.57
27. Open minded/Narrow minded	with 21. Traveling for pleasure/Traveling for new experience	86.0%	-7	86	58	28	2.70
6. Exciting/Boring	with 21. Traveling for pleasure/Traveling for new experience	81.0%	21	81	56	25	3.79
13. Doing things/Seeing things	with 25. Traveling alone/Traveling with group	81.0%	21	81	53	28	4.29

28. Doing things you cannot do at home/Doing things you can do at home	with	26. Ordinary experience/Mind blowing experience	81.0%	34	79	56	23	4.52
8. Producing good impression/Producing bad impression	with	11. Taking decisions by yourself/Decisions taken by somebody else	76.0%	38	72	54	18	4.23
5. Staying in one place/Visiting many places	with	18. Prearranged/Spontaneous	76.0%	-12	76	47	29	2.82
15. Doing many different things/Doing the same things	with	20. Deep cultural experience/Shallow cultural experience	76.0%	-12	76	57	19	1.86
3. Doing good/Doing harm	with	29. Short-term stay/Long-term stay	76.0%	-12	76	56	20	1.97
15. Doing many different things/Doing the same things	with	30. Adventurous/Coward	76.0%	16	74	54	20	3.12
4. Not having obstacles to get over/Having obstacles to get over	with	1. Doing something for someone else/Doing something for yourself	71.0%	-14	71	44	27	2.70
1. Doing something for someone else/Doing something for yourself	with	6. Exciting/Boring	71.0%	33	66	50	15	3.58
3. Doing good/Doing harm	with	9. Many possibilities to develop yourself/Few possibilities to develop yourself	71.0%	12	68	55	13	1.97
2. Going to popular places/Going to unknown places	with	10. Being attracted by the destination/Trying to get away from the home country	71.0%	-14	71	54	17	1.67
9. Many possibilities to develop yourself/Few possibilities to develop yourself	with	18. Prearranged/Spontaneous	71.0%	26	58	52	6	1.38
8. Producing good impression/Producing bad impression	with	29. Short-term stay/Long-term stay	71.0%	43	59	53	6	2.27

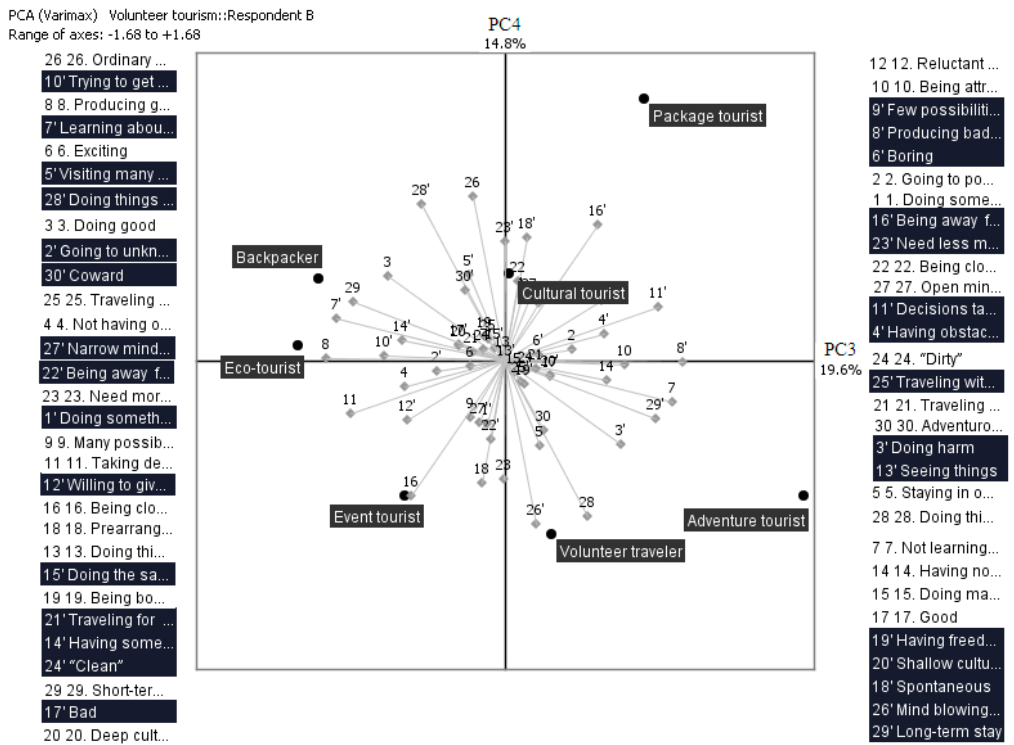
27. Open minded/Narrow minded	with	16. Being close to nature/Being away from nature	71.0%	36	63	51	12	3.18
25. Traveling alone/Traveling with group	with	22. Being close to people/Being away from people	71.0%	27	69	53	16	3.25
2. Going to popular places/Going to unknown places	with	20. Deep cultural experience/Shallow cultural experience	67.0%	32	65	54	11	2.59
10. Being attracted by the destination/Trying to get away from the home country	with	22. Being close to people/Being away from people	67.0%	43	61	53	8	2.68
16. Being close to nature/Being away from nature	with	23. Need more money/Need less money	67.0%	38	61	52	8	2.51
19. Being bounded/Having freedom	with	23. Need more money/Need less money	62.0%	47	57	52	5	1.95
26. Ordinary experience/Mind blowing experience	with	14. Having nobody to turn to/Having somebody to turn to	57.0%	44	59	52	6	2.33
17. Good/Bad	with	30. Adventurous/Coward	57.0%	46	56	52	4	1.45
24. "Dirty"/"Clean"	with	17. Good/Bad	52.0%	45	53	52	1	0.55
14. Having nobody to turn to/Having somebody to turn to	with	4. Not having obstacles to get over/Having obstacles to get over	48.0%	48	54	45	8	1.27
24. "Dirty"/"Clean"	with	12. Reluctant to give up comfortable life/Willing to give up comfortable life	33.0%	48	53	0	0	0.00

Appendix 6

Unfiltered PC1-PC2 map (respondent B)



Unfiltered PC3-PC4 map (respondent B)









Appendix 7

Principal component analysis: Respondent B

Structure coefficient (Varimax)

	PC 1	PC 2	PC 3	PC 4
1. Doing something for someone else/Doing something for yourself	-0.89	-0.22	0.09	0.34
2. Going to popular places/Going to unknown places	0.76	0.37	0.37	0.06
3. Doing good/Doing harm	-0.25	0.14	-0.63	0.46
4. Not having obstacles to get over/Having obstacles to get over	0.82	-0.06	-0.55	-0.14
5. Staying in one place/Visiting many places	0.53	-0.55	0.19	-0.47
6. Exciting/Boring	-0.93	0.19	-0.18	-0.03
7. Not learning about the country/Learning about the country	-0.23	-0.00	0.91	-0.23
8. Producing good impression/Producing bad impression	-0.23	-0.06	-0.97	0.01
9. Many possibilities to develop yourself/Few possibilities to develop yourself	-0.81	-0.35	-0.19	-0.31
10. Being attracted by the destination/Trying to get away from the home country	0.64	0.07	0.65	-0.02
11. Taking decisions by yourself/Decisions taken by somebody else	0.36	-0.11	-0.84	-0.29
12. Reluctant to give up comfortable life/Willing to give up comfortable life	0.23	0.06	0.53	0.32
13. Doing things/Seeing things	0.01	-0.98	-0.01	0.03
14. Having nobody to turn to/Having somebody to turn to	-0.38	-0.07	0.55	-0.11
15. Doing many different things/Doing the same things	-0.28	0.29	0.05	-0.06
16. Being close to nature/Being away from nature	-0.19	0.09	-0.51	-0.74
17. Good/Bad	-0.49	0.73	0.25	-0.09
18. Prearranged/Spontaneous	0.29	-0.31	-0.12	-0.67
19. Being bounded/Having freedom	-0.13	-0.88	-0.11	0.13
20. Deep cultural experience/Shallow cultural experience	0.02	0.91	-0.25	0.08
21. Traveling for pleasure/Traveling for new experience	-0.89	0.33	0.17	-0.04
22. Being close to people/Being away from people	0.78	0.36	0.07	0.43
23. Need more money/Need less money	-0.01	-0.62	-0.00	-0.65
24. "Dirty"/"Clean"	-0.03	-0.73	0.11	-0.06
25. Traveling alone/Traveling with group	-0.63	-0.73	-0.09	0.11
26. Ordinary experience/Mind blowing experience	0.04	-0.21	-0.17	0.89
27. Open minded/Narrow minded	0.74	-0.47	0.14	0.34
28. Doing things you cannot do at home/Doing things you can do at home	-0.20	0.10	0.45	-0.85
29. Short-term stay/Long-term stay	-0.28	0.28	-0.82	0.32
30. Adventurous/Coward	-0.59	0.38	0.21	-0.38

Variance percentage

PC	Eigenvalue	% Variance	Cumulative %	Scree
1	8.03	26.77	26.77	
2	6.19	20.62	47.39	
3	5.87	19.58	66.97	
4	4.45	14.83	81.81	
5	3.42	11.41	93.21	
6	2.04	6.79	100.00	

Appendix 8

Cluster statistics: Aggregated grid

Cluster Analysis: Elements

			matching	mean similarity	inner similarity	middle similarity	difference	z-score
Event tourist	with Package tourist		86.0%	-7	86	66	20	2.08
Volunteer traveler	with Eco-tourist		85.0%	-7	85	74	11	1.10
Eco-tourist	with Cultural tourist		85.0%	22	82	74	9	1.35
Adventure tourist	with Backpacker		83.0%	-8	83	73	10	0.98
Volunteer traveler	with Backpacker		81.0%	45	81	66	15	3.01
Event tourist	with Cultural tourist		79.0%	49	74	0	0	0.00

Cluster Analysis: Constructs

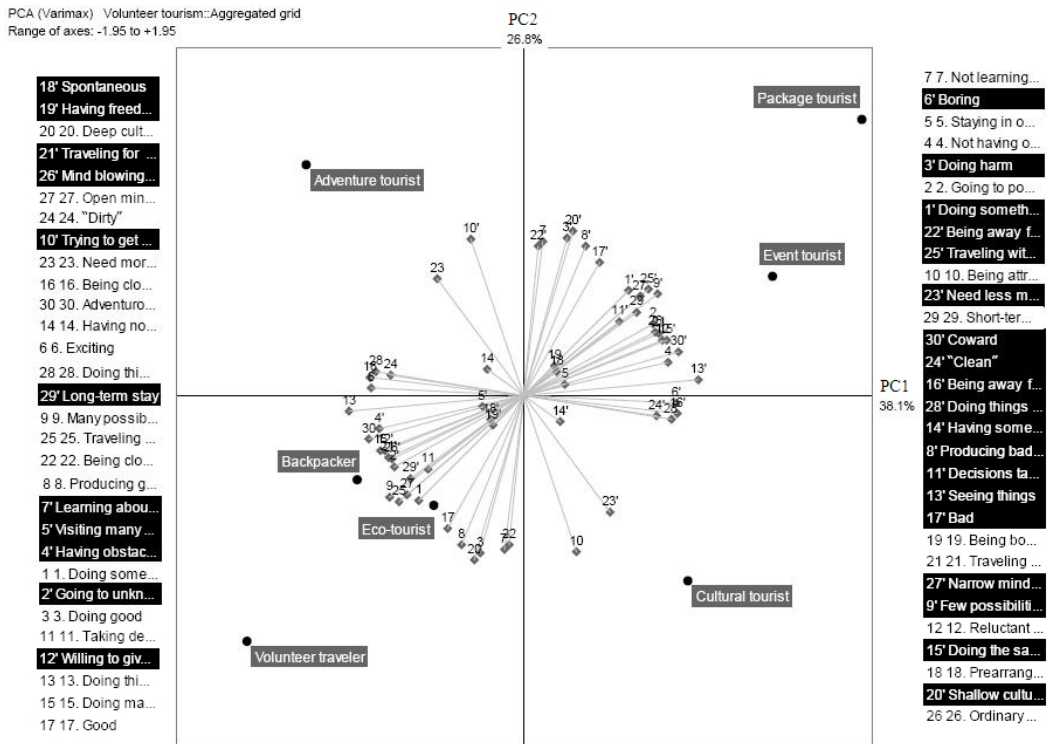
			matching	mean similarity	inner similarity	middle similarity	difference	z-score
27. Open minded/Narrow minded	with	26. Ordinary experience/Mind blowing experience	95.0%	-2	95	71	24	2.38
21. Traveling for pleasure/Traveling for new experience	with	26. Ordinary experience/Mind blowing experience	90.0%	27	90	69	21	3.29
30. Adventurous/Coward	with	21. Traveling for pleasure/Traveling for new experience	90.0%	42	90	69	21	4.22
25. Traveling alone/Traveling with group	with	30. Adventurous/Coward	90.0%	50	88	69	19	4.57
11. Taking decisions by yourself/Decisions taken by somebody else	with	4. Not having obstacles to get over/Having obstacles to get over	86.0%	-7	86	70	16	1.57
16. Being close to nature/Being away from nature	with	4. Not having obstacles to get over/Having obstacles to get over	86.0%	21	81	68	13	1.97
9. Many possibilities to develop yourself/Few possibilities to develop	with	15. Doing many different things/Doing the same	86.0%	-7	86	69	17	1.62

yourself		things						
8. Producing good impression/Producing bad impression	with	17. Good/Bad	86.0%	-7	86	63	23	2.23
8. Producing good impression/Producing bad impression	with	20. Deep cultural experience/Shallow cultural experience	86.0%	21	81	63	18	2.72
3. Doing good/Doing harm	with	22. Being close to people/Being away from people	86.0%	-7	86	62	24	2.38
9. Many possibilities to develop yourself/Few possibilities to develop yourself	with	27. Open minded/Narrow minded	86.0%	58	85	67	17	5.25
29. Short-term stay/Long-term stay	with	25. Traveling alone/Traveling with group	86.0%	59	82	67	15	5.07
6. Exciting/Boring	with	16. Being close to nature/Being away from nature	81.0%	34	79	68	11	2.14
10. Being attracted by the destination/Trying to get away from the home country	with	17. Good/Bad	81.0%	34	79	62	16	3.29
5. Staying in one place/Visiting many places	with	19. Being bounded/Having freedom	81.0%	-9	81	64	17	1.66
20. Deep cultural experience/Shallow cultural experience	with	7. Not learning about the country/Learning about the country	81.0%	42	77	62	15	3.73
19. Being bounded/Having freedom	with	11. Taking decisions by yourself/Decisions taken by somebody else	81.0%	45	74	66	7	2.01
18. Prearranged/Spontaneous	with	14. Having nobody to turn to/Having somebody to turn to	81.0%	-9	81	61	20	1.96
22. Being close to people/Being away from people	with	7. Not learning about the country/Learning about the country	81.0%	51	76	60	16	4.81

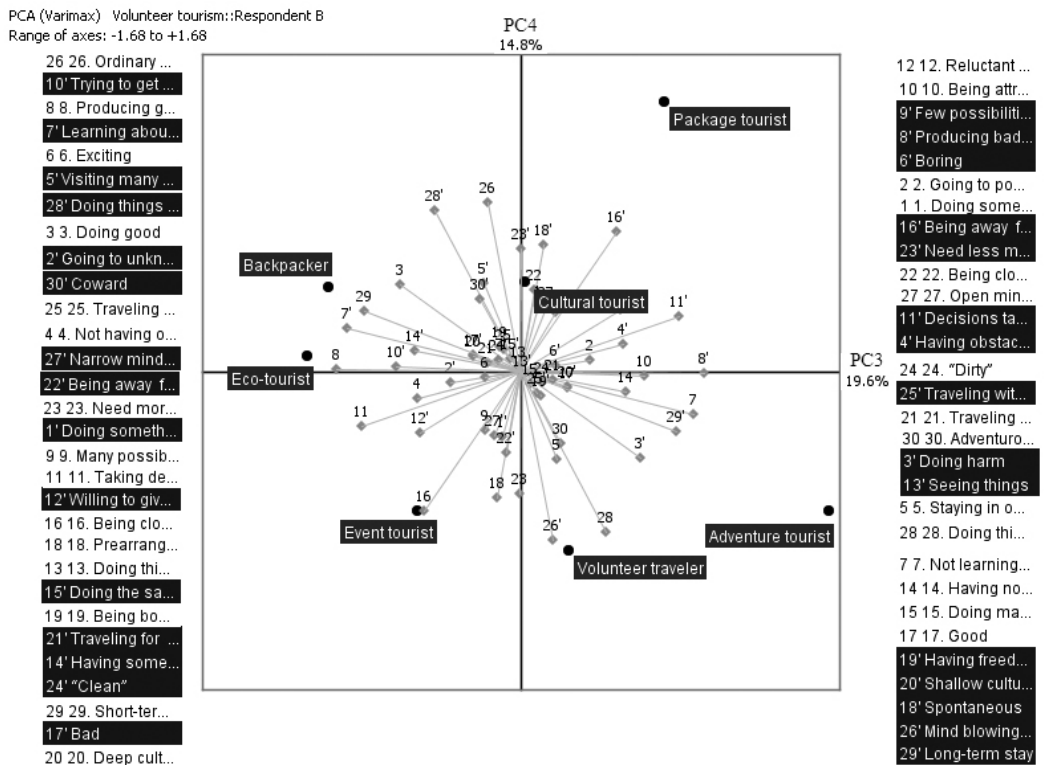
6. Exciting/Boring	with	23. Need more money/Need less money	81.0%	46	71	65	6	1.73
13. Doing things/Seeing things	with	24. "Dirty"/"Clean"	81.0%	-9	81	62	19	1.82
2. Going to popular places/Going to unknown places	with	29. Short-term stay/Long-term stay	81.0%	59	79	66	12	4.34
14. Having nobody to turn to/Having somebody to turn to	with	5. Staying in one place/Visiting many places	76.0%	51	70	64	6	2.14
13. Doing things/Seeing things	with	15. Doing many different things/Doing the same things	76.0%	59	75	65	10	3.89
10. Being attracted by the destination/Trying to get away from the home country	with	28. Doing things you cannot do at home/Doing things you can do at home	76.0%	52	73	60	13	4.46
2. Going to popular places/Going to unknown places	with	18. Prearranged/Spontaneous	71.0%	62	71	60	11	4.63
23. Need more money/Need less money	with	3. Doing good/Doing harm	67.0%	61	67	52	15	3.38
24. "Dirty"/"Clean"	with	12. Reluctant to give up comfortable life/Willing to give up comfortable life	57.0%	61	66	43	24	3.82
28. Doing things you cannot do at home/Doing things you can do at home	with	1. Doing something for someone else/Doing something for yourself	52.0%	59	65	0	0	0.00

Appendix 9

Unfiltered PC1-PC2 map (aggregated grid)



Unfiltered PC2-PC3 map (aggregated grid)









Appendix 10

Principal component analysis: aggregated grid

Structure coefficient (Varimax)

	PC 1	PC 2	PC 3
1. Doing something for someone else/Doing something for yourself	-0.59	-0.59	-0.24
2. Going to popular places/Going to unknown places	0.72	0.40	-0.32
3. Doing good/Doing harm	-0.25	-0.88	-0.15
4. Not having obstacles to get over/Having obstacles to get over	0.81	0.19	-0.49
5. Staying in one place/Visiting many places	0.23	0.06	-0.88
6. Exciting/Boring	-0.86	0.04	0.41
7. Not learning about the country/Learning about the country	0.11	0.86	-0.24
8. Producing good impression/Producing bad impression	-0.35	-0.84	0.28
9. Many possibilities to develop yourself/Few possibilities to develop yourself	-0.75	-0.57	0.21
10. Being attracted by the destination/Trying to get away from the home country	0.30	-0.87	0.27
11. Taking decisions by yourself/Decisions taken by somebody else	-0.54	-0.41	0.72
12. Reluctant to give up comfortable life/Willing to give up comfortable life	0.77	0.31	-0.53
13. Doing things/Seeing things	-0.98	-0.09	-0.10
14. Having nobody to turn to/Having somebody to turn to	-0.20	0.15	0.94
15. Doing many different things/Doing the same things	-0.81	-0.31	0.31
16. Being close to nature/Being away from nature	-0.86	0.10	0.14
17. Good/Bad	-0.43	-0.74	0.18
18. Prearranged/Spontaneous	0.19	0.13	-0.92
19. Being bounded/Having freedom	0.17	0.17	-0.93
20. Deep cultural experience/Shallow cultural experience	-0.28	-0.92	0.23
21. Traveling for pleasure/Traveling for new experience	0.76	0.35	-0.47
22. Being close to people/Being away from people	-0.08	-0.83	-0.45
23. Need more money/Need less money	-0.49	0.65	0.22
24. "Dirty"/"Clean"	-0.74	0.12	0.54
25. Traveling alone/Traveling with group	-0.70	-0.59	0.34
26. Ordinary experience/Mind blowing experience	0.74	0.36	-0.48
27. Open minded/Narrow minded	-0.65	-0.56	0.45
28. Doing things you cannot do at home/Doing things you can do at home	-0.83	0.14	-0.28
29. Short-term stay/Long-term stay	0.63	0.47	-0.53
30. Adventurous/Coward	-0.87	-0.24	0.42

Variance percentage

PC	Eigenvalue	% Variance	Cumulative %	Scree
1	11.42	38.06	38.06	
2	8.04	26.80	64.86	
3	7.08	23.61	88.47	
4	1.42	4.74	93.20	
5	1.28	4.26	97.47	
6	0.76	2.53	100.00	

Appendix 11

Grids comparison scores

1	Volunteer traveler	Event tourist	Package tourist	Adventure tourist	Back - packer	Eco-tourist	Cultural tourist	7
1. Doing something for someone else	30	14	16	17	11	19	21	Doing something for yourself
2. Going to popular places	23	8	6	32	18	11	16	Going to unknown places
3. Doing good	22	8	23	29	10	20	14	Doing harm
4. Not having obstacles to get over	20	19	17	37	32	9	15	Having obstacles to get over
5. Staying in one place	16	12	49	23	22	16	9	Visiting many places
6. Exciting	52	36	18	36	36	45	16	Boring
7. Not learning about the country	43	17	30	18	7	28	25	Learning about the country
8. Producing good impression	11	19	14	21	20	7	12	Producing bad impression
9. Many possibilities to develop yourself	5	32	34	14	9	14	10	Few possibilities to develop yourself
10. Being attracted by the destination	34	20	63	23	22	23	20	Trying to get away from the home country
11. Taking decisions by yourself	36	26	38	31	5	23	15	Decisions taken by somebody else
12. Reluctant to give up comfortable life	9	24	5	16	2	8	29	Willing to give up comfortable life
13. Doing things	13	25	22	21	12	16	17	Seeing things

1	Volunteer traveler	Event tourist	Package tourist	Adventure tourist	Back - packer	Eco-tourist	Cultural tourist	7
14. Having nobody to turn to	15	25	28	18	36	20	13	Having somebody to turn to
15. Doing many different things	20	31	34	23	13	13	39	Doing the same things
16. Being close to nature	13	25	9	24	11	58	5	Being away from nature
17. Good	16	18	28	28	20	16	18	Bad
18. Prearranged	16	23	12	39	45	16	12	Spontaneous
19. Being bounded	42	33	14	27	25	25	19	Having freedom
20. Deep cultural experience	13	18	25	22	6	12	17	Shallow cultural experience
21. Traveling for pleasure	17	14	18	25	27	22	11	Traveling for new experience
22. Being close to people	12	42	49	23	12	25	26	Being away from people
23. Need more money	40	29	51	11	47	41	13	Need less money
24. "Dirty"	54	24	33	15	16	54	21	"Clean"
25. Traveling alone	16	25	47	48	12	9	22	Traveling with group
26. Ordinary experience	7	21	25	7	20	14	29	Mind blowing experience
27. Open minded	39	16	25	20	10	27	16	Narrow minded
28. Doing things you cannot do at home	38	44	40	17	45	31	35	Doing things you can do at home
29. Short-term stay	23	19	17	22	21	37	22	Long-term stay
30. Adventurous	22	21	22	25	30	21	23	Coward
Total for all constructs	717	688	812	712	602	680	560	