

Broadening the Theory of Planned Behavior with Destination Attachment and Risk Perception to Determine Voluntourism Experience Intention

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ABSTRACT

The theory of planned behavior (TPB) has been employed in numerous studies to understand a wide range of intentions and behaviors in various fields. However, a little has investigated and extended the theory to explain tourists' intention to experience volunteer tourism and behavior, by including destination attachment and risk perception. Data from a survey of 286 volunteer tourists in Indonesia, who at least participated once in a volunteer activity, was used to test the proposed model and hypotheses. The findings from the structural equation modeling showed that efficacy is a significantly stronger predictor of intentions if mediated by attitude.

Keywords

Volunteer tourism, Theory of planned behavior, Destination attachment, Risk perception

Introduction

The term voluntourism is seen as a new or alternative form of tourism (Wearing & McGehee, 2013). Volunteer tourism, which is often just called voluntourism, is a tourism that includes elements of voluntary activities for charitable purposes (Wearing, 2001). Voluntourism, which allows 'socially conscious' travelers to pay thousands of dollars to work in poor communities (typically developing countries in South America, Asia, and Africa), has become a surprising sector of the global travel industry.

Volunteering activities are generally defined as "altruistic activities that provide services without financial gain to benefit other people, groups, or organizations" (Wilson, 2000), while volunteering activities that are more formal in nature refer to pro-social actions carried out through voluntary organizations (Houle, Sagarin, & Kaplan, 2005). This volunteer activity becomes an ongoing discussion similar to the "altruism vs. egoism" in social psychology research (Stevens & Duque, 2016). However, there has been a lot of research on the motives underlying individual volunteer involvement, but there are still few studies on the impact of these motives on aspects of volunteer behavior.

To understand precisely the formation and behavior of tourists' decisions, theoretical mechanisms of Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) are often used when forming new constructs (Hsu & Huang, 2010; Kim & Han, 2010). As suggested by Ajzen (1991), the TPB is open to 'modification by adding more predictors' if it can be shown that all these modifications are capable of capturing a larger proportion of variance in intention/behavior after taking into account the original TPB construct.

In the context of voluntourism, this study would like to demonstrate that the application of combining TPB with the addition of several other factors can make a different

contribution in decision making. The purpose of this study was to identify the factors affecting intentions and behavior of volunteer tourism experience intention and behavior. TPB provided a framework to determine expected predictors of volunteers' intentions with the addition of destination attachment and risk perception.

Literature Review

Theory of Planned Behavior

According to Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), a person's desire to behave in a certain manner is guided or driven by three types of considerations: attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control or efficacy (Ajzen, 2006). In combination, three types of individual judgment lead to the formation of behavioral intentions. The more favorable the subjective attitudes and norms and the greater the perceived control, the stronger the person's intention to carry out the behavior. In short, given a sufficient degree of actual control over their behavior, people are likely to carry out their intentions when the opportunity arises. Some argue that human behavior is guided by different subjective probabilities which means beliefs about the consequences of behavior, beliefs about the normative expectations of others and beliefs about the presence of factors can facilitate or hinder behavioral performance (Ajzen, 1991).

Beliefs that are based on background factors have behavioral beliefs that generate attitudes toward behavior, normative beliefs that produce subjective norms and control beliefs that yield perceived behavioral control (Bagozzi, 2007). The instructions that people give themselves cause them to behave in a certain way - behavioral intentions and represent the individual's motivational plan - to exert effort in carrying out the behavior (Benbasat & Barki, 2007). Finally, the assumption is that attitude is a direct antecedent of behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

Destination Attachment

Place attachment is a process in which humans form emotional bonds to various places (Yuksel, Yuksel, & Bilim, 2010). In other words, the feeling of being physically and the feeling of being 'at home' can be considered as signs that someone has made an emotional attachment to a location. This concept has been used by researchers and practitioners to explain different holiday or tourist behaviors, such as leisure setting preferences, management preferences and activity participation (Kyle et al., 2004). Some define location attachment as affective bonding; an individual's emotional relationship with a certain environment (Hidalgo & Hernandez, 2001). Other definitions of location attachment include: a state of psychological well-being that results from accessibility to a place or a state of distress after separation or "remoteness" from a place; emotional investment with a place (Hummon, 1992); and the degree to which individual value and identify with certain environmental settings (Moore & Graefe, 1994).

According to Rubinstein and Parmelee (1992), personal experiences and social interactions are fundamental dimensions that create a bond as part of one's identity (Kılınç, 2006). For Moore and Graefe (2004), an individual's attachment to a particular place generally begins to develop after one or more visits, although it is possible to develop strong feelings for places that have never been visited (Lee, 1999). Halpenny (2006) argues that even for those who are visiting for the first time, a sense of attachment to a place may have formed prior to their first visit to the destination. This can be based on stories about the goal from friends and family, or the mass media.

In several previous studies, contextual and cultural issues influence the perception of the meaning of a place (Kyle & Chick, 2007; Kyle & Johnson, 2008). This attachment comprises four dimensions: place identity, place dependence, affective ties, and social ties, but there are some researchers who only focus on the three components without social ties (Qu, Xu, & Lyu, 2019; Yuksel, Yuksel, & Bilim, 2010). In particular, this study adopts a range of dimensions (place identity, place dependence, and affective bonding) from the study of Yuksel, Yuksel, and Bilim's (2010) as a study that focuses on the level of goals, which is also the concept of this study.

In the aspect of tourism, place attachment is used interchangeably with the term destination attachment (Hwang & Lee, 2019; Suntikul & Jachna, 2016; Yuksel, Yuksel, & Bilim, 2010). A few studies have shown a significant relationship between destination attachment and behavioral intention (Hosany et al., 2017; Hwang & Lee, 2018; Hwang & Park, 2018). When individuals have higher levels of destination attachment, they are more likely to have more positive intentions to recommend and visit.

The attitude of the host (local community) towards tourism development has been studied extensively from various perspectives because of its important role in tourism

planning and development. As the model most often applied in studies of host attitudes (Nunkoo, Smith, & Ramkissoon, 2013; Sanlioz-Ozgen & Gunlu, 2016), the Irridex model (Doxey, 1975), which assumes that the response of a community to tourism development depends on social relations in the community. The 'host' attitude can be classified into four stages: euphoria, apathy, annoyance, and antagonism. At an early stage, the hosts are excited about the potential economic and social benefits that tourism development brings. However, as the destination grew and the number of tourists increased, the host's attitude gradually became apathetic, irritated, and ultimately antagonistic.

Risk Perception

The perception of tourists about risk and safety is one of the key factors in their decision-making process to travel to tourist destinations (Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009). The literature reveals that tourists' risk perceptions have a significant impact on their behavioral intentions (An, Lee, & Noh, 2010; Artuğer 2015; Cetinsoz & Ege, 2013). Tourists may perceive risk issues differently due to geographic and cultural differences (Aqueveque, 2006; Law, 2006), psychological (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005), and travel experiences (Kozak, Crotts, & Law, 2007), which can influence behavioral intentions by different ways (Quintal & Polczynski, 2010). In general, tourists try to avoid traveling if they consider it risky (Cetinsoz & Ege, 2013; Aqueveque, 2006; Chew & Jahari, 2014), while many of them take risks as part of the joy of their journey (Imboden, 2012). In addition, the risks associated with travel destinations are multidimensional in which the consequences and outcomes are uncertain (Hossain, Quaddus, & Shanka, 2015; Sohn, Lee, & Yoon, 2016). The concept of risk is important for predicting consumer choice and was proposed as a core concept for consumer theory (Conchar et al., 2004).

Perceived risk refers to one's view of the different risks inherent in a particular consumer situation but, in the case of volunteer tourism, it refers to an individual's belief about all the risks associated with that experience. This definition combines feelings or emotional components (e.g., uncertainty, worry, anxiety) and the possibility of failure of the plan (subjective risk assessment) (Pieniak et al., 2008). However, in this study, risk perception is defined in terms of consumers' perceptions of the uncertainty and adverse consequences of running volunteer tourism.

In the consumer behavior literature, perceived risk involves two distinct components: uncertainty and consequences (Conchar et al., 2004; Grewal et al., 2007). Despite a long and varied research tradition, a lack of consistency exists in definitions, methodologies, and techniques for measuring consumer risk perceptions (Mitchell, 1998). Of course, a lack of consistency undermines our ability to compare and integrate findings. This deficiency is further exemplified in the case of services in general and in tourism in particular, where there is no widely accepted or consensual measure of the risk perceived by tourists.

It is also important to identify common risk dimensions to develop a theoretical basis based on tourist risk perceptions incorporating other antecedents of behavioral intention in experiencing volunteer tourism. However, because of the importance of understanding the concept of risk perception in the literature, quite a number of theoretical and empirical studies have been conducted (e.g., (An, Lee, & Noh, 2010; Cetinsoz & Ege, 2013; Chew & Jahari, 2014; Casidy & Wymer, 2016) explore the dimensions of risk associated with travel destinations and their impact on tourist behavioral intentions. Thus, based on the literature review above, one of the aims of this study was to explore the concept of risk perception towards tourist destination and its measurement by applying it to volunteer tourism.

Hypothesis Development

According to the study of (Antimova, Nawijn, Peeters, 2012), social and cultural norms, as well as personal experiences have an impact on attitudes. Tarkiainen and Sunqvist (2005) found no significant direct relationship between subjective norms and intention to consume organic food, but there was a significant positive relationship between subjective norms and attitudes towards organic food consumption. Bamberg and Möser (2007) found that subjective norms do not have a direct relationship with intention, but rather an indirect effect by influencing attitudes in the context of pro-environmental behavior. Social norms (other people's expectations of someone) indirectly influence us in forming attitudes about willingness to pay for environmental conservation (López-Mosquera, García, & Barrena, 2014). Based on these arguments, the hypothesis is:

H1: Subjective norm has a positive effect on attitude towards voluntourism.

A survey was conducted on urban residents in the southern province of China, and their confidence in doing something was found to influence residents' perceptions of the impact of tourism and attitudes towards support for tourism (Wang & Hu, 2015). If people think that environmental preservation is important but believe that their personal behavior will not have much impact on the environment, they are less likely to act accordingly (Lee, 2011). The significant positive relationship between self-efficacy and a confident attitude has a positive impact means that the more confident people feel about their self-efficacy, the more positive they feel about the positive impact of tourism (Wang & Xu, 2015). The hypothesis of the argument is:

H2: Efficacy has a positive effect on attitude towards voluntourism.

Attitude towards behavior, according to TPB, refers to the extent to which individuals have a like or dislike evaluation of a particular behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Usually, a positive evaluation can help individuals to perform these behaviors. In contrast to other TPB variables, attitudes toward behavior can significantly influence one's intention to behave (De Groot & Steg, 2009). Liu et al. (2017),

concerning the understanding of sustainable transportation behavior, found that the attitude factor towards reducing automobile transportation had a significant positive effect on the intention to reduce transportation usage. From Shi, Fan, and Zhao's (2017) point of view, the more positive the evaluation of attitudes towards behavior, the more households will participate in certain behaviors. Many studies that exist in diverse hospitality and tourism contexts confirm the criticality of attitudes towards behavior, subjective norms, and self-control as determinants of intention in the individual decision-making process within the TPB framework (Kim, Njite, & Hancer, 2013; Teng, Wu, & Liu, 2015). Kim, Njite, and Hancer (2013) found that the intention of restaurant customers to read menu labels was most likely determined by the patron's attitude. In line with their research on green hotel choices, Teng, Wu, and Liu (2015) verified that attitude is important in predicting customer intention to stay (Han & Hyun, 2017). Based on this discussion, the hypothesis of this study is:

H3: Attitude towards voluntourism has a positive effect on voluntourism experience intention.

According to the original TPB model, the most proximal predictor of behavior is the intention, which in turn is influenced by subjective or social norms (López-Mosquera, García, & Barrena, 2014). Subjective norms, or the pressure that a person feels from the surrounding environment, including family members, relatives, friends, and coworkers, influence the decision-making process to participate in volunteer tourism (Lee, 2011). Lam and Hsu (2006) argue that Taiwanese tourists traveling to Hong Kong are influenced by pressure from their social groups, including family members and friends. According to Phetvaroon (2006), subjective norms, including family members and friends, are the strongest factors that influence the decision to visit Phuket, Thailand. This finding is supported by a volunteer tourism research which found that social pressure has a strong influence on participation in various volunteer programs (Greenslade & White, 2005). Based on this discussion, the hypothesis of this study is:

H4: Subjective norm has a positive effect on voluntourism experience intention.

Efficacy, or the level of perceived ease or difficulty in performing certain behaviors (Ajzen, 1991), has been cited several times as one of the determinants of a person's desire to pay for environmental improvements. Findings in several empirical studies indicate a relationship with efficacy with a greater tendency to engage in behaviors that encourage sustainable development (e.g., buying environmentally friendly consumer products) (Gupta & Ogen, 2009; Hanss & Böhm, 2010). Brown (2005) argues that individuals who are physically and mentally able are more likely to become volunteer tourists, but that this experience of volunteering can increase volunteer tourists who experience physical and mental abilities. The hypothesis of this study is:

H5: Efficacy has a positive effect on voluntourism experience intention.

Attachment to a place is described as an emotional bond between that place and an individual (Yüksel, Yüksel, &

Bilim, 2010). In tourism aspect, place attachment is used interchangeably with the terminology of destination attachment in relation to visitor loyalty and satisfaction (Hwang & Lee, 2019; Suntikul & Jachna, 2016). When someone has a higher level of attachment to a place, they are more likely to have positive intentions to recommend and visit. Based on this discussion, we can hypothesize:

H6: Destination attachment has a positive effect on intention to experience volunteer tourism.

H7: Destination attachment has a positive effect on voluntourism behavior.

According to previous research, risk perceptions affect tourists' travel intentions (Desivilya, Teitler-Regev, & Shahrabani, 2015). Listed in the sports tourism literature, the risk of terrorism and political instability are major factors influencing tourists' decisions to travel (Kozak, Crotts, & Law, 2007), and many studies have also confirmed this concern in the context of larger events (Qi, Gibson, & Zhang, 2009). Nonetheless, research gaps remain in the tourism context with respect to host countries with different levels of risk and volatility. In addition, it is unclear whether potential tourists will perceive a risk differently, and how they will respond to these differences (Kim, Choi, & Leopkey, 2019). In their study, Kim, Choi, and Leopkey (2019) examined and compared the influence of tourists' risk perceptions on travel intentions with different levels of risk (i.e., obvious risk, closer risk, and unidentified risk). Their results indicate that the perceived risk significantly

affects the travel intentions of the tourists. Based on these arguments, the hypotheses of this study are:

H8: Risk perception has a positive effect on voluntourism experience intention.

H9: Risk perception has a positive effect on voluntourism behavior.

According to Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), intention (intention) in an individual is considered as the direct determinant and the best predictor of behavior among all antecedents of behavior. TPB theorizes that intention may result in behavior when there is an opportunity to act (Ajzen, 1985). In Kim, Choi, and Leopkey's (2019) study, the intention to travel responsibly is the most important antecedent in predicting responsible tourist behavior. Although the TPB has been widely used in the study of environmentally friendly behavior in general, and particularly in tourism, and is able to predict studies of behavior well, it is still criticized because the intention does not have to be translated into actual behavior (e.g., Kercher & Tse's, 2012). In general, the more positive the subjective attitudes and norms, and the greater the perceived self-assessment, the stronger one's intention to perform the intended behavior (Bamberg & Möser, 2007). Based on a model in predicting a person's behavior towards the environment, a person's intention significantly affects their behavior towards the environment (Chao, 2012). Based on the above arguments, the authors hypothesize that:

H10: The intention to experience volunteer tourism has a positive effect on voluntourism behavior.

Table 1. Assessment of the Measurement Model

Constructs	Items	Loadings	Alpha	CR	AVE
ATV	ATV1	0.766	0.837	0.885	0.608
	ATV2	0.870			
	ATV3	0.804			
	ATV4	0.705			
	ATV5	0.745			
SUB	SUB1	0.809	0.861	0.900	0.643
	SUB2	0.805			
	SUB3	0.823			
	SUB4	0.808			
	SUB5	0.763			
EFF	EFF1	0.774	0.882	0.914	0.679
	EFF2	0.820			
	EFF3	0.855			
	EFF4	0.825			
	EFF5	0.844			
INT	INT1	0.854	0.920	0.940	0.759
	INT2	0.893			
	INT3	0.862			
	INT4	0.869			
	INT5	0.877			
BEH	BEH1	0.832	0.927	0.945	0.774
	BEH2	0.874			
	BEH3	0.899			
	BEH4	0.906			
	BEH5	0.886			
DES	DES1	0.768	0.847	0.891	0.620

	DES2	0.788			
	DES3	0.778			
	DES4	0.833			
	DES5	0.769			
RIS	RIS1	0.818	0.814	0.869	0.572
	RIS2	0.809			
	RIS3	0.732			
	RIS4	0.629			
	RIS5	0.777			

Methods

The analysis technique in this research is Partial Least Square (PLS) method to estimate the relationships hypothesized in the current model. The data were collected using a survey questionnaire over the period of two months from August 2020 to September 2020. The sample frame included local volunteers listed in Indonesia, amounting to 286 in total. Of the 320 questionnaires distributed, only 286 responses from internal auditors were valid, resulting in a response rate of 89.4%.

The participants had an average age of under 25 years old (74%), and 62% were female. The majority of them were high school graduates (47%), followed by 37% having bachelor’s degrees. Nearly forty percent of the participants had participated in teaching activities (39.16%), sports, cultural, festival events (15.38%), animal welfare (10.14%), agriculture (8.04%), skills development and training (7.70%), research (5.59%), building community facilities (5.59%), medical/healthcare (5.59%), and childcare/orphanage (2.80%). Their responses were anchored by five-point Likert scales.

This study measured the five dimensions of personal norm with items extracted from Steg, Dreijerink, and Abrahamse (2005) and Han and Hyun (2017). We measured awareness of consequences using five 5-point Likert scales (De Groot & Steg, 2009; Han & Hyun, 2017). We captured ascription of responsibility by measuring the participants’ agreement with five survey items from Onwezen, Antonides, and Bartels (2013) and Han and Hyun (2017). We measured the participants’ attitude towards voluntourism with five statements extracted from Choi and Sirikaya (2005). The participants’ subjective norm level was measured by asking them to indicate their agreement to five

statements (Wearing & McGehee, 2013; Wearing, 2001). This study measured the five items of efficacy with statements extracted from Ertz et al. (2017). We measured the respondents’ risk perception level using five 5-point Likert scales Siddique (2012). The destination attachment level of the participants was measured with five survey items from Yuksel, Yuksel, and Bilim (2010). Voluntourism behavior was assessed with five items extracted from Maki and Snyder (2016).

Results and Discussion

The study utilized SmartPLS to perform both measurement validation and structural modeling. The results of our reliability analyses showed that all the Cronbach’s alphas and Composite Reliability values are greater than 0.70 for all of the latent constructs, indicating reliable measurement instrument for this study and the Average Variance Extracted values are greater than 0.50 (see Table 1).

First, we ran a PLS algorithm to estimate the model’s path coefficients. Secondly, we performed a bootstrapping analysis, specifying 5,000 subsamples and a 95% significance level, to obtain each path coefficient’s standard error and p-value (see Table 3).

Hypotheses 1 and 2 posit that subjective norm along with efficacy positively affect attitude towards voluntourism. Our results demonstrated that the subjective norm ($\beta = .370, t = 6.082$) and efficacy ($\beta = .505, t = 8.250$) positively influenced attitude towards voluntourism (see Figure 1). They explain 66.1% of variance in attitude towards voluntourism ($R^2=0.661$). Therefore, hypotheses 1 and 2 are supported.

Table 2. Correlations among Variables

	ATV	SUB	EFF	INT	BEH	DES	RIS
ATV	0.780						
SUB	0.734	0.802					
EFF	0.771	0.720	0.824				
INT	0.542	0.568	0.531	0.871			
BEH	0.624	0.601	0.609	0.861	0.880		
DES	0.568	0.571	0.565	0.567	0.543	0.788	
RIS	0.516	0.505	0.617	0.521	0.537	0.517	0.757

Hypotheses 3, 4, 5, 6, and 8 posit that attitude, subjective norm, efficacy, destination attachment, and risk perception positively affect voluntourism experience intention. Our results showed that attitude ($\beta = .123, t = 1.420$), subjective norm ($\beta = .271, t = 3.543$), destination attachment ($\beta = .262, t = 3.691$), and risk perception ($\beta = .211, t = 2.721$) positively affect voluntourism experience intention, but, in contrast to hypothesis 5, efficacy ($\beta = .058, t = 0.755$) does not positively affect voluntourism experience intention (see Figure 1). They explain 45.0% of variance in attitude towards voluntourism ($R^2=0.450$). Therefore, hypotheses 3, 4, 6, and 8 are supported but hypothesis 5 is rejected.

Hypotheses 7, 9, and 10 posit that destination attachment, risk perception, and voluntourism experience intention positively affect voluntourism behavior. Our results showed that destination attachment ($\beta = .250, t = 3.805$), risk perception ($\beta = .272, t = 4.024$), and voluntourism experience intention ($\beta = .778, t = 22.246$) positively affect voluntourism behavior (see Figure 1). They explain 75.3% of variance in attitude towards voluntourism ($R^2=0.753$). Therefore, hypotheses 7, 9, and 10 are supported.

The indirect effects of attitude ($\beta = .095, t = 1.407$), subjective norm ($\beta = .211, t = 3.476$), destination attachment

($\beta = .250, t = 3.805$), and risk perception ($\beta = .272, t = 4.024$) mediated through voluntourism experience intention on voluntourism behavior are all significant. The indirect effect of efficacy ($\beta = .045, t = 0.751$) mediated through voluntourism experience intention on voluntourism behavior is not significant. The results are shown in Table 2.

Table 3. Path Estimates

	Path Estimates	t Statistics	P Values
ATV -> BEH	0.095	1.407*	0.160
ATV -> INT	0.123	1.420*	0.156
DES -> BEH	0.250	3.805	0.000
DES -> INT	0.262	3.691	0.000
EFF -> ATV	0.505	8.250	0.000
EFF -> BEH	0.045	0.751*	0.453
EFF -> INT	0.058	0.755*	0.451
INT -> BEH	0.778	22.246	0.000
RIS -> BEH	0.272	4.024	0.000
RIS -> INT	0.211	2.721	0.007
SUB -> ATV	0.370	6.082	0.000
SUB -> BEH	0.211	3.476	0.001
SUB -> INT	0.271	3.543	0.000

*p < .20

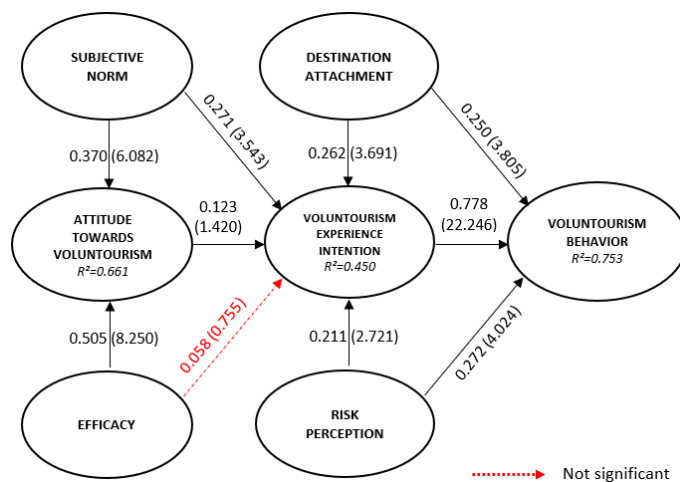


Figure 1. Research Model

Conclusion

The results of the current study confirm the TPB as an appropriate framework for representing volunteers' intention to experience voluntourism and voluntourism behavior. Consistent with past studies which emphasized the importance of adding other factors in the TPB framework (Hsu & Huang, 2010; Kim & Han, 2010; Lee, 2011), the results of current research also support additions of the destination attachment and risk perception as predictors of voluntourism experience intention and voluntourism behavior.

However, the findings showed that the efficacy factor did not influence voluntourism experience intention. One reason could be that, in contrast with the literature, this could simply reflect a lack of overall understanding (Foltz, Newkirk, & Schwager, 2016) of the concept and terminology of volunteer tourism. This observation may be due to the efficacy being 'mainly influenced by internal factors such as ability and information' (Cheung & Chan, 2000), while the respondents of this study had an average age of under 25 years old (74%) and the majority of them were high school graduates (47%). This result is slightly

similar to the results of past studies which demonstrated that perceived behavioral control has a minimal effect on behavioral intention (Han et al., 2019). Nonetheless, this unexpected finding deserves further research.

This research has implications on the academic literature as well as managerial decisions and brings to light new and interesting issues related to the impact of destination attachment and risk perception towards voluntourism experience intention and behavior. From the academic point of view, our study has contributed to the academic literature by confirming destination attachment and risk perception as distinct factors in determining intention to experience voluntourism and voluntourism behavior.

The results of this study provide important information for educators, volunteer administrators, as well as companies that want to support or develop corporate volunteer efforts in conjunction with tourism activities. The behavioral, normative and perceived control beliefs elucidated in this research, and their pertinence to the development of place attachment and perceived risks among volunteers, can provide valuable guidance to those responsible for designing and managing volunteer tourism programs, and for creating work environments in which sustainability agents are recognized, welcomed and encouraged to thrive.

Although consistent with findings in other behavioral domains, a limitation of our study is that the sample used in the study was not perfectly representative of voluntourism behaviors. The present results suggest that interventions to facilitate voluntourism behavior among young people should target such control beliefs. Subsequent research can develop further with other variables such as emotional solidarity between residents and tourists which can influence environmentally responsible behavior.

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