The motivations, expectations and experiences of secondary school students involved in volunteer tourism: A case study of the Rangitoto College Cambodia house building trip.

by

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Abstract

Volunteer tourism is increasing in popularity and this trend is also occurring within New Zealand secondary schools. Students are engaging with charitable work in a variety of developing countries around the world. Using an exploratory case study approach, this research investigated the motivations, expectations and experiences of Rangitoto College students in Auckland, New Zealand, who travelled to Cambodia to assist with building houses in impoverished communities. Data were collected using semi-structured interviews with students before and after the trip, photo elicitation, a focus group of teachers and lead teacher interviews. The data were analysed using a thematic analysis approach. Findings suggest students are motivated by a complex set of intrinsic desires and external factors. In particular, altruistic behaviour, the desire to explore new and interesting places and the positive encouragement of friends and family were important. Students had high expectations of the trip, predicting the experience to be either life changing or incredibly important for both themselves and for the people they were helping. Actual experiences generally lived up to these expectations; however, many did not expect the heightened emotional state many trip activities evoked. Students discussed their volunteer work in mostly positive ways and described their experiences of poverty and dark tourism as important to see, but difficult and challenging. Criticisms of the experience were limited to disappointment in the short duration of the volunteer work. The theme of connection also emerged as students placed great importance on the interactions they had with the host community and bonding with their peers. Finally, personal development, changes in perspective and increased social responsibility were identified by the students as important effects of the trip. These findings have implications for the education of secondary school students and the potential for volunteer tourism to contribute to the development of empathetic, globally aware young adults.

Key Words

Volunteer tourism, secondary school travel, volunteerism, adolescence, Cambodia

Attestation of Authorship

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person nor material which to a substantial extent has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.

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Sarah Barbara Wakeford

07 July, 2013

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Chapter 1: Introduction

"Selecting the Site"

"I've always wanted to go to a country that needed help. I want to go because I feel like I was given every opportunity like education and a house to live in, and I just wanted to go there and share a bit with others. I can't imagine not getting an education at school; I just felt I needed to help". – Amanda

1.1 Topic background

Since the 1950s the tourism industry has grown rapidly as more people have the disposable incomes to afford 'leisure' travel. Today, more than a billion tourists generate over US$1 trillion dollars in export earnings (UNWTO, 2012). An increasing number of these seek an alternative experience to the traditional mass tourism offerings (Butcher, 2003; Goodwin, 2011; Macleod, 2004; Nestora, 2009; Novelli, 2005). This demand has led to a significant growth of many niche tourism products, including volunteer tourism (Wearing, 2001).

Volunteer tourism involves tourists who volunteer their time in an organised way during a travel experience (Benson, 2011; Pearce & Coghlan, 2008; Stebbins, 1996). Timing can vary from one day to one year according to the United Nations (UNV, 2011) and involves 'projects'

focused around benefiting the environment or a community in need (Wearing, 2001). Volunteer tourism tends to attract people who want to reduce their impact on host destinations, through the positive contributions they make to a country, while experiencing the culture or a new environment. This interaction implies a mutual benefit and puts volunteer tourism within the realm of alternative tourism. Wearing (2001; p. 28) suggests that this "implies an antithesis" for mass tourism. He uses terms such as hard, difficult and undesirable to explain what a "diametrically opposed" holiday would entail. However, there is a spectrum within volunteer tourism which ranges from the very familiar or comfortable experience (with few challenges) to the more intrepid, whereby the tourist lives in an indigenous community or isolated landscape for up to a year (Benson, 2011; Daldeniz & Hampton, 2011; Novelli, 2005).

To provide these opportunities, a wide range of Non-Government Organisations (NGO's) and commercial travel companies have become involved in the industry (TRAM, 2008). Examples include; Earthwatch Institute, Community Aid Abroad and Raleigh International, who all play a role in providing suitable projects for people who often have limited skills and experience in 'project' areas (Blackman & Benson, 2010; Raymond, 2007). In terms of marketing, volunteer tourism is unique. Rather than promoting what a destination can offer, the consumer is looking to offer themselves, by adding value and being useful in the host country (Blackman & Benson, 2010).

Historically, research on this newly recognised tourism experience has been limited and sporadic (TRAM, 2008). Increased popularity has led to a significant number of wide ranging empirical research projects and publications in recent years. Initially, most research was based on the volunteer tourist; identifying and describing motivations, experiences and effects in different case study settings (Brown, 2005; Buckley, 2003; Halpenny & Caissie, 2003; Singh & Singh, 2004; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Wearing & Neil, 1999). Over time questions were asked on the ethics of volunteer tourism (Guttentag, 2009, 2011; Simpson, 2004) and some research has begun to explore the impact on host communities (Conran, 2011; Morgan, 2009; Sin, 2010). This body of knowledge has grown and led others to develop and test theories related to volunteer tourism (Alexander & Bakir, 2010; Benson, 2011; Coghlan & Gooch, 2011; Lee, 2011; Linhart, 2010).

In all these cases, the research involved university aged students or adults. Yet, teenagers travel more today than ever before (Borrie et al., 2011; Moisa, 2010; Richards & Wilson, 2005). Like their adult counterparts, volunteer tourism experiences are increasing in popularity for teenagers. Opportunities in New Zealand have grown with the introduction of the 'World

Challenge' programme in secondary schools. This corporate based travel company provides volunteer holidays for students who want to travel and experience charity work in a developing nation (World Challenge, 2013). It has been adopted by many Auckland schools with students travelling as far abroad as Vietnam and Nepal. In other countries these opportunities are also referred to as service learning (Bringle, Hatcher, & Jones, 2010; Waldstein & Reiher, 2001). Researchers have identified this area as a growing trend globally (Smith et al., 2010), yet understandings on the effects of such an experience are limited.

Despite New Zealand schools offering this type of experience to their students, little exploration or evaluation of this phenomenon has been undertaken. Considering the extensive scholarly research now available on volunteer tourism in adulthood, there is a need for broadening this to include secondary school students.

1.2 Aims of this inquiry

This inquiry aims to make a meaningful contribution to the growing body of research on volunteer tourism by exploring secondary school students. Due to the limited published literature available, the researcher took a holistic approach to the topic, focusing on many different components of a volunteer tourism trip. Firstly, the researcher sought to understand why students wanted to participate in a trip involving volunteer work; the motivational factors involved. Secondly, the expectations students had of the trip were important to uncover and in particular, how closely they were aligned to the actual experiences. Finally, the researcher wanted to learn how the volunteer tourism experience influenced and changed student's attitudes and behaviour; the effects of this type of travel.

To achieve the inquiry aim, data were collected using a case study research method. As this was an exploratory study, the aim was to obtain as much data as possible, with 'thick description' and 'deep knowledge' required (Geertz, 1973). By focusing on one particular example of volunteer tourism, a case study can "provide a richer understanding of interesting and important phenomena" (Smith, 2010; p. 187).

Another aim was to give young people a 'voice' in the tourism discourse, with the purpose of having a better understanding of their lives (Heath, Brooks, Cleaver, & Ireland, 2009). This is an area that is greatly under-represented in tourism research (Schänzel, 2012). To do this, semi-structured student interviews before and after the trip were conducted. In addition, auto-driven photo-elicitation was incorporated to help students explore and explain their own

experiences. To gain further insight, data from a lead teacher interview and a teacher focus group were also collected.

The data were used to answer three main research questions, developed from the main aims of this inquiry; understanding the main components of the volunteer tourism experiences for secondary school students. The research questions were:

1) Why do secondary school students participate in volunteer tourism?
2) How do secondary school student expectations compare with actual experiences?
3) How does a volunteer tourism experience affect secondary school students?

1.3 Background to the case study

To explore and answer the research questions a discrete case study was selected. Rangitoto College was chosen because of the positive relationship the researcher had with the school, the familiarity the researcher had to the volunteer tourism trip, the successful implementation of the trip over seven years and the support of school leadership for an inquiry to be undertaken.

Rangitoto College is located on the North Shore of Auckland, New Zealand. It is co-educational, multicultural and currently the largest secondary school in the country. Every year students are given the opportunity to participate in a school trip involving house building and orphanage work in Cambodia. One year prior to the trip, students are invited to submit an application letter, stating why they would like to participate, what skills they have to offer and their past experience in charity work. Students are selected based on the letter and discussions with other teachers regarding a student's suitability. Since 2007, more than 110 students have participated, constructing more than 60 houses in rural communities. They have also spent hundreds of hours working with disadvantaged children in two orphanages located in Phnom Penh. The trip consists of nine days in Cambodia and a two day stopover in Singapore on their return journey. Each trip involves approximately 20 students and five adults (usually teachers) who participate in a mixture of volunteer and tourist activities (refer to Appendix 1 for the trip itinerary).

The trip has been approved by the Board of Trustees, made up of elected parents, teachers and students who govern the school. The trip is justified in a letter to the Board of Trustees

describing the positive outcomes for students, identified by the lead teacher. A copy of this letter is provided in Appendix 2. A summary of the main ideas include:

- Enabling senior students to view and experience life in a developing country.
- Encouraging students to give back to the global community in practical, achievable and meaningful ways.
- Fostering positive citizenship, personal responsibility and positive values in the participating students.
- Making connections and establishing relationships with organisations doing aid work with communities in need.

The specific activities designed to achieve these outcomes are the volunteer work projects undertaken during the Cambodia house building trip. This involves working with the Tabitha Foundation, an NGO that helps poor rural families by encouraging them to save a small portion of their incomes. Each family who receives a house is involved in a savings programme and has contributed a small portion of the US$950 it costs for their house to be built. Each year Rangitoto College aims to supply eight houses, which take just one day to build. This short time frame is due to each house being partially constructed prior to the students arrival. The house foundations, framing and roof have been pre built by professionals for safety reasons. Members of the trip are divided into small 'teams' and finish building one house in the morning and one in the afternoon. The families receiving the house are present and Tabitha workers (builders) are on site to help when required. A quilt is then gifted to the families by the students and there is usually time for games, songs and general interactions afterwards.

Rangitoto College also supports two orphanages in Phnom Penh; New Future for Children (NFC) and Centre for Children's Happiness (CCH). Every trip involves different volunteer jobs, however, in 2012 students played games, taught English and painted an outside boundary fence. This volunteer work often involves a cultural exchange with the Rangitoto students performing traditional Maori songs and the Khmer orphans performing traditional Cambodian songs and dances. A portion of the fundraising is donated to the orphanages for essential items such as food or school supplies. For more information about the volunteer projects refer to Appendix 14.

Prior to departure, students spend one year volunteering their time to raise more than NZ$20,000 (a financial target set by the lead teacher of this trip). Therefore, a significant component of the volunteer tourism trip occurs prior to the students' departure. Each student is expected to contribute to the fund raising programme, which includes; market stalls, bake sales, sausage sizzles, quiz nights and letter writing campaigns. All fundraising undertaken by

the group is directly used for the volunteer activities. Therefore, students are required to fund their own travel expenses independently.

Over time the Cambodia house building trip has become 'institutionalised' into the school culture. Each year a mufti day is held to contribute to the fundraising efforts and staff members are encouraged to participate with subsidised travel costs. Social Studies classes at Year 10 and Year 12 investigate the trip as part of their 'social action' learning. This topic is taught as part of the requirements of the New Zealand Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2008). Therefore, most students are familiar with the trip before they reach the senior school.

In addition to the volunteering, students experience a variety of tourism activities while in Cambodia. These include the historical temples of Angkor Wat; where students learn about the religion and culture of the Khmer people. Fun, relaxed activities such as cooking classes in a rural village, elephant rides, tuk tuk tours and market visits are included. The students also visit dark tourism sites such as the Killing Fields and S21 torture prison museum. These tourist activities help students learn about the culture and history of Cambodia as well as provide an insight into some of the contributing factors that cause such wide spread poverty. Refer to Appendix 1 for more details on the trip activities.

1.4   Significance of the study

Historically, secondary school students have been engaged in a wide variety of education based international travel. Language trips and cultural exchange programmes (e.g. the America Field Service) have been the subject of some empirical studies (Hansel, 1986, 2008; Raymond & Hall, 2008; van Wijk, Go, & van't Klooster, 2008). Many of these trips involve travel to developing countries. In turn, studies have revealed numerous outcomes of an immersion into a culture with widespread poverty (Hansel, 2008). Research on young people engaged in Christian missionary work has also been undertaken (Sherry, Cynthia, Katherine, & Antonia, 2006; Terence, 2005; Walling, Eriksson, Meese, & Ciovica, 2006). Often there is a religious focus to the study, such as exploring relationships with God or references to biblical matters.

To date, there have been no published studies on New Zealand secondary school students engaged in this type of travel. Initial investigation by the researcher suggests this is a growing aspect of volunteer tourism, with more schools offering these opportunities than in the past. Despite this growth, very little is known about the type of students involved and the possible impact on an adolescents' development. The educational benefits of a volunteer tourism trip

in these formative years have yet to be a focus in published literature. This exploratory study provides some insight into why students engage in this type of activity and their perceptions of the experience. It also highlights the potential such a trip has to change students' attitudes, especially in regards to global citizenship and inspire further engagement of pro-social behaviours (e.g. future volunteer work or social action).

1.5   Definition of key terms

The interpretation of key words can differ between academic fields. The following terms have been defined by the researcher to convey their interpretation and use in this inquiry. Additional education terms have been provided for readers unfamiliar with the New Zealand education system.

Secondary school students: This term refers to students in the New Zealand secondary school system which incorporates an average starting age of 13 and finishing age of 17. For this study the secondary school students were 16 and 17 years of age.

Teenager / Adolescent: These terms are used interchangeably within this document and are defined for this inquiry as young people between the ages of 13 and 19 years of age. This is in keeping the Oxford English Dictionary (2002) definition of teenager.

Volunteer tourism: A leisure travel experience that comprises of the tourist engaging in the volunteering of their time for the benefit of others or the environment. Timing of this volunteer activity can range from one day to one year (UNWTO, 2011).

Motivations: Reasons for initiating or doing something. They can be external factors or intrinsic desires which initiated the action of applying for and participating on the trip. Pearce (1993) describes motivations as "discretionary, episodic, future orientated, dynamic, socially influenced and evolving"(p. 114).

Expectations: Pre-conceived ideas, beliefs and anticipations about what will occur during the trip. Ryan (1991) describes travel expectations as "strong determinants for satisfaction" (p. 40)

Experiences: The actual events that students lived through during their volunteer tourism trip. Many events were organised activities covering a spectrum from the mass tourism at Angkor Wat temples to the unique house building in a rural community. Other events were unplanned, random happenings that occurred throughout the trip.

Effects: The outcomes or changes as a result of the tourism experience. These are often expressed as internalised, relationship or future focus changes (Wearing & Neil, 1999). They can be short or long term.

Board of Trustees: Boards are made up of elected parent, student and teacher representatives who make important decisions around school activities, employment and set the school's overall strategic direction (Ministry of Education, 2009).

School decile rating: A decile is classification system used in the New Zealand education system to categorise schools based on the extent to which they draw their students from low socio-economic communities. There are 10 deciles, and decile 10 schools are the 10% of schools with the lowest proportion of students from low socio-economic communities (Ministry of Education, 2011).

NCEA: National Certificate of Educational Achievement is New Zealand's qualification system for senior secondary school students. It is recognised by employers and used as the benchmark for entry into universities and polytechnics (Ministry of Education, 2012).

Mufti day: A commonly held fundraising activity where students do not have to wear their school uniform to school on a designated day and donate a $1 or $2 coin for the privilege.

Year 12 and Year 13: These are the two most senior year levels at secondary school in New Zealand. Year 13 is the last possible year level and this cohort at school is usually 17 or 18 years of age.

1.6   Thesis structure

This thesis is divided into six main chapters; introduction, literature review, research design and methods, findings and analysis, discussion and conclusions. Other relevant sections include academic references and the appendices which contain a wide range of supporting evidence for this inquiry.

Chapter Two: The *Literature Review* presents background knowledge in relation this study. An extensive compilation of relevant literature is examined. It begins with a broad overview of volunteer tourism and then reviews a range of empirical studies on the motivations and experiences of university aged and adult volunteer tourists. It then explores specific studies on young people involved in volunteer activities and concludes with a critique (weaknesses) of the academic body of literature.

Chapter Three: *Research Design and Methods* begins with the main research questions for this inquiry and establishes the research approach adopted. The paradigm and rationale, setting and participants, data collection, ethical considerations, data analyses, trustworthiness and limitations are all described in this chapter.

Chapter Four: *Findings and Analysis* presents the primary data collected and addresses the three main research questions sequentially. Answers are based on qualitative data presented in tables, quotes and paragraph form. A summary diagram encompassing the data for each research question is presented at the end of each section. All discussion of the results is reserved until Chapter Five.

Chapter Five: *Discussion* compares and contrasts the findings in light of the academic research introduced in the literature review. Important themes that emerged in the Findings and Analysis chapter are explored in more detail in relation to all three research questions. Relevant adolescent development theory is used to provide insights into the results.

Chapter Six: The *Conclusion* chapter summarises the key findings and considers their implications for the tourism industry, education, school providers, parents and academia. The study is evaluated in light of its limitations and recommendations are made for further research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

"Exploring Ideas"

"I'm looking forward to the adventure part of it and I want to see what life is like- when you see the TV ads like, world vision - we see it and then we have the option to change the channel, but this will make me think more about the fact that these people don't have that option and they suffer daily, so hopefully I'll appreciate my life a bit more. I want to know how this will change how I see things." – Leith

2.1 Introduction

This literature review has been conducted to gain an understanding of the existing knowledge on volunteer tourism. In doing so, it provides context and background for the research presented in this thesis. The review of the literature is divided into sections, progressing from a broad overview to a more specialised focus on adolescents, the demographic of the case study that is the focus of the exploratory research presented later in the thesis.

The first section of this chapter identifies and describes key components of volunteer tourism. An analysis of published research and scholarly discussion has been carried out with the purpose of providing an overview of the volunteer tourism phenomenon.

The second section delves deeper into the topic by reviewing relevant case studies and discussing them in relation to selected theories and models commonly found in tourism literature. Motivations and experiences of volunteer tourists are the most prolific topics in

academic publications and are the focus of this inquiry. A summary model (derived from tourism motivation theory) has been constructed from these findings and key experiential effects for volunteer tourism participants are described.

The final section of this chapter focuses more specifically on youth. There is little published research that has explored secondary school students who participate in short term volunteer travel. However, adolescent volunteerism in a broader context has been examined. This section aims to reveal the current trend of youth volunteerism, including motivations and effects of their involvement. In turn, an understanding of young people engaged in pro-social activities is gained. This helps provide a meaningful context within which the value and contribution of this research can be placed.

2.2   Exploring the realms of volunteer tourism

This first section is the product of a critical analysis of scholarly literature describing the phenomenon of volunteer tourism. It has been organised into five main parts using the somewhat elementary, but effective five W's of research; what, who, where, when and why.

2.2.1   What is volunteer tourism?

Prior to 1990 the term 'volunteer tourism' is noticeably absent from tourism literature, with only a handful of books being published (Brown, 2004). In contrast, the 21st century has seen a plethora of research and publications on this newly defined form of alternative tourism (Benson, 2010; Coghlan & Gooch, 2011; Guttentag, 2009; Holmes & Smith, 2009; Lyons, Hanley, Wearing, & Neil, 2012; Lyons & Wearing, 2007; Sin, 2009).

While the term 'volunteer tourism' has become widely used over the past two decades, there is no universally accepted definition or description of what it is. This is most likely a result of the wide range of travel where volunteer activities are undertaken. Thus, its very broad nature and continued development makes categorisation very difficult (Alexander & Bakir, 2010; Stritch, 2011; TRAM, 2008). Brown (2010) argues "no definitions of volunteer tourism capture the myriad of variables that need to be encompassed" (p. 243). However, Wearing's (2001) definition is, by far, the most frequently adopted in the tourism literature (Alexander & Bakir, 2010; Benson, 2010; Brown, 2005; Carter, 2008; Daldeniz & Hampton, 2011; Soderman & Snead, 2007; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Stritch, 2011). He describes the concept as:

Those tourists who, for various reasons, volunteer in an organised way to under-take holidays that might involve aiding or alleviating the material poverty of some groups in society, the restoration of certain environments or research into aspects of society or environment (p. 1).

In addition to this definition, Wearing's (2001) book '*Volunteer tourism, holidays that make a difference'* has made a significant contribution to the development of the academic literature on volunteer tourism and is considered a catalyst for further studies by others in the field (Benson, 2011).

Some academics have streamlined the term, such as Sin (2010) who merely describes volunteer tourism as "where tourists volunteer in local communities as part of his or her travel" (p. 480). Others have taken a more theoretical approach, going beyond a mere description of the activity, for example, Pearce and Coghlan (2007) who take a neo-colonialist approach. Their research concluded volunteer tourism was a Western commodity and describes volunteer tourists as "a sociocultural group or movement representing an ethical body of people correcting or at least ameliorating the historical exploitation and environmental mistakes on which their society has been built" (p. 132).

It could be argued definitions of volunteer tourism are often one dimensional, looking at the practice through 'rose tinted' glasses. An example of this is VolunTourism.org, an internet based organisation dedicated to the activity. It defines volunteer tourism as "the 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'' (Voluntourism.org, 2009). This definition is used in a range of reports including the *Voluntourism Guidelines Report* composed by The International Ecotourism Society (TIES, 2008). Postmodernist thinking challenges such favourable interpretations, preferring to critique the industry through the eyes of the host community (Guttentag, 2009; Simpson, 2004).

While the exact phrasing can differ, the semantics remain the same; travellers using their time and skills to make a positive difference in the communities and/or environments they visit. Volunteer tourism is often labelled as alternative tourism (Singh & Singh, 2004; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004) and has even been referred to as "the new poster-child" (Lyons & Wearing, 2007: p. 6). Reasons for this vary, though Butcher (2010) believes volunteer tourism is the antidote of mass tourism which is perceived as "problematic, destructive to the environment

and insensitive to cultural difference" (p. 45). Other labels include ethical and sustainable tourism, which often challenge mass tourism development (Andereck, McGehee, Lee, & Clemmons, 2012; McGehee & Santos, 2005; Raymond & Hall, 2008; Vodopivec & Jaffe, 2011; Wearing, 2001).

Within the literature there are many who define and categorise the tourist rather than the activity. A common approach is identifying the main purpose of the travel experience. Taillon (2007), for example, contends that there are "two encompassing mindsets in the volunteer tourists' perception, the voluntourism-minded and the vacation-minded" (p. 13). Vacation minded tourists are described as traveling with a commercial enterprise aimed at profit taking, while the volunteer minded tourist is more likely to travel with an NGO or not for profit organisation. The term 'voluntourism' has emerged as the phenomenon of vacation minded tourism has grown. Brown (2005) was one of the first to adopt the term, using it to refer to travellers that spend just a small portion of their holiday partaking in volunteer projects. Others have followed, using voluntourist to describe tourists that engage in small scale, low level volunteer activities (Bailey & Russell, 2010; Daldeniz & Hampton, 2011; Holmes & Smith, 2009). Based on this description, the term voluntourist could be aligned to the case study in this inquiry.

Callanan and Thomas (2005) are widely cited for their conceptual framework (which builds on Arne Naess' (1972) work on 'deep' and 'shallow' ecology) describing volunteer tourism. They propose a volunteer spectrum with 'shallow' volunteer tourists on one end, 'intermediate' volunteer tourists in the middle and 'deep' volunteer tourists at the other.

Shallow VT

- Short duration – less than 4 weeks
- Self interest motives
- Minimal skills or qualifications
- Passive

Intermediate VT

- Medium term duration – 1 to 6 months
- Self interest and altruistic motives
- Generic skills or qualifications

Deep VT

- Long duration – at least 6 months
- Altruistic motives dominate
- Technical skills and/ or experience

VT = Volunteer Tourism
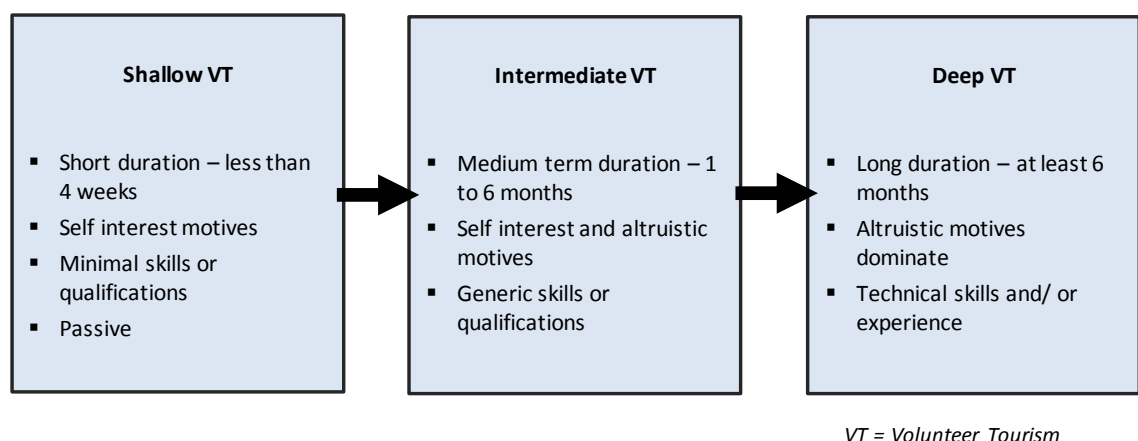
Figure 1: Summarised version of Callanan and Thomas' (2005; p. 197) conceptual framework for volunteer tourists

Callanan and Thomas' (2005) model (Presented in Figure 1) shows that defining the concept of a volunteer tourist can be based on the duration of the volunteerism, the level of skill they

bring and the impact such a tourist can have on their host community. However, using Plog's tourist typology, these same participants have been described as allocentrics; explorers and adventure seekers (Brown, 2005). These two terms, shallow and allocentric, seem somewhat contradictory, highlighting the difficulty one faces in defining this phenomenon.

2.2.2   What do volunteer tourists do?

Stebbins (1996) has identified volunteer tourism as a project-based leisure activity. These 'projects' vary widely, though teaching, construction and conservation activities dominate (Butcher & Smith, 2010; Carter, 2008; Nestora, 2009; UNV, 2011). Wearing (2001) identifies wildlife conservation and community development as the two main 'project' areas that engage volunteer tourists. While quantitative data in this field are meagre, some limited statistics do exist on volunteer roles. For example, Tourism Research and Marketing's (TRAM, 2008) research into global volunteer tourism shows 38% were involved in community work, 31% in education and 27% in conservation. Stebbins' phrase 'serious leisure' highlights the need for the volunteer activity to be "sufficiently substantial and interesting in nature for a participant" (Stebbins, 2004: p. 5). These interests are often based around the development of communities and the protection of wildlife and the environment. Examples include, teaching English in a Guatemalan orphanage (Schott, 2011), monitoring wildlife behaviour in Thailand (Broad & Jenkins, 2007) and engaging in organic market gardening in India (Singh & Singh, 2004).

2.2.3   Where is volunteer tourism found?

Like all forms of tourism, volunteer tourism spans all corners of the globe (Sin, 2009). Callanan and Thomas (2005) identify 156 host countries and Nestoria (2009), whose study involved 20,000 volunteer participants, found 40% in South America, 23% in Africa, 22% in Asia and 12% travelling to Europe.

However, a spatial pattern exists in the origin and destination localities. Communities in developed nations that host volunteer tourists are rare. Countries that have been cited or referenced include New Zealand (Zahra & McIntosh, 2007) , the United States of America (McGehee & Andereck, 2007) and Canada (Halpenny & Caissie, 2003). In contrast, volunteer tourism in the developing world is prevalent, with numerous studies reported in countries such as South Africa (Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004), Kenya (Lepp, 2007), Cambodia (Sin, 2009), India (Singh & Singh, 2004; Stritch, 2011), Thailand (Broad & Jenkins, 2007; Conran, 2011),

Guatamala (Schott, 2011; Vodopivec & Jaffe, 2011) and Costa Rica (Campbell & Smith, 2006). In relation to countries of origin for volunteer tourists, most literature identifies North America, Europe and Australasia as predominant (Broad & Jenkins, 2007; TRAM, 2008). While volunteer tourists are generally reported as being from the 'west' travelling to 'the south', more recent research from Asia is showing new trends emerging with tourists from Hong Kong (Lo & Lee, 2011) and Singapore (Sin, 2009) engaging in volunteer activities during their travels.

2.2.4 Who are volunteer tourists?

Historically men have been recorded as traveling more than women (Cohen, 2001), however, studies show females make up the majority of volunteer tourism participants (Andereck et al., 2012; Bailey & Russell, 2010; Broad & Jenkins, 2007; Brown, 2005; Lepp, 2007; Stritch, 2011). Pioneering work by van Aalten (2010) approached the topic from a gender perspective, and concluded that women are slightly more "altruistic and caring" (p. 61) and therefore more likely to participate in volunteer tourism.

Unlike gender, there is some discrepancy in the literature with regard to age and volunteer tourism. Publications reveal a diverse range of ages, from young children to retired travellers. Brown's (2005) research showed individuals between the ages of 35 and 44 years made up the largest group of volunteers. Other studies, such as Stoddart and Rogerson (2004), identified 'early retirees' 50 – 59 years of age, with disposable income and good health as the largest group of participants in Habitat for Humanity, in South Africa. However, the predominant age group reported in the overall literature is between 20 and 30 years of age (Andereck et al., 2012; Broad & Jenkins, 2007; van Aalten, 2010; Wearing, 2001).

Many studies have highlighted the prevalence of higher incomes and above average educational attainment of volunteer tourists (Broad & Jenkins, 2007; Vodopivec & Jaffe, 2011). Wearing and Neil's (1999) 'Ecotourism Profile' states eco-tourists, who often engage in conservation volunteer projects, "generally possess tertiary qualifications" (p. 120) and use their incomes to spend more on socially responsible travel experiences. Such traits could be considered logical when aligning these activities because having an understanding of social and environmental issues would seem prerequisite to the desire to take action. In addition, volunteer tourism travel is often reported as more expensive than other forms of travel (Guttentag, 2009), discouraging some budget travellers.

2.2.5   When did volunteer tourism emerge?

The exact origin of volunteer tourism is difficult to pinpoint due, in part, to the diverse array of options within this field and the historical nature of travel for the purpose of work. Some trace the beginning to historical times, referring to early missionaries and the global work of Catholic and Protestant churches (McGehee & Santos, 2005; Raymond & Hall, 2008). Others specifically identify the nineteenth century "when missionaries, doctors and teachers travelled to aid others" (Brown, 2005: p. 1). TRAM (2008) considers the early 1900s as a starting point, when the more organisational structure of the Australian Volunteers Abroad and Peace Corps USA emerged. Wearings' (2004) supports this time frame, referring to 1915 when international volunteer based groups began to emerge. However, for most scholars the contemporary understanding of volunteer tourism is considered to have developed in the late 20th century (Andereck et al., 2012; Brown, 2005; Callanan & Thomas, 2005; Daldeniz & Hampton, 2011; Wearing, 2001)

2.2.6   Why has the term 'volunteer tourism' emerged of late?

Few, if any, studies have specifically aimed to answer such a question. Instead, authors have tended to focus on factors that have potentially driven the growth of volunteer tourism (Benson, 2011; Brown, 2005; Simpson, 2004). As with all forms of tourism, there are an array of elements and processes that have influenced the development of this niche tourism activity. There is, however, widespread agreement that the numbers of tourists choosing to engage in volunteering is growing.

The motivation (and demand) for volunteering when travelling can be categorised as intrinsic and extrinsic in nature. An example of an extrinsic factor is poverty reduction and there are extensive discussions on volunteer tourism's relationship to poverty (Govers, 2010; Guttentag, 2009; Simpson, 2004). It is not a coincidence that volunteer tourism has emerged in the literature at the same time as the growth in publications on 'pro poor tourism'. Pro poor tourism is aligned to volunteer tourism in that it involves travel that makes a positive economic contribution to communities that are disadvantaged and often living in poverty (Butcher, 2010). Many well respected academics such as Lyons and Wearing (2007) argue that volunteer tourism is a product worth marketing and that government agencies and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) see this form of tourism as "a creative and non-consumptive solution to a wide range of social and environmental issues that manifest in diverse communities globally" (p. 6). As NGO roles have grown in significance, so too has their need to generate funding to

implement programmes to achieve their goals. TRAM (2008) states "volunteer tourism can generate considerable incomes for local communities" (p.7) and many NGOs addressing poverty look to provide opportunities which benefit those in need. Vodopivec and Jaff (2010) are critical, describing volunteer tourism as a "neoliberal form of development practice, where development is not only privatized but can be packaged as a marketable commodity" (p. 111).

Intrinsic reasons occur within the tourism development process and include the growth of supply via commercial tourism operators (TRAM, 2008). In recent years, business operators have created a wide variety of volunteer experiences, with the sole purpose of making profits, and providing a "commodified experience" (Lyons et al., 2012: p. 371). The '*UN volunteerism 2011*' (United Nations Volunteers, 2011) report identifies international volunteering as increasingly being promoted in universities and by corporations as a force for global education and skills development. On the more controversial side, publications such as '*The community tourism guide*' by Mark Mann (2000), promote commercial operators marketing their tours with "get some excitement in your life… to rejuvenate, to give meaning, to give! Rise to the challenge" (p. 125). This type of promotion appears to package environmental degradation and/or poverty into some type of exciting holiday opportunity for those wealthy enough to afford it. Thus, the ethics of wealthy outsiders, engaging with poor or less privileged locals is a controversial subject amongst many authors (Guttentag, 2009; Simpson, 2004; Sin, 2010)

2.2.7   Making generalisations about volunteer tourism

This chapter has identified a range of issues and influences within volunteer tourism area. From this overview, the following generalisations can be made:

1. Volunteer tourism involves travellers using resources such as time, skills and capital to engage with communities and environments for the benefit of both their destination and themselves.

2. Volunteer tourism is diverse in nature, involving a wide range of altruistic activities over a few days, months and up to a year.

3. Volunteer tourists are predominantly women, are often younger, highly educated and usually from higher socio-economic groups with relatively high disposable incomes.

4. Volunteer tourism occurs globally, but host communities are generally found in developing countries while the volunteer tourists are predominantly from developed nations.

5. Volunteer tourism is growing in popularity for a range of reasons. However, the growth of pro poor tourism, increasing involvement of NGOs and commercial suppliers and more educated, globally aware tourists have all contributed to its growth.

2.3 The motivations and experiences of a volunteer tourist

2.3.1 Motivations: The start of any trip

Of all the scholarly research into volunteer tourism, the topic of tourist motivations is the most comprehensively explored (Andereck et al., 2012; Brown, 2005; Carter, 2008; Lee, 2011; Pearce & Coghlan, 2008; Robinson, Long, Evans, Sharpley, & Swarbrooke, 2000; Schott, 2011; Taillon, 2007; Wearing, 2001). Since the 1970s, the motivations of tourists have been a significant focus of scholarly research. While numerous theories have been proposed, there is no one commonly agreed theoretical approach or model which explains all tourists' motivation (Holden, 2005; Mayo & Jarvis, 1981). As is typical for the social sciences, the approach taken by tourism researchers to explain their findings varies greatly. Many use well established sociological theories such as Maslow's (1954) 'hierarchy of human needs' (Brown, 2005; van Egmond, 2007) or Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory (Andereck et al., 2012; Brown, 2005; van Egmond, 2007). Others choose tourism-specific frameworks to explain motivations, often 'boxing' tourists into a typology. Popular examples include Pearce's (1988) travel career ladder with its needs analysis approach, and Plog's theory (1974), which offers a continuum of psychological behaviour types whereby volunteer tourists are often labelled 'allocentrics' - the explorers and adventure seekers (Brown, 2005; Lepp, 2007; Simpson, 2004). Dann's (1981) formulation of the terms 'push' and 'pull' factors are commonly used in the critical analysis of qualitative data (Macleod, 2004; Wearing & Neil, 1999; Wickens, 2011). Overall, researchers have used a wide range of models and typologies to explain their findings. Those of particular relevance to volunteer tourism are explored below.

Volunteer tourism is often found 'off the beaten track' in areas unaccustomed to large numbers of tourists. As a consequence, volunteer tourists are considered to have the ability to gain an insight into a real life community or environment, away from the 'staged' and 'manufactured' mass tourism industry. MacCannell's (1976) theory of 'the authentic tourist' is therefore a popular framework used in discussing volunteer tourism (Broad & Jenkins, 2007; Conran, 2011; Macleod, 2004; van Egmond, 2007; Wearing, 2001). Based on the desire of tourists for authentic experiences within their travels, MacCannell (1976) writes "the rhetoric of tourism is full of manifestations of the importance of the authenticity of the relationship between the tourist and what they see" (p. 14). He argues that modern developed world lifestyles encompass fakeness and alienation and, as a consequence, travellers are motivated by a desire to seek real, 'back door', locals-only experiences. Cohen (2001) supports

MacCannell, stating that "as the modern equivalent of the religious pilgrimage, the two are homologous in that both are quests for authentic experiences" (p. 54).

Engagement theory has been explored by Alexander and Bakir (2010) during their study of voluntourism in South Africa. Developed by Kearsley and Shneiderman (1999), it is based on the concept that meaningful interaction with a worthwhile task is needed for positive outcomes such as learning to occur. Their research revealed motivations based around "engagement themes of connection, commitment and immersion" (p. 15). They identified a range of factors, such as sharing, mixing with others, seeing clearly and deeply and becoming connected, were all facilitated by meaningful interactions linked with a seemingly meaningful task. Taking it further, Alexander and Bakir (2010) argue that volunteer tourism goes beyond Urry's (1990) well cited and explored approach of 'the tourist gaze'. While Urry (1990) asserts that "places are chosen to be gazed upon because there is anticipation, especially through daydreaming and fantasy" (p. 3). Alexander and Bakir (2010) believe such an activity may be inconsequential. However, with meaningful 'authentic' interaction, whereby participants do something of value, rather than just see it, more fulfilling outcomes are found.

McIntosh (1977, 1990) has presented four simplistic travel motivations categories, based on an explanation of travel outcome rather than intrinsic motivational behaviour. His descriptions are summarised in Figure 2: McIntosh's (1977) categories of tourism motivations

below. While some may argue these categories have 'gaps', it does provide an overview of the main 'pull factors' found in volunteer tourism literature. McIntosh's (1977) categories are referred to by others in the tourism field such as Mayo and Jarvis (1981).

Physical motivations	Cultural motivations	Interpersonal motivations	Status and prestige motivations
Refreshment of body and mind. Rest and relaxation or physical challenges such as mountain climbing.	Desire for knowledge, to see and learn about other cultures.	Desire to meet new people, new experiences or for spiritual reasons	Ego based needs, desire for recognition, attention from others. The personal development gained – e.g. educational.

Figure 2: McIntosh's (1977) categories of tourism motivations

Source: McIntosh (1990: p. 131), Mayo and Jarvis (1981: p. 148)

2.3.2 Insights into volunteer tourists' motivations from case study research

There are a range of qualitative and quantitative studies published in the literature which use a case study approach to explore tourist motivation (Campbell & Smith, 2006; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Stritch, 2011; Wearing, 2001; Zahra & McIntosh, 2007). In order to more clearly understand these works and their findings it is useful to establish a framework within which critical analysis can occur. An adapted version of McIntosh's (1977) four categories of tourism motivation (refer to Figure 2) has been constructed as Figure 3 below. The motivations identified in Figure 3 reflect the wide range of case study findings within scholarly research on volunteer tourism.

Intrapersonal motivations	Cultural motivations	Interpersonal motivations	Status and prestige motivations	External motivations
▪ Personal development ▪ Challenging oneself, with a new experience ▪ Addressing feelings of guilt or obligation ▪ Wanting to gain future direction	▪ Cultural immersion opportunities ▪ Practice of language ▪ Wanting to avoid mass tourism	▪ Wanting to do something positive for others and / or the environment (altruism) ▪ Wanting to make or spend time with friends	▪ Career development ▪ Looking for an adventure/a challenge ▪ Wanting to share unique experiences with others	▪ Particular attractions of the volunteer project ▪ A new destination ▪ Family support ▪ Prior educational opportunities and experiences

Figure 3: A summary model of volunteer tourism motivations: An adapted version from McIntosh (1977)

Sources of information found in Figure 3: (Alexander & Bakir, 2010; Andereck et al., 2012; Broad & Jenkins, 2007; Brown, 2005; Callanan & Thomas, 2005; Coghlan & Gooch, 2011; Daldeniz & Hampton, 2011; Govers, 2010; Guttentag, 2009; Jones, 2005; Lepp, 2007; N. McGehee & Andereck, 2007; McIntosh & Zahra, 2008; Pearce & Coghlan, 2008; Raymond & Hall, 2008; Schott, 2011; Simpson, 2004; Sin, 2009; Singh & Singh, 2004; Soderman & Snead, 2007; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Stritch, 2011; Taillon, 2007; Vodopivec & Jaffe, 2011; Wearing, 2001; Wickens, 2011; Zahra & McIntosh, 2007).

Modifications relevant to a range of volunteer tourism literature case studies have been incorporated. The term 'physical', which referred to rest and relaxation, has been replaced with 'intrapersonal', which simply means improving ones state of mind or being or feeling better about oneself (this term was adopted from Lepp's (2007) research). An additional category of 'external motivations' highlights factors such as the influence of the destination activity and family. Motivational factors are listed in Figure 3 in relation to their frequency in the literature. The most commonly reported factors are discussed below.

Intrapersonal motivations reflect the desire for personal development such as gaining new skills and understanding (Coghlan & Gooch, 2011; Palacios, 2010; Schott, 2011; Soderman & Snead, 2007; Stritch, 2011; Wickens, 2011). Schott (2011) states "volunteers actively seek to develop the self as part of the volunteer tourism experience" (p. 67). Beyond that is a desire for self-actualisation; reaching ones full potential, a term which is prominent within the literature (Lepp, 2007; Lyons et al., 2012; Schott, 2011). In contrast, trying to address feelings of guilt or feeling obligated to help are also common factors that influence people to participate. Butcher (2010) contends that an important motivator for volunteer tourism is "a large dose of personal guilt that can only be assuaged through ethical tourism practice" (p. 52) and that volunteer tourism helps create "morally justifiable lifestyles" (2011; p. 30).

Cultural motivations are based on a desire to immerse oneself in a completely new culture or environment (Andereck et al., 2012; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Vodopivec & Jaffe, 2011; Wickens, 2011). Soderman and Snead (2007) revealed this to be of particular importance for older, more experienced travellers. Tourists often aspire to improve their understanding of other cultures. Sin (2010) refers to this as "gaining cultural capital through the collection of knowledge and experience in volunteer tourism" (p. 469). He adds that in the process they are able to secure opportunities for work and in turn improve lifestyles in the future. Based on research in Nepal, Wicken (2011) believes volunteer tourists, more than any other tourist, will engage and learn about the culture of a host community.

Interpersonal motivations involve connecting with others, which often is reflected in philanthropic actions or altruistic behaviour. McIntosh and Zahra (2008) believe volunteer tourism "engenders deep host-volunteer connections and meaningful relationships" (p. 175) and this is, by far, offered as the most prevalent motivation within academic literature. (Brown, 2005; Daldeniz & Hampton, 2011; Lyons & Wearing, 2007; Pearce & Coghlan, 2008; Robinson et al., 2000; Schott, 2011; Singh & Singh, 2004; Soderman & Snead, 2007; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Stritch, 2011; Wearing, 2001). Schott's (2011) research on volunteer tourists in Guatemala found a desire to 'give back' to communities in need.

As well as a desire for meaningful interactions with host communities, volunteer tourists embrace the opportunity to make friends (Tallion, 2007; Browns, 2005; Coghlan & Gooch, 2011). Simpson's (2004) study revealed "meeting and interacting with people from the same travel group who share common interests and values appear to be major motives behind volunteer vacation" (p. 488).

Status and prestige motivations may be considered selfish by those cynical about volunteer tourism. Here, the desire for a special, unique experience is identified in the literature as an important motivator (Ackerberg & Prapasawudi, 2009; Carter, 2008; Daldeniz & Hampton, 2011; Sin, 2009; Soderman & Snead, 2007). Such experiences allow for noteworthy stories and the feeling one has of having done something significant and worthwhile. Lepp's (2007) study of volunteers working in an education centre in a Kenyan national park highlights this with the manager "avoiding the word tourism or 'touristy' when communicating with the volunteers' as participants were looking for "greater challenges and more novel experiences" (p. 91).

A person's career development is considered a status level within society and opportunities for volunteer tourism to improve one's curriculum vitae are commonly reported motivators (Daldeniz & Hampton, 2011; Pike & Beames, 2007; Stritch, 2011; Taillon, 2007). For example, it was considered important for half the participants in Broad and Jenkins' (2000) study of the Thailand Gibbon Conservation experience and one of the main motivations in Daldeniz and Hampton's (2011) research on volunteers in a rural development project in Nicaragua. Taillon's (2007) research found "the most important motivational factors for participants were to improve their future positioning in the marketplace" (p. 28) through the enhancement of their resumes.

External motivations appear to be unique to both the individual and the volunteer tourism activity. An example is the choice to work within conservation or community development. Broad and Jenkins' (2000) found one third of their participants chose the experience as they wanted to specifically work with primates. However, Taillion (2007) found that location was not seen as a dominator factor in his study of 45 Canadian volunteer tourists. One study of particular relevance is Wearing's (2001) research on Youth Challenge International (YCI) participants in the Santa Elena rainforest project. He concluded that supportive parents, prior experience of overseas travel and knowledge of other cultures were important influences in the decision to partake in volunteer tourism. These factors argued to be a product of a supportive, affluent home environment that inspires younger people to engage in this form of tourism.

While the framework of the Summary Model in Figure 3 is useful as a mechanism to categorise and understand the range of motivational factors identified in the published literature, such a rigid categorisation of motivational factors, which are multi-faceted and complex needs to be recognised as somewhat simplistic. For example, Soderman and Snead's (2007) study of British gap year participants found "a multitude of influences, past experiences, ambitions,

perceptions and present circumstances combine to form a mosaic of motivations" (p. 128). Their work, therefore, concludes that volunteer tourists' motivations are unlikely to be fitted into clearly delineated categories. This view is also supported by Lyons and Wearing (2007) who warn of issues when "pigeonholing" tourist interest and behaviours. They argue that a focus on the variety of behaviours which "intersect and manifest" (p. 152) is a better approach than one which seeks to explain motivation.

2.3.3   Experiential effects from volunteer tourism case study research

While motivation for participating in volunteer tourism is an important issue which has been explored by a number of authors, a further significant area is the experiences and effect of those experiences on volunteers and hosts. Termed 'experiential effects' for the purposes of this review, published research generally highlights the positive effects of volunteer tourism, predominantly for the tourist, rather than the host (Han et al., 2010; Jones, 2005; Taillon, 2007; Wearing, 2001; Zahra & McIntosh, 2007). Surprisingly, there is a dearth of meaningful research on the impacts on host communities despite this being a widely published criticism of volunteer tourism impacts. The following section of this literature review will focus on three key experiential outcomes commonly discussed in academic publications. These include; personal development, changes in perspective and increased social awareness.

Personal development

Evidence suggests tourism in any form "improves the mind and overall character of its participants" (Wearing, 2001: p. 11). Volunteer tourism is a 'super-sized' version, aiming to maximise personal development as part of the reciprocal benefits this phenomenon promises. Wearing's (2001) comprehensive research in Costa Rica suggests the challenges and unfamiliar environment of volunteer tourism leads to personal development, a greater awareness of self and a chance to "expand or reconfirm their identity" (p. 10). The 'transformation' paradigm is extensive within the literature along with the term 'rite of passage' (Jones, 2005; Lyons, Deville, & Wearing, 2007; Singh & Singh, 2004; Wearing, 2001). In addition, the term 'self-actualization' is identified by many scholarly writers (Brown, 2005; Coghlan & Gooch, 2011; Singh & Singh, 2004; Stebbins, 1996) as an experiential outcome for volunteer tourists. Specific examples of personal development include; self-confidence, respecting resource accessibility, new career direction, increased appreciation of family, attitudinal changes on diversity and wealth.

Change in perspective

Zahra and McIntosh (2007) believe "volunteer tourism can change a participant's perceptions about society, self-identity, values, and their everyday lives" (p. 116). Within scholarly publications, many researchers assert a broadening of world-views and a way of seeing the world (Simpson, 2004; Vodopivec & Jaffe, 2011; Wearing, 2001). Jones (2005) refers to it as a "global perspective" (p.9), a new understanding of their place in the world, the scale of their own problems and their access to wealth relative to those in need. Lepp (2007) believes such experiences help people see beyond the stereotypes and that for volunteers "confronting and pondering these inequalities was a significant challenge and the process of doing so yielded important new understandings of themselves and others" (p. 93). Simpson (2004) adds further thought to this discussion, adding "while such reflexivity is interesting, it is also important to question its focus. Namely, students are concentrating on their own position, rather than that of others" (p. 689). Raymond and Hall (2008) also acknowledge that volunteer tourism experiences can change people's perceptions but argue it is dependent on the activity and "it cannot be assumed to be an automatic outcome of an individual's participation" (p. 538). The long term effect on worldviews and perspectives of individuals are difficult to gauge with little, if any, longitudinal empirical data to support such claims.

Increasing social responsibility

It seems for some, university aged students especially, that volunteer tourism inspires a new sense of social responsibility. This could be considered a final stage in a transformative learning process whereby new learning is bought back into their home communities and way of living (Coghlan & Gooch, 2011). Jones (2005) supports this, stating "volunteers appear to have gained a sense of modest empowerment to affect global society" (p. 17). This new desire to engage in positive social action through a sense of empowerment is an experiential effect identified by many (Conran, 2011; Goodwin, 2011; Palacios, 2010; Wearing, 2001). The concepts of fair trade, supporting local business, and other socially conscious behaviours can be a result of volunteer tourism if the opportunity for enlightenment arises (McGehee & Santos, 2005; McGehee, 2012a). Service learning is occasionally associated with volunteer tourism such as Raymond and Hall's (2011) study involving 288 students participating on the 'Pay It Forward Tour'. Their quantitative analysis of findings showed an increase in civic attitude was the most significant impact of the experience for the students.

Criticisms of experiential effects

Some scholars have been somewhat sceptical of the vast majority of literature that is quick to assume such positive outcomes. They argue there is little substantial quantitative evidence available (Govers, 2010; McGehee & Santos, 2005; Terence, 2005). One of the most cited is Guttentag (2009, 2011) who disputes the positive outcome claims by many authors using the findings of ver Beek (2006) to support his argument. Ver Beek's research revealed far fewer participants than expected had made a positive contribution to their volunteer project after returning home. Guttentag (2009) therefore argues "such comments may be influenced by bias, as some volunteers may make statements that they believe are desirable or rationalize the cost of a trip" (p. 545). Sin (2009) builds on this stating "while volunteer tourists interviewed did allude to some changes in opinions after their experiences, it was inconclusive as to whether this has led to substantial changes in their value-system, social consciousness, or willingness to volunteer in other arenas after their volunteer tourism experience" (p. 481). Thus, there is a view that the claims of longer term personal development and enlightenment that occurs from a volunteer tourism experience has minimal empirical evidence to support such a contention (Simpson, 2004). There are very few long term longitudinal studies that provide evidence of behavioural change as a result of a volunteer tourism experience.

2.3.4   A summary of research findings on motivations and experiential effects

This section has presented the findings of scholarly research on volunteer tourists from around the world. This review has attempted to extract and synthesize the range of themes and concepts found in published case study research. The result is a framework (e.g. Figure 3) that clearly shows the current state of understanding of volunteer tourism.

Motivations are dominated by the desire to help others and experience a different culture or environment in a meaningful way. However, there are also strong selfish motivations, including the desire for personal growth and increased career opportunities such an experience might bring. Experiential effects are also well documented and a critical analysis reveals personal development, changes in perspective and a new sense of civic responsibility are evident (though not necessarily empirically proven). These may not be unique to volunteer tourism, but are found deep in the core of what this phenomenon represents.

2.4   Youth and volunteer tourism

Within tourism literature, studies which focus on university aged students are relatively extensive and include language and cross-cultural exchanges, experiential learning and backpacking (Borrie et al., 2011; Gmelch, 1997; Smith et al., 2010; UNWTO, 2008; van Egmond, 2007; van Wijk, Go, & van'T Klooster, 2008). Interestingly, it is these university aged students that are commonly referred to as 'youth' despite the fact that the majority of these students are young adults (i.e. 18-25 years of age). Youth, as an age cohort, is more widely understood and interpreted as those children who are not yet legally adults but are an older, adolescent age group (that is, in most countries under the age of 18). Studies of younger travellers have tended to focus on younger children in the context of family travel (Carr, 2011; Gram, 2007; Schänzel, 2012; Webster, 2012). While there is little published literature on youth travellers, there is anecdotal evidence of an increasing number of youth participating in short term volunteer travel activities (World Challenge, 2013). In addition, governments and NGOs are increasingly encouraging and supporting schools in their endeavour to engage in community service, and volunteerism, including trips to international destinations. Examples include Singapore, Canada and USA (Bailey & Russell, 2010; Henderson, Brown, Pancer, & Ellis-Hale, 2007; Metz, McLellan, & Youniss, 2003; Sin, 2009). Despite the growth in these youth based volunteer tourism activities, there is little published research on the motivations and experiences of secondary school students who participate in volunteer tourism.

2.4.1   The limited literature of adolescent volunteer tourism

A small number of publications acknowledge the presence of adolescents in volunteer tourism but most provide limited insight. Wearing's (2001) research in Costa Rica refers specifically to the term adolescence and he interviewed participants as young as 17 years old as part of a wider study. In relation to youth, he argues volunteer tourism "gives participants a chance to review their self; their relation to other people; and their goals and aspirations for the future" (p. 10). He also suggests that engaging in volunteer tourism experiences in formative years may have life-long impacts. He uses the examples of future decision making and psychological wellbeing. Another study by Brown (2005) involved interviews with parents participating in a volunteer tourism project with their children. She explained that many parents believed it was an opportunity to teach their children about diversity, provide them with a new perspective and instil altruistic values. This is of particular relevance when exploring the effects of this

activity on teenagers, who are often described as undergoing the final stages of their morality development (Arnett, 2010).

Relatively new research into service learning has begun to explore the effects of volunteer work when teenagers travel during their school aged years. Bailey and Russell's (2010) study of domestic volunteer tourism in the United States involved students who participated in the 'Pay It Forward Tour', a five day trip for middle school, high school and college students. Data were collected on the psychological development of participants both prior and post-trip. Their findings indicate a significant impact on civic attitude, openness and wisdom for teenagers. They also found "students who began with lower levels of openness and civic attitude showed even stronger gains in these variables" (p. 364).

Another closely aligned activity is Christian missionary youth group travel. Studies exploring the motivations and impacts of missionary style trips in the developing world are especially relevant to secondary school volunteer tourism. Studies include Howell (2009), Linhart (2005, 2010) and Walling, Eriksson, Meese and Ciovica (2006). Although few have empirically quantified the experiential effects, spiritual and positive developmental outcomes are claimed and their popularity continues to increase (Root, 2008). Linhart (2005) reports "nearly 250,000 middle and high school students spent over 100 million dollars in 2003 to participate in short term mission trips" (p. 257). For churches, the goal is the development of spirituality within their youth, helping them get closer to God and "instilling a sense of servant hood in student's lives" (Linhart, 2005: p. 257). Walling et al.'s (2006) mission trip study revealed that not all aspects of the experience are positive for young people. Some participants admitted that while it broadened their perspective and gave them a new appreciation for different cultures, it also "caused them to view their home culture critically, with anger or guilt" (p. 158).

These limited studies suggest (most anecdotally) that there are meaningful and possibly unique outcomes for young people engaged in community development or conservation projects when travelling. However, presently there is little evidence from published volunteer tourism case studies that directly engage with secondary school students. One area of travel research that has explored this age group (in a limited capacity) is that of 'educational tourism'.

2.4.2 Educational travel

The term 'educational travel' is used to describe the study of excursions involving school and university aged students. Ritchie (2003) considers there to be two main types: First where the purpose of the trip is formal learning and education, and second; where the experience of travel is considered of most importance and learning is more informal. While many studies have focussed on university based travel (often linked to cultural exchanges and work experience), only a few have sought insight into secondary school excursions (Larsen & Jenssen, 2013; Ritchie & Coughlan, 2004).

One area that can be reviewed is that of travel motivations in secondary schools. Larsen and Jenssen's (2013) study of Norwegian school students participating in a class trip found that 'being together' was the most important reason for their travel. Students also acknowledged that 'learning' while abroad was an essential component. Both these motivations have been identified in volunteer tourism studies (refer to Figure 3, p. 30), but are particularly relevant to educational based travel. In addition, this study found 'relaxation' to be the least frequent response to travel motivations, a pull factor also missing from volunteer tourism literature. Ritchie and Coughlan's (2004) research of 807 Australian schools found that links to curriculum learning and costs associated with travel were the largest motivational factors when planning an overnight trip.

In relation to volunteer tourism literature, Wearing (2001) and Coghlan & Gooch (2011) highlight the transformational process that volunteering while travelling facilitates, through the personal development that occurs during the experience (i.e. experiential effects). Perry, Stoner and Tarrant's (2012) research into educational travel at university also identifies this type of outcome. They argue "within study abroad experiences, exposure to new places, cultures, and learning environments where a student's preconceived and established notions and beliefs are tested, may act as the catalyst or impetus for bringing forth a transformative experience" (p. 682).

Another educational travel outcome linked to experiential effects in volunteer tourism is global citizenship and increased social capital (Falk, Ballantyne, Packer & Benckendorff, 2012; Tarrant, Stoner, Borrie, Gerard, Moore & Moore, 2011). Tarrant et al., (2011) states "well-structured educational travel programmes, of any duration, have the potential to promote learning outcomes that go beyond the impact of traditional based campus instruction" (p. 408). This increase in social capital and the development of global perspectives may help explain studies

that suggest adult employment and incomes can be influenced by travel in teenage years. For example, Explorica (2011) released an unpublished study that surveyed 600 adults, half who had travelled internationally between the ages of 12 and 19 and half who had not. Their results found those who had travelled as teenagers were almost twice as likely to attain a college degree. While this study does not claim cause and effect, it supports other studies that show educational travel results in increased understanding and skills such as cross cultural competencies (Stone & Petrick, 2013; van 't Klooster, van Wijk, Go & van Rekom, 2008).

It is often highlighted in academic literature that educational travel continues to be under-researched (Larsen & Jenssen, 2013; Ritchie & Coughlan, 2004; Stone & Petrick, 2013) and most studies are based on university rather than secondary school environments. While educational travel studies offer an insight into school based travel, they do not directly relate to the activity of volunteering while travelling. Therefore, the review of literature that follows is a critical analysis of adolescent volunteerism within student's own communities, which has a higher frequency of research within academic publications. It explores the potential relevance of volunteerism to this thesis research.

2.4.3 Volunteerism and adolescence

Holmes and Smith (2009) refer to volunteering as "an activity which takes place through not-for-profit organisations or projects, undertaken for the benefit to the community and the volunteer, of the volunteers own free will and with no financial payment" (p. 12). Such an activity is undertaken by millions of students on a global scale each year. While many argue teenage volunteerism is under researched (Marta, 2008), there exists a substantial body of knowledge on this demographic.

Understandably, there are a number of potential commonalities between volunteer tourism and youth volunteerism research. For example, the most common participants in youth volunteerism are females with a high educational attainment and relative wealth (Atkins, Hart, & Donnelly, 2005; Johnson, Beebe, Mortimer, & Snyder, 1998; Oesterlie, Johnson, & Mortimer, 2004). In addition, Webber (2011) suggests that students with parents who volunteer are more likely to volunteer themselves and Wearing (2001) also identifies parental influence as a motivating factor for volunteer tourists.

In terms of personal development, a wide range of academic publications report significant positive outcomes for teenagers engaged in volunteer work (Cemalcilar, 2009; Hamilton &

Fenzel, 1988; Schmidt, Shumow, & Kackar, 2007; Waldstein & Reiher, 2001). Johnson et al. (2009) found future academic plans, self-esteem (both academically and personally) intrinsic work values and valuing the community were all outcomes for students who participated in local charity work. These findings are consistent with the findings of Schmidt et al. (2007) whose United States nationwide study involving over 1,000 adolescents reported:

> Students who participate in service earn higher grades, have fewer behavioural problems, know more about the society in which they live, and may feel slightly more empowered to effect change, even after controlling for demographic and socioeconomic characteristics. It appears that participation in service may contribute to adolescent development in a variety of ways, enhancing academic, behavioural, and civic outcomes. (p. 136).

Another religious based study by The Search Institute in the USA was conducted to explore the wellbeing and positive development of youth. This research involved over 250,000 students in 450 communities and discovered 'building blocks' for what the organisation termed 'healthy' teenagers. The role of volunteer service, involving travel away, was highlighted as a significant factor by Fitzmaurice-Kuttner (2009) who states:

> Specific mention will be made here of the immense value of weeklong service trips that afford the adolescents an opportunity to live together in solidarity as a team, and to serve and care about those who are in need of help or personal connection. Such altruism deepens the adolescents understanding of human dignity and affirms the value of meaningful connection (p. 10).

Such research findings involve extensive sampling and suggest volunteerism has numerous positive outcomes for both students and the community, with a wide range of long-term benefits for everyone involved.

Of particular interest is the development of political ideology through volunteerism. Metz et al (2003) for example, claim that students begin to understand they were working within larger collective movements and can "see themselves as engaged in social causes and even as political actors who could take active stands for political-moral reasons" (p. 200). Others support this, identifying students wanting a career in politics or advocacy after their volunteer experience (Smith et al., 2010; Webber, 2011; Youniss, Bales, & Christmas-Best, 2002). These outcomes parallel the experiential effects of adult volunteer tourists (discussed previously) who often return with a new sense of purpose and social responsibility.

It is important to acknowledge the cautions highlighted by academics working in this field. Of particular concern are the variety of external factors in adolescents' lives which are difficult to quantify and therefore rarely taken into account (Hamilton & Fenzel, 1988). This is linked to the question many researchers ponder - does volunteering cause change to one's personality or does personality lead to the desire for volunteerism? Atkins, Hart and Donnelly (2005) aimed to resolve this with a comprehensive longitudinal study. They found personality type did in fact play the most significant part in the students' desire to volunteer and the impact of volunteering on their personal development could be considered minimal. Recently scholars have corroborated this, acknowledging in their discussions that students who volunteer already have positive psychological states (Berry-Bobovski, 2007; Cemalcilar, 2009; Zaha, 2010).

Some scholarly research implies volunteerism reduces negative social behaviours such as crime, drug use, violence and unemployment (Oesterlie et al., 2004). However, assertions that claim significant positive effects from volunteerism often lack empirical evidence. Metx, McLellan and Youniss' (2003) study of 430 high school students found the benefits of volunteerism varied depending on the activity. They argue "such studies tend to operate with a generic definition of what constitutes service and thus include a variety of activities that lead to diverse effects" (p. 189). Related to this is the length of time teenagers engage with volunteerism. Some believe volunteerism must be ongoing (Atkins et al., 2005; Henderson et al., 2007) while others argue even once or twice a year can be meaningful (Schmidt et al., 2007).

Finally, in terms of motivations to volunteer, such activities have often been used to increase their own personal desirability for university acceptance (Johnson et al., 1998; Smith et al., 2010). As a consequence, it appears that their philanthropy is driven by selfish motives rather than a truly altruistic values system. This again correlates to volunteer tourism where the status and prestige motivations (refer to Figure 3) reflect the desire for participants to use these meaningful experiences to gain advancement in their lives, in particular their careers.

2.4.4   A summary of research findings on youth

In relation to volunteer tourism a small minority of studies have included young people less than 18 years of age. Of these, few focus on the youngest participants and specifically explore their motivations, experiences and effects of such travel. Research based on family travel often focus on younger children rather than older teenagers. One area of literature that does

highlight impacts on youth is that of international missionary trips. These short term travel experiences involving church related volunteer work reveal spiritual development, a broadening of perspectives and an increased desire to do more altruistic work under the guidance of 'God'. In addition, educational travel research suggests students gain a wide range of understandings and skills that are often associated with volunteer tourism experiences.

Academic literature on young people engaged in volunteerism is more comprehensive but also reveals a complex and dynamic phenomenon with little scholarly consensus. Some studies assert volunteerism has a significant impact on young people, in terms of personal growth, increased social awareness and future civic responsibility. However, others place doubts on these findings, arguing such behaviours led to the participation of volunteerism in the first instance and therefore effects are minimal.

2.5   Conclusion

The critical analysis of academic literature offered in this chapter reveals that there are a range of understandings in relation to volunteer tourism. Early work by Wearing (2001) has helped identify and define the involvement of tourists in volunteer projects working for the benefit of communities and / or the environment as 'volunteer tourism'. Regardless of the increasing body of knowledge, there are widespread calls for further studies on this economically, socially and environmentally significant activity (e.g. Holmes & Smith 2009; Lyons et al., 20012: Sin, 2009, 2010; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004). Taillon (2007) argues that "a continuous updating of the forces shaping motivational differences between volunteer tourists and tourists in other fields is necessary, especially in the rapidly changing youth market" (p. 74). Sin (2009) builds on this highlighting the rapid growth of voluntourism vacations and states "there is a critical need for research to provide a firm foundation for a deeper understanding of volunteer tourism" (p. 481).

While the majority of literature takes a positive view of this phenomenon, it is important to acknowledge the many who have begun to take a more critical approach to the industry (Lyons & Wearing, 2007; Pearce & Coghlan, 2008; Simpson, 2004; Sin, 2010; Zahra & McIntosh, 2007). In particular, Guttentag (2009) has condemned the lack of understanding of the impact Western volunteers have on host communities. Soderman and Snead (2007) argue "the overall concern about the efficacy of young volunteers' efforts overseas remains a pertinent question" (p. 128). While the study presented in this thesis does not seek to address these issues, these

criticisms must be considered to ensure the contexts of the data gathered in this inquiry are not unrealistically elevated.

Research on university aged students is widely available and provides insights about motivations, experiences and effects on students in a wide range of projects from around the world. Yet, secondary school students, who are increasingly being offered the opportunity to participate in short term volunteer tourism experiences, are a key demographic missing from the published literature. Unlike volunteer tourism, a body of knowledge is building on youth volunteerism especially the effect on student values and behaviour. There remains great scope to merge these two fields and consequently add to the current scholarly understandings of these phenomena. This is the gap that this thesis research seeks to fill. The following chapter outlines the research questions that will form the basis for the study presented in this thesis before outlining the research design and methodological approach adopted.

Chapter 3: Research Design and Methods

'Drafting the Plan'

"I'm really looking forward to getting there and building the houses. Going out into the village and actually building it and then standing back and seeing that we did it. I'm also really looking forward to the orphanage work, though that might actually be heartbreaking… and an elephant ride [laughs]." - Katy

3.1   Introduction

In this chapter the research design and methods used for this qualitative inquiry are discussed. An exploratory case study approach was adopted to carry out research on secondary school students participating in a volunteer tourism experience in Cambodia. The aim of the study was to explore and gain an understanding of the motivations, expectations and experiences by answering the following research questions:

1) Why do secondary school students participate in volunteer tourism?
2) How do secondary school student expectations compare with actual experiences?
3) How does the volunteer tourism experience affect secondary school students?

To fulfil this aim, primary data were collected from different sources. Semi structured interviews were carried out with student participants and photo elicitation methods were adopted. The teacher leading the tour was interviewed separately and a focus group was conducted with the other teachers involved in the trip.

The purpose of this chapter is to describe and explain the process of collecting, collating and analysing the case study data and the rationale behind research method decisions. The following sections explain the paradigm and rationale, setting and participants, data collection, ethical considerations, data analyses, trustworthiness (evaluation) and limitations of the research undertaken.

3.2 Paradigm and rationale

3.2.1 Selecting the paradigm of interpretivism

Careful consideration led to the selection of an interpretivist paradigm for the purpose of this inquiry. Interpretivism (also referred to as naturalism, constructivism and subjectivism) is common within social science research, especially when qualitative methods are adopted (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Cohen, 1988; Diaz Andrade, 2009; Heppner & Heppner, 2004). Klein and Myers (1999) classify research as interpretative if the researcher is "attempting to understand the phenomena through the meanings that people assign to them" (p. 69). By exploring the personal stories and narratives of students who are reflecting on their travel experience and expressing their thoughts and ideas, the knowledge is created in the process.

Guba and Lincoln (1994) identify three proponents of a paradigm in which the researcher must engage; ontology, epistemology and methodology. These have been used to set the scene for this inquiry.

Ontology is based on the nature of reality. Those that follow an interpretivist paradigm strongly advocate that, especially in the social sciences, there can be no one truth or reality (Heppner & Heppner, 2004). It is this researcher's belief that the reality of secondary school students engaged in volunteer tourism is best explored through this paradigm. Each student will bring their own reality to this inquiry, and use it to answer the research questions posed. Their volunteer tourism experiences are localised, unique, and as relativism suggests, multiple, intangible and constructed (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Secondly, transactional **epistemology** suggests that the findings of this study will be "literally created as the investigation proceeds" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994: p. 111). There are many reasons for this. Firstly, social world understandings are based in a particular moment, in a particular context for a localised group in a specific time frame (Cohan & Crabtree, 2006). Secondly, it is widely accepted in interpretivism that the researcher is inseparable from the research. That with the interaction and connection, the knowledge becomes interactive through the interwoven dialogue (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Rakić & Chambers (2012); Silverman, 2004). The term "passionate participant" is used by Guba and Lincoln (1994: p. 115) to describe the researcher who interacts and impacts on those they research. Linked to this are values that a researcher brings to such an inquiry. Interpretivism implies that no study can be free of values and thus, in this inquiry, many are found such as empathy, humanitarianism and justice.

Finally, Guba and Lincoln (1994) suggest the **methodology** should be based on the previous two concepts. With these in mind, qualitative methodology has been selected to explore the research questions. Gillis and Jackson, (2002) believe qualitative designs are appropriate when a researcher "attempts to understand how participants experience and explain their own world and give meaning to it" (p. 27). In this case, students are describing their motivations, expectations and experiences as a volunteer tourist and explaining what it means for them. In addition, it has been acknowledged in tourism publications that qualitative research is ideal for exploratory research (Ballantyne, Packer, & Axelsen, 2009; Veal, 1992).

At this point it is appropriate to discuss in more detail the relationship between the researcher and the selected case study. The researcher has prior knowledge of the volunteer tourism experience as a participant and co-creator of the trip in 2006 and 2008. She was employed by the school as a classroom teacher from 2002 until 2009 and knows the school's structure, culture and the student community well. As a result, the researcher has experience of the trip and can be considered a passionate participant in the research process. Consequently, there can be no 'objectivity' by the researcher when analysis and interpretation occur. However, interpretivism as a paradigm argues that objectivity is unobtainable in any inquiry. The relationship between researcher and research will be further discussed in the reflexivity section of this chapter.

Consideration was given to the use of a range of qualitative approaches, however, due to the inductive nature of the study and the minimal published research on secondary school students engaged in volunteer tourism, an exploratory case study was selected. Other

researchers have also identified this methodology as appropriate when few studies have been undertaken on a topic (Aneshensel, 2002; Stake, 1995).

3.2.2   Selecting the research method

The term 'case study research' has been explored in a number of scholarly publications (Cousin, 2005; Diaz Andrade, 2009; Rohlfing, 2012; Woodside, 2010; Yin, 2003). Stake's (1995) description of a case study as "the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances" (p. xi) will be used to guide this inquiry. He elaborates further by adding "the real business of case study is particularization, not generalization" (p. 8) and argues the need for an appreciation of the uniqueness and complexity found within the case study method. Using key terms from the above definition, this case study will attempt to investigate the particularity and complexity of Rangitoto College student volunteer tourism, with a focus on understanding both the individual participants and the group as a whole, involved in the 'circumstance' that is a house building and orphanage work trip in Cambodia in 2012.

How does this research fit into the case study methodology?

A range of components of case study research have been incorporated into this inquiry. Many researchers associate case studies with interpretive enquiry, qualitative methods and most often interviews (Cousin, 2005; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). This is because the terms 'deep understanding' and 'thick description' are fundamental in case study research (Stake, 1995; Woodside, 2010). This is, in part, due to its holistic approach to a phenomenon, gaining an in-depth understanding of a complex or unusual case (Cousin, 2005; Diaz-Andrade, 2009; Stake, 1995). Yin (2003) argues "a distinctive need for case studies arises out of the desire to understand complex social phenomena. The case study method allows investigators to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real life events" (p. 2). This inquiry seeks to gain deep understanding and provide thick description of student motivations, expectations and experiences when undertaking a unique volunteer tourism trip. Woodside (2010) supports this action and has developed the term "sense making" (p. 6), which, put simply, involves explaining how the individual case (i.e. the student participants) makes sense of the stimuli involved (i.e. volunteering in Cambodia). Here concepts such as 'perspectives', the 'subjective meaning' of those perspectives and the 'underlying linkages' need to be uncovered. The role of interpreting each student's perspective and opinions as well as uncovering links, patterns and contexts is of fundamental importance in this inquiry.

Finally, it is important to acknowledge that case study as a research method in tourism research is common place (Antouskova, Kroupova, & Cervena, 2009; Duhme, 2012; Smith, 2010; Xiao & Smith, 2006). This method is often adopted when specifically researching volunteer tourism; for example: Broad and Jenkins (2007), Lepp (2007), McGehee and Andereck (2009), Stritch (2011) and Wearing (2001). Therefore, after reviewing the literature, a case study method was deemed most appropriate.

Why is an exploratory case study appropriate?

There are very few academic studies based on secondary school aged adolescents who have participated in volunteer tourism in an international setting. Therefore this research is deemed exploratory in nature. Stebbins (2001) states exploratory research aims to "inductively derive generalisations about the group, process, activity or situation" (p.6). There are critics who argue that one case study cannot produce generalisations with academic rigour. However Stebbins (2001) argues they should remember that "weaknesses in sampling, validity, and generalizability tend to get corrected over the course of several exploratory studies, in a process referred to as concatenation" (p. 5). Further to this, hermeneutic phenomenology suggests that confirmatory or deductive studies may follow. Research is often cyclic and this researcher contends that collecting data from this case can be used as a basis for further studies in an iterative cycle that can lead to theory building and hypothesis testing in the future (Berry-Bobovski, 2007; Grbich, 2007). Further discussion on potential weaknesses of exploratory study as a research method can be found in the limitations section of this chapter.

Why use semi structured interviews and focus groups?

There are many reasons for the selection of semi structured interviews in this inquiry. Firstly, they have an established history in tourism research (McGehee, 2012b). When looking specifically at academic writing on volunteer tourism, semi structured interviews and focus groups are the most popular method of data collection (Brown, 2005; Jones, 2005; Linhart, 2005; Taillon, 2007; Lepp, 2007; Wearing, 2001). Reasons for this are numerous, such as; rich descriptive data, examples that are well illustrated and the ability to uncover the unexpected. McGehee (2007) adds that "the subject matter of tourism is one that many tourists are eager to discuss; they enjoy analysing or recounting their experiences" (p. 366).

Secondly, with interviewing, the aim is to allow themes to emerge from the narrative each participant shares (Bryman & Bell, 2007). As an interpretivist study, the interview method will allow the participants and researcher to develop the understandings together by means

of their subjective perspectives (Dwyer, Gill, & Seetaram, 2012; Faux, Walsh, & Deatrick, 1988; McGehee, 2012b). Stake (1995) eloquently explains "the interview is the main road to multiple realities" (p. 64).

Finally, many argue that young people are often marginalised in research. Using interviewing as a data collection method can be a useful tool for engaging and understanding their lives, experiences and issues. However, the term 'powerlessness' is often used when expressing concern over research involving youth (Heath, Brooks, Cleaver, & Ireland, 2009) and issues have been highlighted regarding the perceived higher status of adults (Faux et al., 1988). These issues can be addressed when interviews are undertaken ethically and respectfully. The process can provide an opportunity for youth to have an important voice in academic research regardless of discipline, perhaps more so than other methods available (Heath et al., 2009; Lucas, Spear, & Daniel, 1986; Mack, Giarelli, & Bernhardt, 2009).

3.3 Setting and participants

3.3.1 The case study unit of analysis (setting)

A unit of analysis sets the boundaries for a study (Calabrese, 2006; Rohlfing, 2012; Veal, 1992). This inquiry involved one school, seventeen students and five teachers who participated in volunteer and travel activities in October 2012. These are the components (temporal and substantive) of the Rangitoto College Cambodia house building trip. The selection of the unit of analysis was 'pragmatic' as the researcher had ready access to the case (Veal, 1992).

3.3.2 The school

Rangitoto College, located on the North Shore of Auckland, New Zealand was the school selected for this inquiry. The researcher had prior knowledge of the volunteer tourism experience as discussed above. Therefore background and historical information about the trip, the student culture at the school and relevant educational issues were known to the researcher before the research process began.

3.3.3 The participants

In 2012, the Rangitoto College Cambodia house building trip involved a total of 20 students. Students under the age of 16 were excluded from the study due to legal considerations and the possible vulnerability in an interview situation. In New Zealand, adolescents aged 16 and

over are given increased rights, associated with adulthood, and it was therefore deemed acceptable that they could participate in a face to face interview with an unfamiliar adult without potential risk. Within the group, one student was excluded due to their age, one student declined to be interviewed and one student was sick during the interviewing period. Consequently, a total of 17 students were interviewed before and after the trip.

While Rangitoto College is a co-educational school, all trip participants were female. Eleven of the participants were 16 years old, studying in Year 12. Six of the students were 17 years old and in their final year of secondary school. Just over half (10) of the students were born in New Zealand and of these, nine identified themselves as New Zealand European and one identified themselves as Maori. Seven students were born in other countries; two South Africans, one Korean, one Malay, one Sri Lankan, one English and one American.

In summary:

- All participants in the study were female.
- All were between the ages of 16 and 17.
- Ten students were born in New Zealand.
- One student identified themselves as Maori.
- Seven students were born overseas but all had lived in New Zealand for at least three years.

Five teachers accompanied the students to Cambodia and all participated in the study. Four of the teachers (two male and two female) participated in a focus group held after the trip to discuss their thoughts on student attitudes, experiences, behaviour and the possible effects of the trip. The tour leader and trip organiser (a female), was questioned separately in a semi structured interview after the trip. This separate interview was conducted because of her more extensive experience of the trip. Information about organisational matters and historical background was needed by the researcher for a background description.

3.3.4   The volunteer tourism setting

The Cambodia house building trip is the volunteer tourism 'case' in this case study. As described in the Introduction chapter, this trip is unique. It involves a very short period of volunteering in the host country (three days), compared to other secondary school trips which often volunteer for one week or more. Rangitoto students travel to Cambodia and build houses for one day in a poor rural village on the outskirts of Phnom Penh, the capital city. In addition, students carry out two days of volunteer work in two separate orphanages.

3.4 Data collection methods

3.4.1 Access and contact

Initial permission to undertake research within the school was gained via the school Principal, verbally and in writing, before contact with any members of the Cambodia house building group was made. The school was very supportive of the research and provided free access, including space for interviews and permission to attend relevant meetings. Interviews were held at the school for ethical reasons (refer to 3.4 Ethical Considerations for more detail). In addition, the researcher organised support from the Guidance Counselling department at the College. The department agreed to be available for anyone who needed support as a result of their participation in this study. This was a requirement of the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC).

To ensure efficient communication, contact with all students and teachers on the trip was made three months prior to the travel, during a full group meeting. Feedback was sought on the level of interest students had in participating in the research. Initial questioning suggested most would be happy to be involved. Therefore, the researcher used an information evening for parents to explain the research aims, interview methods and the level of commitment required by the participants. It was made very clear that students and parents were free to choose whether or not they participated in the research, no pressure or incentives were offered. Information sheets about the inquiry were distributed to everyone at the meeting (refer to Appendix 3 for Information Sheet). Students, parents and teachers were encouraged to ask questions to clarify information or seek further details. While no specific questions were asked, some parents indicated they would be interested to see the results of the study. These will be presented to the group in July 2013.

Parental consent is a very important prerequisite when obtaining qualitative data from youth (Faux et al., 1988) and is a compulsory requirement of the AUTEC. Parents, students (16 years and over) and teachers were given information sheets and consent forms and asked to consider being involved. Refer to Appendix 4 for Consent Forms. At the information evening, written permission was obtained from 18 students, relevant parents and all the teachers involved.

Six weeks before the trip students were contacted by email and mobile text messaging to organise an interview time that was suitable. Students were then contacted three days prior to

their interview to remind them of the time and location. Interview questions were emailed to allow them to familiarise themselves with the topics being discussed (refer to Appendix 5 for interview questions). Only some students took this opportunity to prepare for the interview. This was evident from student comments regarding an inability to look at the emailed questions due to time constraints and others who seemed surprised or somewhat unprepared for the questions. This situation was partly due to interviewing during Rangitoto College's school exam week.

A similar process was undertaken when contacting and arranging interview and focus group sessions with the teachers after the trip. Using email contact, teachers were asked to meet and were then forwarded the research questions three days prior to the focus group session. Refer to Appendix 7 for focus group questions.

Interview protocol: Researcher and participant relationship

Those in academic research who have interviewed adolescents (often in health related studies) have identified that a closer, more interpersonal and relaxed interview method produces better, more reliable data (Coupey, 1997; Faux et al., 1988). This is linked to the concept of trust, where adolescents need to feel comfortable to talk about their feelings (Heath et al., 2009; Lucas et al., 1986). Familiarisation with students was undertaken in the months prior to the trip by the attendance of the researcher at eight lunch time meetings held with the Cambodian house building group. These meetings were held by the lead teacher involved to brief and help prepare the students for the trip. During these meetings the researcher often engaged with individual students, enquiring about their fundraising efforts and discussing prior student trips and experiences. In doing so, students became familiar with the researcher and developed a degree of comfort and trust with her. Another benefit of establishing a rapport with the students was to reduce the perceived authority status that adults often obtain when in the interview process (Faux et al., 1988). The aim of the interviews was to collect as much accurate data as possible and this required students to be as honest as possible when answering the interview questions.

3.4.2   Primary data collection

Interview protocol: Interview questions

The researcher attempted to ask questions that were very broad in nature, as the study was inductive and exploratory. Open ended, general questions about overall motivations,

expectations, experiences and effects were asked with no specific reference to theory, models or hypotheses. However, the researcher was familiar with the case and an extensive literature review had been carried out. Therefore, some questions about parental support, friends on the trip and reference to particular effects were specifically asked to help gain more detailed insight into student motivations and experiences. Overall, the researcher endeavoured to ask general questions to allow themes to emerge rather than be constructed.

Developmental and maturation considerations were made in the formation of questions. Prior experience as a secondary school teacher gave the researcher adequate skills to target their questions at an appropriate level. Technical jargon was avoided, informal language was used and questions were repeated and clarified for those who were unsure what was being asked.

The interview questions were checked by the lead teacher, the research supervisor and another researcher familiar with working with young people. A pilot interview was conducted with a participant to ensure all questions made sense and were relevant to the research aims. A second teacher was present for this pilot interview and feedback was obtained. No changes to the interview questions were made. Refer to Appendices 5 and 6 for pre- and post-trip interview questions.

Interview protocol: Interview session

Prior to asking interview questions a short conversation about non-research related topics was carried out to help engage with students and build a relationship prior to the formal interview session. To decrease the potential of eliciting socially desirable responses, participants were reminded there were no correct or right answers to questions and it was their honest thoughts, opinions and observations that were being sought. They were also informed that the interview would be audio taped and that they would be asked to confirm the accuracy of the transcriptions at a later date. All students seemed comfortable with this. All interviews were audio taped and transcribed and these transcriptions were sent to participants to confirm their accuracy.

Interviews were conducted individually to enable students to freely express their ideas. Peer pressure is considered a significant part of adolescent life (Goossens, 2006; Kehily, 2007) and by removing peer influence more honest and open responses to the interview questions could be obtained. Teachers were considered less likely to be influenced by peers and time pressures in the work place meant that a focus group was more effective. The lead teacher was excluded here to avoid potential influence on the focus group and to reduce the likelihood of the

inexperienced teachers being influenced by their presence. In addition, more information was required from the lead teacher, therefore a separate one-on-one interview was deemed appropriate.

Pre-trip interviews with students

After the pilot interview, 16 other semi structured interviews were undertaken one month prior to the travel. No changes to the specific interview questions or overall structure resulted from the pilot interview. Consideration was given on the timing of the interview as students were in the process of carrying out school exams and finding a suitable time was often difficult. Research on effective interviewing of adolescents suggests rapport and power sharing are more important than temporal considerations (Mack et al., 2009). By beginning the interviews one month before departure students had a sense of anticipation but were not preoccupied with the last minute planning for the trip. The location of the interviews was in the school grounds. This was an ethical consideration for students, providing a safe, familiar and convenient space for students (more depth is provided in 3.5 Ethical considerations). The researcher endeavoured to make the interview process as straightforward and 'student friendly' as possible.

Questions were centred around the motivations students had for participating on the trip, the support they had from family, the aspects of the trip they were looking forward to and what they expected the trip to be like. A total of 17 questions were asked, however, most interviews were shorter than expected. The shortest interview was 13 minutes and the longest interview was 28 minutes. Most interviews were between 15 to 20 minutes in length. All interviews were audio recorded and later transcribed.

Post-trip interviews with students

Semi structured interviews were undertaken one month after the volunteer tourism trip and after a second pilot interview was undertaken. Interview times were again difficult to establish as students were undertaking their end of year qualification exams (National Certificate of Educational Achievement) during this time. However, this timing was deemed appropriate for two reasons. Firstly, the school summer holiday period is seven weeks long and as interviews were to be carried out in the school grounds and many students are on holiday with their families during this time, thus an extended time period (in excess of three months) may have resulted in students' recall and reflections being less immediate and accurate. Furthermore, seven students were finishing secondary school and would have been difficult to contact and

access post the summer holiday period. Secondly, by allowing students to have returned to their normal routine for one month, students could reflect on the effect this experience had in relation to their daily life.

The focus of this interview was based on expectations being met, experiences on the trip and effects of the trip. A total of 10 questions were asked (refer to Appendix 6). Students were reminded of the expectations they had discussed in the first interview and asked to comment on these. Interview lengths were longer, varying from 20 to 65 minutes, with most lasting between 30 and 45 minutes. In this interview students were asked to comment on their experiences using photos they had selected, a process known as photo elicitation. All interviews were audio recorded and later transcribed.

Photo elicitation

For this inquiry auto-driven photo-elicitation was incorporated. This involves interviewees being asked to select their own photos and to use them to answer questions or create a narrative (Banks, 2001; Harper, 2002; Schänzel & Smith, 2011). Participants were asked to share three photos they took during their trip that reflected the significance or highlights of the experience for them. In the post interview, students brought their chosen photos and they were asked to explain what the photo showed or represented and explain why this particular image was chosen. No other guidance or direction was given to participants regarding photo choice. Two students forgot their photos and did not answer this section. Three students felt uncomfortable being limited to three images and asked if they could talk about one or two others, which was permitted.

There were many reasons to select this method in the research process. Firstly, it is strongly aligned to the interpretive epistemology that argues that research is collaborative in nature and in the discussion knowledge is created (Banks, 2001; Jorgenson & Sullivan, 2010; Schänzel & Smith, 2011). In addition, Rakić and Chambers (2012) state "images, including photos, are subjectively created and later interpreted representations of a subjectively perceived reality in a particular moment in time" (p. 26). Therefore, within the interview discussion the researcher and participant create subjective meanings and understanding of the volunteer tourism trip that is captured at that moment in time.

Secondly, auto-driven photo-elicitation was incorporated to help encourage participants to open up and discuss their thoughts in a relaxed, informal way. Visual images are often more 'user friendly' for youth and can stimulate thoughts that words alone may not. Such a method

also personalises the interview, allowing students to be expressive and engage in self-projection and self-creation (Robinson & Picard, 2009). This technique also helps reduce the power imbalance between the researcher and the participant, allowing them autonomy over what they discuss when they can select their own photos (Heath et al., 2009; Jorgenson & Sullivan, 2010; Packard, 2008).

Finally, the use of tourist photography as a visual research technique is increasing in tourism research (Schänzel & Smith, 2011). Many researchers acknowledge the important role cameras play in capturing a tourism experience (Andersson-Cederholm, 2012; Rakić & Chambers (2012); Robinson & Picard, 2009; Wearing, 2001). Within volunteer tourism photography has also been identified as a way to convey a travel experience. For example, Root (2008) states "like good tourists, the mission trip becomes locked in our digital photos, organized and presented as a great experience" (p. 318).

Focus group with teachers

As part of an in-depth case study, gathering data from teachers in a focus group situation was considered important. It adds to the 'deep understanding' and 'thick description' required by this research method and was a component of the triangulation process. Triangulation is considered one of the most effective ways to ensure reliability and check for accuracy when working with qualitative data (Cousin, 2005).

One month after the trip, a focus group was carried out on the school grounds over a lunch time period with four teachers. Refer to Appendix 7 for focus group questions. All members of the group contributed and answered the semi structured questions about student expectations (level of preparedness), experiences and the effects of this trip. The session lasted 45 minutes and answers were recorded on audio tape and later transcribed. At the end of the session the teachers were given the option to check the focus group transcriptions if desired. No teacher took this opportunity. The researcher (a teacher herself) felt comfortable with this situation due to a greater degree in confidence that the interpretation was accurate.

Lead teacher interview

A one hour interview was undertaken with the lead teacher in charge of the trip (refer to Appendix 8 for interview questions). This interview was conducted during a visit to her home and recorded on audio tape and later transcribed. The questions were broken up into four distinct sections. Initial questioning was based around the history of the volunteer tourism trip

and reasons for her involvement. Then questions about student motivations, expectations, experiences and perceived effects were asked. While the overall nature of the interview was structured in terms of questioning, a mutual dialogue was undertaken with the teacher throughout the interview. As with the focus group, the lead teacher declined the offer of checking the transcription, stating that she trusted the researcher's ability to transcribe the interview accurately.

Research journal notes

Notes were taken by the researcher throughout the research period. This practice is recommended by many qualitative researchers (Cousin, 2005; Diaz-Andrade, 2009; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). In particular, thoughts were recorded directly after each student interview. These were concise, half page summaries of key ideas and feelings conveyed by the students as well as surprising or unique aspects of the interview. Impressions of student characteristics and other points of interest were also noted. These have been used in the data analysis and triangulation process.

3.4.3   Transcription

All interviews and focus groups were fully transcribed by the researcher. In doing so, a familiarity with the data was gained. Colloquial terms such as 'like' and 'dunno' were removed if used multiple times and when such terms were deemed to distract from the intent of the student answer. The transcriptions were produced as Microsoft Word documents and structured for use in NVivo software. In total, 34 student participant interviews, one teacher interview and one teacher focus group were transcribed. Once complete, these were cross checked by asking students to read the transcriptions and confirm their accuracy.

In addition, the researcher took the opportunity to elaborate further and clarify information using email contact with students three months after the post-trip interviews. Grbich (2007) supports this action, stating 'you should return several times to seek clarification of issues raised by your respondent or to further explore potential aspects which are becoming illuminated' (p. 88). In particular the researcher asked for more clarification about the experience of house building from students whose answers were particularly short in the interview. Students were also questioned about the effects they had previously identified if they considered these effects to still be present in their lives. No new information was gained regarding effects, with all students confirming they felt the same.

The benefit of this process is the small (but significant) level of empowerment associated with participants being able to check their answers to ensure they have been accurately represented in the research process. In addition, the researcher was able to clarify and check student answers from the interview.

3.5 Ethical considerations

Ethical behaviour when undertaking research involving people is of utmost importance. Veal (1992) has identified three main areas that guide research codes of ethics. These include; "no harm should befall the research participants, subjects should take part freely and subjects should take part on the basis of informed consent" (p. 71). Building on this, Hammersley and Traianou (2012) argue research design must be transparent and that there should be no conflicts of interest with the independence of the research being established. These ethical considerations are discussed in this section.

Harm

While the concept of harm is often associated with medical or biological research, it was critical that participants felt safe and secure during the research process. There were three main steps that were taken to ensure this. Firstly, the researcher attempted to become familiar with each participant prior to the interviews, which were conducted in the college grounds for their protection and safety. These factors helped ensure students were in relatively comfortable, well-known surroundings with a familiar adult.

Secondly, to further protect students, anonymity and confidentiality is important, especially in qualitative research when personal stories are being shared. Names of students and teachers have been replaced with pseudonyms, which have been used throughout the Findings and Discussion chapter, especially important when referring to specific individuals or using quotes from their transcribed interviews. This is intended to "protect research informants from stress, embarrassment or unwanted publicity" (Mills, 2003; p. 92).

Thirdly, while every effort was made to minimise the stress and workload associated with participating in the inquiry, this researcher acknowledges that it was a further commitment for students during a very important time in their educational attainments. Therefore the researcher specifically chose the school grounds as the interview locations to make the process as convenient and stress-free as possible. In addition, schools have systems in place to provide safe environments for students, for example, visitor sign-ins and building codes. This level of

safety would be difficult to provide in an off-site location or if intruding on the student's home environment.

Freedom

Participants were asked to participate in the research but were in no way coerced or forced to consent to their involvement. During both interviews students were reminded that they could leave the interview at any time, and that their ideas would not be used if they felt uncomfortable or unhappy to carry on. In addition, interviews were conducted individually to ensure students felt free to express their ideas as honestly as possible.

Informed consent

The importance of the word 'informed' in the term informed consent is imperative. The ability to access full and accurate information prior to the interviews is considered paramount by many researchers (Hammersley & Traianou, 2012; Mills, 2003; Veal, 1992). By attending the Cambodia house building trip parents meeting, discussing the research fully and allowing questions to be asked, verbal communication of information was disseminated for all participants. Information sheets accompanied the permission slips, with research aims, guidelines, contact details, etc (refer to Appendix 3).

Transparency

Making sure that the research was transparent to all those involved was a key goal for the researcher. This was achieved by emailing interview questions prior to the interviews, explaining the research questions and aims to the participants and allowing them to see their transcriptions and make modifications or comments to ensure their thoughts were clearly represented. Being open and clearly articulating the relationship the researcher has with the case study is also linked to this concept.

Auto-driven photo elicitation

When using images to create meaning and convey knowledge, many have identified the risk of using and publishing photographs of subjects as an ethical dilemma of research (Banks, 2001; Hammersley & Traianou, 2012; Robinson & Picard, 2009). Hammersley and Traianou (2012) state "we should not carry out research on people, but only with them – in a way they are able to exercise control over the decisions involved in the research process" (p. 67). Here, visual methods have helped students control how they present their experiences to the researcher. No images with identifiable people have been presented in this thesis and permission was

obtained to use other imagery from specific students whose photos were selected. In terms of influencing student experience, the use of photography was considered appropriate because it is a natural part of what it is to be a tourist (McGehee, 2012b).

AUT Ethical Approval

This study was independently reviewed by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC). This is an Institutional Ethics Committee which is accredited by the Health Research Council of New Zealand. In seeking approval, the researcher considered a wide range of ethical issues, especially in regards to working with young people, and sought to address these to ensure this inquiry was possible. Approval was given by AUTEC on the 27th July 2012, AUTEC Reference number 12/171 (refer to Appendix 11). As part of this application, all students, parents and teachers were required to sign a AUTEC approved consent form (refer to Appendix 4) and were given a research information sheet (refer to Appendix 3).

3.6   Data analysis methods

3.6.1   Thematic analysis

The primary data collected from interviews, focus groups and photo elicitation were used during the thematic analysis. Daly, Kellehear and Gliksman (1997) describe this method as "a search for themes that emerge as being important to the description of the phenomenon" (p. 3). In this case study, themes emerged on the motivations, expectations and experiences of the participants on the Cambodia house building trip. Many researchers have used thematic analysis due to its flexibility and potential to provide rich, detailed and complex accounts of data (Boyatzis, 1998; Braun & Clarke, 2006; Diaz Andrade, 2009). Thematic analysis is essentially a process of grouping and coding similar ideas conveyed by participants. In doing so, it provides a more manageable state in which to capture the "qualitative richness of the phenomenon" (Boyatzis, 1998: p. 1).

NVivo

NVivo is an effective Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis (CAQDAS) programme used in qualitative data analysis to help manage and analyse large documents (Bazeley, 2007; Bryman & Bell, 2007). In addition, NVivo can help researchers to "form and test theoretical assumptions about the data" (Veal, 2006: p. 214). It is a popular programme for the analysis of interview transcripts. However, there are concerns highlighted by Bazeley (2007) who warns

that "computers can distance researchers from their data and dominance of codes can exclude other analytic activities" (p. 8). Bryman and Bell (2007) also point out that coded text can become quantified and that coding small chunks can mean the narrative flow of interview transcripts may be lost, causing data de-contextualisation. It is for these reasons that NVivo was used in a limited capacity for this inquiry.

Stage one: Getting familiar with the data

Initially, after the first interview, each transcript was read holistically. This allowed the researcher to become familiar with the individual participant data (Strauss, 1987). Next student answers linked to motivations and then expectations were reviewed again separately. After the two readings key ideas began to emerge. These were recorded by the researcher in a table in order to identify both commonalities and unique ideas from the transcripts. A similar process occurred after the second interview and an overall 'initial' summary table of data was compiled of student responses. In addition to identifying the ideas and viewpoints, the frequency of students that referred to these ideas was also recorded (e.g. 8 students referred to either family or friends encouraging them to apply for the trip). Later in the analysis process, these tables were useful in helping to create code hierarchy (Gibbs, 2007).

Stage two: Initial coding

Coding is about building knowledge with data and is an important tool that can provide a framework in which themes emerge (Bazeley, 2007; Bryman & Bell, 2007; Gibbs, 2007). Once each individual transcript had been repeatedly read an understanding of ideas, viewpoints, values and beliefs emerged. These emerging understandings were the basis for initial codes created under the typography of motivations, expectations (pre and post-trip), experiences and effects. These codes were linked to the framework of the summary table. The transcripts were then re-read again, this time looking at responses with the codes in mind. Some new codes not found in the summary table emerged and data not directly linked to the research questions but still of interest were recorded.

Using Strauss' (1987) terminology, the first codes to be created were 'in vivo' codes (also known as descriptive codes) which came from the wording used by the students. For example, terms such as 'helping people', 'opportunity' and 'first world problems' were used as initial codes. In time, 'in vitro coding' (also known as analytic codes) emerged, where codes are created from implied ideas rather than stated. Strauss (1987) highlights their importance as "they add scope by going beyond local meanings to broader social science concerns" (p. 33).

An example of this was students discussing the importance of talking with locals such as street kids whereby the in vitro code of 'making connections' was established. Coding continued until 'theoretical saturation' whereby continual re-reading revealed little new insight or content (Strauss, 1987).

In addition, NVivo was used in this stage of analysis as an electronic storage system for the raw data analysis. Nodes were created from codes developed manually by the researcher. This process involved broad-brush coding (also known as bucket coding), whereby 'chunks of data' (i.e. pieces of the transcripts) are placed into broad topic areas (Bezeley, 2007). In the process of using NVivo, participant transcripts were read again. Codes selected in this stage were re-checked and no new coding emerged during this process. This helped to confirm thematic saturation and the researcher began stage three analyses.

Stage three: Establishing categories and merging themes

Categories emerge from coding and have particular properties or concepts (Alvesson & Skoldberg, 2000; Strauss, 1987). These are the codes that comprise of core themes, have a more significant meaning, or have been created by merging themes together. Further typographies were adopted and multi-dimensional categories were created. Codes were reflected on, linked, compared and connected. For example codes based around changes in attitudes at home (e.g. 'grateful, 'nicer' and 'more helpful') were merged into a category labelled 'family relationships' and in turn, similar categories were further combined into the category of 'interpersonal changes'.

Stage four: Concept mapping

During this stage the categories were placed together in a large A3 concept map to help visualise the key ideas from the initial thematic analysis. Refer to Appendix 9 for an example. Concept maps are a common tool widely used in academic research to organise and present knowledge (Bolin, 2006; Novak, 1991). They are particularly useful for looking at relational patterns between concepts (All & Huycke, 2007; Davies, 2011). Concepts (i.e. categories) were rearranged and reconstructed until finalised concept maps that effectively conveyed data meanings were developed for each research question. These maps were used as the basis for summary diagrams presented in the Findings and Analysis chapter.

As part of the positioning of categories in the concept maps, code hierarchy emerged and emphasis was placed on themes that were most dominant in the data. One final analytical step

involved the data being categorised into over arching typographies such as internal, external, intrapersonal, interpersonal, emotions, etc. Aneshensel (2002) states "data analysis can be thought of as the systematic arrangement of information into meaningful patterns" (p. 2). The use of concept mapping in thematic analysis was successful in allowing such patterns and over-arching themes to emerge.

Stage five: Double checking the results

In this final stage the researcher revisited the data to check the accuracy of the summary diagrams created from the concept maps, for each research question. NVivo was used for this process as it can increase the transparency of the analysis process when conducting qualitative data analysis (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Every research question became a new NVivo project and the headings from the diagrams and concept maps were used to form nodes. Each transcript was re-coded using the finalised nodes. From this process the researcher gained increased confidence in their interpretations as very few categories needed modification. Some minor alterations did occur. For example, in the motivations diagram 'volunteerism' was altered to 'charity work' which more accurately incorporated student answers. In the expectations summary diagram (refer to Figure 6) the theme 'gaining a sense of achievement' was added. Therefore, stage five was a valuable, important checking process that helped improve the validity of the researcher's findings.

3.6.2 Triangulation

Triangulation is a design strategy that is used to establish validity in research by looking at the same issue from different perspectives and in turn increasing the validity of the findings (Calabrese, 2006; Hesse-Biber & Nagy, 2010; Veal, 1992). By combining, comparing and cross checking the themes that emerge from the student interviews with the teacher's narratives a clear picture of the research questions can emerge. Webb, Campbell, Schwartz and Sechrest (1966) conclude that "once a proposition has been confirmed by two or more measurement processes, the uncertainty of its interpretation is greatly reduced" (p. 3). In this case four measurement processes were used. These are presented in Figure 4 on the following page.
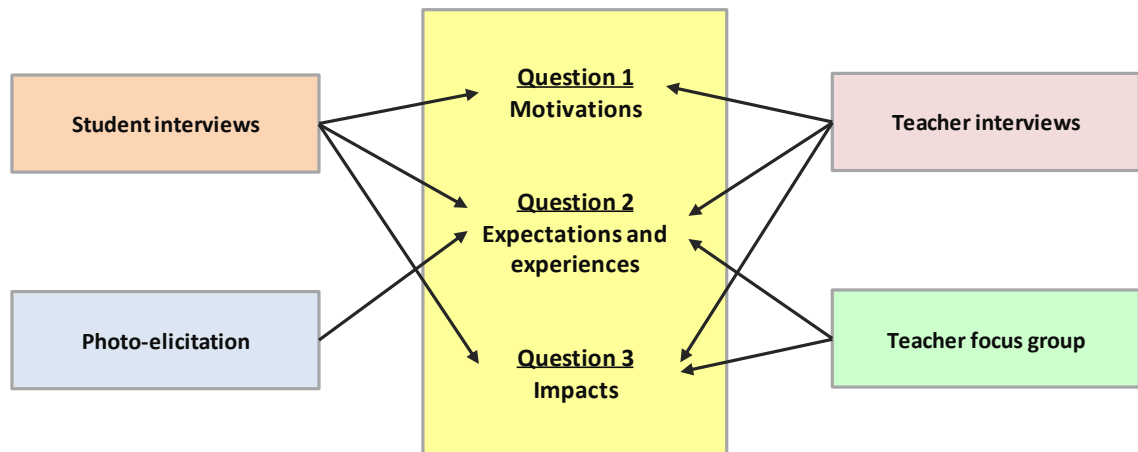
Figure 4: Triangulation process for this inquiry

3.7 Evaluation and trustworthiness

A range of evaluation criteria and theory were considered for this inquiry. The accuracy of the researcher's interpretation and the ability for the research to be replicated in the future are of utmost importance. Lincoln and Guba (1985) developed a series of criteria in which trustworthiness can be established. These have been adopted for this inquiry as they are commonly used or referred to in scholarly publications (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Heppner & Heppner, 2004; Mills, 2003).

Credibility

To ensure the findings of the researcher are logical and the complexities of the research have been addressed, a range of strategies were adopted. Firstly, close communication with the research supervisor was undertaken for the duration of the inquiry. This supervisor, an experienced researcher, checked interview protocol, transcriptions, concept mapping and helped ensure the researcher 'remained true to the data' and 'let the data speak'. Secondly, referential adequacy was provided through the use of audio tapes, which ensured accurate interview transcripts and could be referred back to during the analysis stage. Thirdly, the researcher engaged in reflexivity throughout the research process (refer to the 3.8 Limitations section for more detail). Finally, all student participants were sent a copy of their transcription and asked to read and confirm the accuracy. Three student participants emailed back changes of a grammatical nature and all emailed a confirmation that their ideas had been conveyed accurately.

Transferability

Lincoln and Guba (1985) argue the nature of transferability in an interpretivist study can be difficult to achieve. By its very definition "the study is localised, unique, and as relativism suggests, multiple, intangible and constructed" (p. 316). The researcher acknowledges the importance of further studies (both qualitative and quantitative) to increase understanding and develop theory in regards to volunteer tourism and secondary school students. Only once other studies are undertaken can the relevance and transferability of this study be better understood and assessed. However, attempts have been made to provide 'thick description' of the research design used in this inquiry. This will enable other interested parties to replicate the research in another case study context or setting. The methods adopted for this inquiry have been widely used and standard qualitative analysis has been undertaken.

Dependability

Dependability is linked to the stability of data (Mills, 2003) and strategies were adopted to create dependability in the results. Firstly, data analysis was double checked in the final stage of the thematic analysis process. Secondly, triangulation was undertaken to help ensure accuracy and validity of the data obtained and analysis of these. Thirdly, the researcher engaged in reflexivity to help reduce bias and improve the dependability of the findings and discussion. Finally, as recommended by Lincoln and Guba (1985), an inquiry audit was undertaken by the research supervisor and an experienced research colleague. Their role was to examine the process and the product of the inquiry and in doing so "the auditor attests to the dependability of the inquiry" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; p. 318). Feedback and confirmation around the accuracy of the findings was provided in this process.

Confirmability

Triangulation and keeping a reflexive journal are two methods recommend by Lincoln and Guba (1985) to help aid 'confirmability'. Triangulation involved a wide range of sources including student narrative, photo interpretation and teacher reflection. A detailed journal was used to contain thoughts and ideas associated with all aspects of the research. This included the pilot interviews, individual interview sessions, teacher comments, meeting information and details provided by students not recorded during the interview session. Also, the raw data were available as both audio files and Word document transcriptions. In addition, NVivo provided a digital format for the coded transcripts and could be referred to by others in the future if ethical criteria around confidentiality and anonymity were met.

3.8   Limitations and measures

All research undertaken is subject to some limitations (Duhme, 2012). Diaz Andrade (2009) believes "researchers adopting a case study design face a number of challenges in making their argument" (p. 42). The following are some of the more fundamental issues that have arisen during this inquiry and measures taken to lessen their impact on research trustworthiness.

Potential bias and reflexivity

It is well understood that assumptions and biases of researchers are some of the most significant limitations of a qualitative study (Heppner & Heppner, 2004; Smith, 2010; Yin, 2003). The researcher was acutely aware of the risk that their prior personal experience of the Cambodia house building trip had for a bias to influence the study. In particular, the researcher was a co-founder of the trip in 2006 and therefore has an emotional attachment. In addition, prior experience has led to a view that the experience has a positive influence on participants. Thus, the researcher has a bias associated with her enthusiasm for the trip and an emotional and intellectual link with the experience which is shaped by her historical involvement.

This situation is identified by many academics who write on qualitative research methods. Many case study projects are undertaken by those who already have prior knowledge of a case and context (Hammond & Wellington, 2013; Smith, 2010). Heppner and Heppner (2004), advise not to "push away your thoughts" (p. 136) and instead use these as part of the reflection process. Rather than avoiding the researcher's experience, epistemic reflexivity was adopted throughout the inquiry to be used as 'knowledge was created'. This strategy involves the researcher thinking deeply about the "implications of their methods, values, bias and decisions from the known of the social world they generate" (Bryman & Bell, 2007; p. 712). This means exploring and monitoring the research experience and the reactions and perceptions that emerge as the data unfolds, especially in regards to the emotional responses to values based or emotions-based data. Checking for these responses, identifying researcher pre-conceptions and challenging them have all been part of the reflexivity process.

Gibbs (2007) suggests showing the complexity of the data and discussing cases that fall outside general patterns. This was done via concept mapping and sharing some of the participant's unique narratives within the Findings and Analysis chapter. In addition power relations have been discussed and the researcher was open about their connection to the case study. The researcher's understandings may be considered a valuable part of the data analysis and can be incorporated into the triangulation process. Smith (2010) argues "personal interpretation is

unavoidable and can provide insights that go far beyond what simple empirical analysis can offer" (p. 199). Finally, some researchers believe that objectivity is never obtainable, regardless of who is conducting the research. For example Aneshensel (2002) who states "what one sees in a set of data is what one expects to see" (p. 17).

Adolescent trustworthiness and interview protocol

Many researchers acknowledge there are limitations when using interviewing techniques to gain data (Coupey, 1997; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Lucas et al., 1986). This is especially true when the power differential is taken into account, with an unequal relationship between the interviewer and interviewee (McGehee, 2012b). When the research focus involves the dependency on honesty in adolescents one could ask; can teenagers be trusted? (McGehee, 2012b; Lucas et al., 1986). For this inquiry, all endeavours were made to create a relaxed, comfortable environment whereby participants felt at ease enough to be completely honest. Upon reflection, the researcher's prior experience of the trip and their role as an ex teacher meant no strategies could ensure all students felt free to be completely honest at all times. However, following the interview guidelines (refer to Appendix 10) reduced the impact of power differentials. The use of direct quotes in the Findings and Analysis chapter means students are given a voice which may also help to reduce the inequity and increase data accuracy.

In addition, many of the student interviews occurred before or after a school exam. This means students may have been either fatigued or apprehensive. While no overt behaviour was recorded to support this assumption, prior experience as a teacher suggests students would be impacted by this environment. This may have led to some of interviews being shorter than others or impacted on the answers participants gave. However, it was the students' own decision to organise interview sessions for their exam days, to avoid returning to the school especially for an interview.

Thematic analysis and interpretivism

There are critics who argue that the process of thematic analysis involves losing the meaning of data by "plucking chunks of text out of the context within which they appeared" (Bryman & Bell, 2007: p. 597). In breaking down an interview transcription there is a risk that the accuracy in the interpretation can be lost. In addition, as an interpretative researcher, analysing one particular question without a situational context or narrative flow may limit the validity of the themes and the ability to create meaningful relationships between the coded data. To address

this concern, numerous readings of the entire transcription were undertaken initially and comments from the field notes were referred to when completing analysis.

Gibbs (2007) raises another concern when working with student transcripts; that the researcher may fail to recognise that "qualitative data are multi-layered and may be interpreted in different, but equally plausible ways" (p. 143). Because this is fundamentally the very nature of interpretivism the researcher does not consider this a limitation. However, there were steps and checks in place (explained above) to ensure others interpreted the data in similar ways.

3.9 Summary

This chapter has outlined the research design and rationale behind the qualitative exploratory case study of the Rangitoto College Cambodia house building trip. Due to the limited academic literature on volunteer tourism for secondary school students, semi-structured interviews, auto-driven photo elicitation, lead teacher interview and a teacher focus group were used to collect qualitative data for this inductive inquiry. The purpose of this chapter was to describe in detail the research steps undertaken and to help place the research into a context that allows the reader to fully understand the following Findings and Discussion chapters.

Chapter 4: Findings and Analysis

"Creating the space"

"I didn't expect the people we were building the house for to help as well. It was like 'oh hello' and really nice. I didn't expect the houses to be so close together, people didn't seem to stay with the houses, they stayed together… but that might have just been because we were there. It was a proper community." – Rachael

4.1   Introduction

This chapter presents the final synthesis of data obtained from the interviews, focus groups and photographs used as data gathering instruments in this case study inquiry. Examples of data are provided along with the presentation of results from the thematic analysis in order to address the research questions. These themes and data are drawn from 12 hours of interview recordings, 200 pages of interview transcriptions and the researcher's journal notes. This chapter initially presents an overview of the participants and then explores each of the three research questions.

The following are findings directly related to the three main research questions. As this study involves a single case, the answers provided pertain to this case only. The findings for each

research question are conveyed using a range of techniques. Firstly, interview data relevant to each research question are summarised in tables. A detailed description and explanation of the research question is provided, supported with appropriate examples of student and teacher narrative (both specific and/or representative) that develop and elaborate on the research question answer. Finally, summary diagrams based on data analysis are provided, with the aim of conveying an overview of the key themes that have emerged in the question and the relative importance of each in regards to student responses.

4.2 The participants

A total of 17 students and five teachers provided data for this case study. Table 1 identifies all the participants, both students and teachers, using pseudonyms. Common European names have been purposefully selected to avoid being linked to any meaning or characteristics of any participant. In addition, information in Table 1 has been provided in a way that maintains student and teacher anonymity, as required by the AUT Research Ethics Committee. Because differences in student's year levels and place of birth are potentially important influential variables, these have been provided for future reference throughout the chapter.

Table 1: Student and teacher participant details (in alphabetical order)

Student	Year Level	Place of birth
Amanda	Year 12	Outside of New Zealand
Angela	Year 12	Outside of New Zealand
Catherine	Year 12	Outside of New Zealand
Claire	Year 13	New Zealand
Fiona	Year 12	New Zealand
Jane	Year 13	Outside of New Zealand
Jasmine	Year 12	New Zealand
Jenna	Year 12	New Zealand
Joanna	Year 12	New Zealand
Judith	Year 13	Outside of New Zealand
Katy	Year 13	New Zealand
Leith	Year 12	Outside of New Zealand
Rachael	Year 12	New Zealand
Shona	Year 13	New Zealand
Sophia	Year 12	New Zealand
Sue	Year 12	New Zealand
Tania	Year 13	Outside of New Zealand

Teacher	Gender	Place of birth
Ms Black	Female teacher	Outside of New Zealand
Ms Brown	Female teacher	New Zealand
Mr Cook	Male teacher	New Zealand
Mr Jones	Male teacher	New Zealand
Ms Smith	Female teacher	Outside of New Zealand

The students were all female between the ages of 16 and 17 years and currently studying at a senior level at Rangitoto College in Auckland, New Zealand. The following description aims to give a more general understanding of these students, beyond their gender, place of birth and biological age. These are based on 'impressions' the researcher formed during the data collection using research journal notes and other sources.

Culturally the group was diverse and representative of the multicultural community in which they reside. Although half of the group was New Zealand European, seven students were born outside of New Zealand; in Asia, Europe, Africa and North America. Four of these students had witnessed some level of poverty in their home countries. One New Zealand born student had lived in a developing country for three years. Three students had non English speaking backgrounds (ESOL) with one student occasionally finding language a barrier when answering the interview questions, as reflected in the researcher's journal *"I felt she had more to say but didn't know how to say it".*

Personality traits and characteristics were observed during the interview sessions and trip meetings. There were several differences and similarities within the group. One similar characteristic was the polite, well-mannered and positive nature of every participant. Every member of the group was willing to share their views, happy to answer questions and seemed to enjoy the opportunity to talk about their experiences. Another similarity was the confidence the students showed when answering the questions. Adjectives used in the researcher's journal include; '*vibrant*', '*expressive*', '*eloquent*' and *'highly reflective'*. Generally, students were very reliable; for example they attended meetings when scheduled and remembered to bring photos to the post-trip interview. Only two students needed repeated communication and rescheduling to enable a post-trip interview to occur.

The researcher observed differences between the Year 12 and Year 13 students with the latter tending to have longer interview times. The five longest interviews were all Year 13 students

and the three most concise were Year 12. In addition, the Year 13 students were generally more reflective and philosophical. An example of this is Judith who, when asked why she wanted to do more volunteer tourism, stated:

> "*I think it was Mohammed Ali who said that kindness is the rent that we pay for our lives here on Earth. I fully agree with that view, which is why I want to continue to volunteer and help people who not only need but deserve our help*".

These types of comments were identified as less frequent in Year 12 interview transcripts by the researcher.

While data on the socio-economic background of participants was not directly collected, Rangitoto College has a decile 10 rating within the New Zealand school system. This suggests participants live in a relatively wealthy socio-economic community with strong education attainment and employment opportunities (Ministry of Education, 2011). During the interviews, two students alluded to some sort of financial constraints. However, in both cases their parents paid for all or half of the trip. More than half the students had parents that paid for all trip expenses (NZ$3700 plus spending money).

Religious affiliations were not specifically requested by the researcher, with the aim of having this theme emerge from the participants themselves. Only two students expressed religious beliefs during the interviews and felt that their role as a 'follower' meant helping those in need. Ms Brown's prior experience of past trips led to her observing that "*some are religious but it's not an overriding factor. There tends to be a couple that are religious but not overtly*". Rangitoto College is a secular co-educational school and there is no specific reference to religion within the school charter.

The five teacher participants were diverse in terms of trip experience and demographics (age, ethnicity and gender). Two of the teachers (including the lead teacher) had extensive prior knowledge of the Cambodia house building trip. The other three teachers had never been to Cambodia and two had never travelled to a developing country. Teaching experience was wide ranging from 30 years to two years. All teachers expressed a positive attitude in regards to the trip, for themselves and the students. They generally collaborated during questioning, no contradictions were recorded and they often supported and agreed with other focus group member comments. No attitudinal patterns in relation to gender, age or experience emerged during the focus group session. The lead teacher, who organised the trip, shared more information with the researcher during her separate interview.

4.3 Q.1 Why did students at Rangitoto College participate in the 2012 volunteer tourism trip to Cambodia?

The researcher used data from pre-trip interviews and the lead teacher interview to understand why the students wanted to participate in this volunteer tourism trip. The findings for this question were derived from three different areas. Firstly, **explicitly stated motivations** were given directly when answering a question on why students had applied for the trip. Secondly, due to the nature of semi structured interviews, student responses often suggested or **implied motivating factors** in other areas of the pre-trip interview. Finally, the researcher found **commonalities between participants** which suggested a pattern or trend that influenced student decision making. These three areas of data are presented in separate sections and have then been synthesised with the analytical concept maps (refer to Appendix 9) and presented as a proposed motivational model (derived from this case study).

4.3.1 Explicitly stated motivations

In the pre-trip interviews, students were explicitly asked to discuss the reasons they had applied for the trip. The results are presented in Table 2 below:

Table 2: Reasons given for why students applied for the Cambodia house building trip, 2012

Reasons for applying for trip	Number of participants
Wanting to help people in need *	14
Wanting to experience something new and different **	10
Friend and family encouragements	10
Opportunity and safety aspects of a school trip ***	5
Wanting to travel	5
Wanting personal development	4

Source: Student pre-trip interviews Q2

*   This includes comments related to 'seeing the faces' of those they helped.
** This includes comments linked to curiosity and knowledge.
***This includes comments linked to getting involved in a school based activity.

Three dominant motivational factors emerged from the question. These are: student's desire to help people in need, to experience something new and having friends and family that encouraged them. These will be discussed in detail and linked to less common factors also found in Table 2.

Wanting to help people in need - Altruism

Fourteen (out of 17) students expressed their desire to help those less fortunate when asked why they applied for the Cambodia trip. It was the most common answer, often stated before any other reason and conveyed in a way that reflected enthusiasm and excitement. Nine students expressed a desire to "*see the faces*" of those they would help when house building and volunteering at the orphanage. Refer to Appendix 12a for a table of student quote examples. Some students expressed feelings of guilt (2 out of 17), their sense of duty and responsibility (2) and acknowledged their own privileged position (3) as reasons for their altruistic desires. For example Amanda said:

> *"I've always wanted to go to a country that needed help. I want to go because I felt I was given every opportunity, like education and, you know, a house to live in, and I just wanted to share a bit with the others. I dunno, I feel bad for those people who are the same age as me who don't have any education. I can't imagine myself not getting an education at school; I just felt I needed to help".*

Students with some prior experience of poverty were particularly heartfelt about making a difference, such as Tania who said:

> *"My wanting to help I think just comes from living in a country where lots of the population are living in poverty and just always seeing how fortunate I was made me feel guilty and so to try and get rid of the guilt I feel that I need to make a difference in someone else's life… I think our duty as people is to find it in our hearts to help someone else".*

These comments represent the feeling of many students, illustrating values of social justice and a desire to make a difference in people's lives. Four students expressed their interest in helping people in a future career, such as Angela who said "*I want to go to the orphanage and help out the kids, because that's something that I will do when I'm older".* Teachers also commented that students applied for the trip to help people and out of a sense of duty. However, Ms Brown also added *"Some are looking for something that will add meaning to*

their lives and some are looking for inspiration". This suggests that students on past trips may have been looking for direction or ideas in regards to decisions about their future.

The unique experience – something special

Another common theme to emerge was the desire for a new, interesting and different type of experience. Eleven students stated this trip was a good opportunity. When asked to elaborate further most students used adjectives to describe the trip such as 'amazing, really interesting or something new' rather than directly explaining why. However, three students referred to seeing a new culture and two students referred to doing something they had never done before. One aspect that emerged as part of the unique experience was the importance that students placed on doing something special. While not explicitly stated, Judith alludes to this when she says:

> "*whenever I tell people I'm going to Cambodia to build houses, and they say 'what, that's so weird', I think that will be so rewarding, I did it and people thought it was impossible and I proved them wrong".*

Another student, Rachael said the most rewarding part of the trip would be sharing her experiences with friends and family, which suggests she sees the trip as unique, special and worthy of attention or even admiration.

Linked to this theme was the specific desire to travel to a new country. Five students identified this as a reason why they applied for the trip. Of these students, four revealed that their prior travel experiences had created a desire to continue to travel in the future.

In addition, four students expressed their curiosity about doing both volunteer work and experiencing the culture of a new country. Sophia stated:

> "*I feel like teenagers in NZ are kind of sheltered, I'm one of those people who always watches the news, looks forward to 60 Minutes and history is my favourite subject, so I have learnt all about the Cambodia stuff. I'd like to experience it first hand and help them along the way. I'm curious about the whole thing".*

While not explicitly stated, Sophia implies that this trip will be an educating and enlightening experience.

It is interesting to note that while many students were looking for a new, different and unique experience, or as one student put it *"an adventure",* five students acknowledged that it was the safe and secure environment of school that encouraged them to take such an opportunity. This school-based volunteer tourism experience offers young people the chance to visit a relatively 'intrepid' destination and undertake aid work (traditionally seen as an adult only experience) but within a safe, organised, supported and well established school excursion. It may seem to be risky from the outside, but they know it is not.

Friend and family support

A total of 10 students identified friends (7) and family (3) that had directly spoken to them and encouraged them to apply for the volunteer tourism trip. Two students had older siblings that had previously been on the school trip and one student had a family friend who had been to Cambodia and recommended it. When questioned further, students said they had been given details about what the trip involved which, while not explicitly stated, contributed to a curiosity and/or enthusiasm that motivated students to apply. A typical answer was Jasmine's who said *"my friend encouraged me a lot. She said she had a great time and she said it was an awesome experience".* For more examples of students being encouraged by others, refer to Appendix 12b.

Personal development and growth

Personal development was not a common reason when directly questioned about travel motivations. Four students made specific reference of a desire for personal development and/or change from a trip of this nature. Most often it was linked to having a new perspective on life or appreciating things more. An example is Katy who said:

> *"A main reason is getting my perspective on life different, because we will be helping people but that is kind of limited. The main thing that is probably going to change is my perspective on life, seeing them and then coming back here. That will be life changing, forever realising what I have and what people don't have".*

4.3.2 Suggested or implied motivations:

Many influential factors were discussed by students and interpreted by the researcher as motivational, even though their narrative was not directly related to a motivation question. These include conversation about family support, classroom learning and the influence of mass media.

Family support

Family behaviour was identified by many students as influential and may have led to an increase in desire to, as well as ability to, actually participate in the trip for some students.

Seven students had families that paid for the entire trip, for some this included their spending money. Another seven students had reached an agreement with their parents to pay half. For example Judith who said *"I didn't want them to pay for all of it… what's the point of going? [laughs] but I was glad they could pay for half as it made it so much easier for me"*. While no students paid for the trip entirely themselves, one had only a small amount of financial support (NZ$500) from their parents. Teachers on the trip all felt that most of the families involved were relatively wealthy such as Mr Jones who said "*the kids are pretty well off*".

Another influencing factor is linked to the role modelling behaviour found in family life. Six students identified themselves as belonging to a family unit that often engaged in altruistic charity work. Examples include one student whose father cycled through Cambodia with Oxfam to raise money for poverty alleviation and another student's family who often spent Christmas morning at the City Mission (note: to maintain complete anonymity, no names have been used in this section). Other students had parents whose work is based around helping others. For example *"my mum is a counsellor for Lifeline and she told me that lots of people need help whether it's poverty or something personal. So anything helps"* and *"my Dad's been a volunteer community patrol guy for ages which makes me feel like I should be helping in some sort of way"*. This positive role modelling influenced students to want to help others in a similar way. Only two participants described their families as doing no charity work. For those whose families did only a little, their church, the media or school was often identified instead, encouraging them to help others in need.

School related experiences

As discussed in the Introduction chapter, due to the historical nature of the trip, it has now become 'institutionalised' into the school culture. Within the college numerous teachers have participated in the trip, school functions often have fundraising for Cambodia house building (including assembly talks) and it is a topic taught in all Year 10 Social Studies classes and for the Year 12 Sociology social action assessment. Seven students referred to either their classes or teacher when discussing their interest in this trip. Four students specifically referred to their teacher's encouragement as a contributing factor to their decision to apply. Others referred to learning at school, such as Fiona who said "*it opens you up to the world and influences me on*

how I view problems and can spark me to make a difference". Joanna took inspiration from her Year 12 Sociology social action assessment, saying *"it taught me that even reaching out to one person, or in Cambodia eight families, will make such a difference to those people"*.

One theme that didn't emerge in the students interviews, but was suggested by Ms Brown, was the benefits gained from having a trip of this nature on their school testimonials. Only one student, Catherine, who was born overseas, mentioned *"and it will be good for my CV"* after discussing other motivational factors.

The media

Four students specifically stated that the media was responsible for developing an interest and/or curiosity in helping the poor. Fiona said "*I think in this day and age a lot of what we see and do is because of media, this has definitely influenced me majorly"*. Sophia talked about television documentary shows such as 60 Minutes and 20/20 inspiring her to want to visit interesting places and two students, Leith and Katy, specifically referred to World Vision (a global NGO working to address poverty) advertisements and their desire to see whether this was the reality for those living in the developing world.

4.3.3   Commonalities and trends

Some themes emerged that have been interpreted by the researcher as being meaningful, as opposed to students themselves explicitly identifying these factors as important.

Prior experiences

Firstly, when asked about previous charity work experiences, 14 students had been involved in some form of altruistic activity (volunteerism or charity work) before the trip. Common examples include collecting for the Red Cross, writing letters for Amnesty International and participating in the 40hour famine with World Vision (a comprehensive list of activities students had engaged in can be found in Appendix 13). Only two students expressed no prior charity work experiences. This highlights two important characteristics of the students. Firstly, the empathetic nature of many participants and secondly, many would have prior experience of the emotional benefits often associated with altruism, i.e. feeling good. Five students referred to feeling good about helping others, such as Fiona who said *"it feels good to help out and get involved"*.

Secondly, all students had prior travel experience, some extensive. Eight students had lived in another country such as South Africa, Samoa, Sri Lanka and Malaysia and most had travelled to a Pacific Island and/or Australia. When asked if they had done a trip like this before, all students replied no. However, some had visited rural villages in Fiji and Samoa, one had been to a poor area of Beijing and others had seen poverty in their home countries. These travel experiences may have given students the confidence to travel to a more unusual destination, more so than if they had no experience.

4.3.4   Summary

A wide range of motivational factors contributed to students participating on the Rangitoto College house building trip and these are presented in Figure 5 on the following page. As part of the data analysis, these factors have been categorised into internal and external areas of a student's life. Internal motivations are considered to be factors that involve a desire for something and are often internalised. They are personal and based on feelings, thoughts and values unique to each individual. They were the most common motivational factors explicitly stated by students. External motivations are factors outside the student's mind that have influenced their desires (through learning, socialisation, support, encouragement, etc.). Many of these motivations were not directly identified by the students, but discussed and implied throughout the first interview. Overall, the teachers were impressed at the level of motivation and commitment students showed prior to the trip. For example, Mr Cook who said *"there was always hands up for volunteers even when they had to get up at ridiculous hours, there would be half a dozen keen to do it. It really surprised me that they were so willing"*.
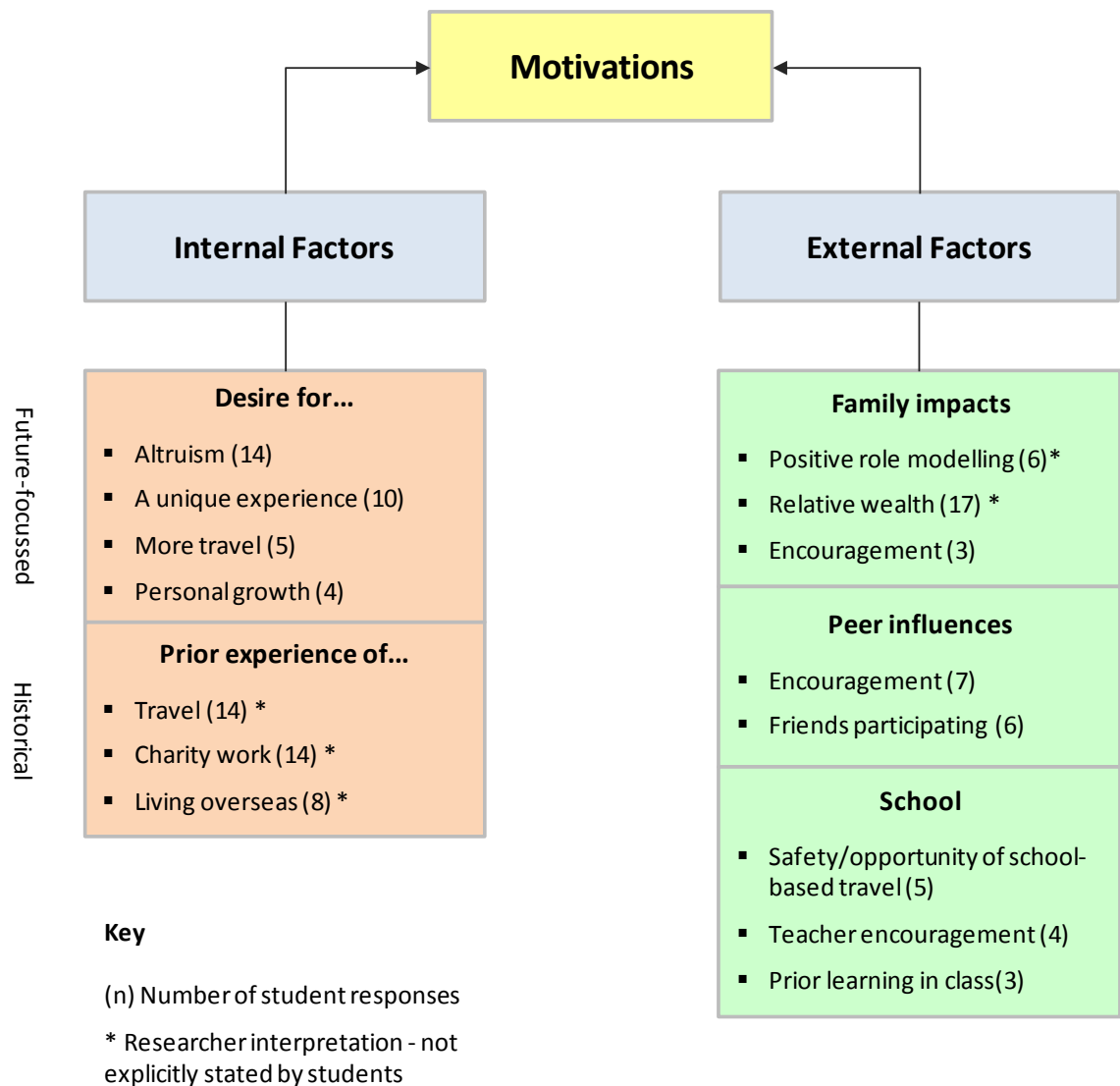
Figure 5: Summary of factors motivating students to participate in the Rangitoto College Cambodia house building trip in 2012

4.4 Q.2 How do Rangitoto College student expectations compare with actual experiences?

4.4.1 The pre-trip expectations

In the pre-trip interviews, students were asked a range of open ended questions about what they expected the trip to involve. This included questions about the travel and volunteer work (house building and working in the orphanages) as well as questions about nervousness, challenges, rewarding experiences and so forth. The researcher's overall impression was that participants had a limited understanding of what the trip would involve. For example, eleven

students expressed being *'unsure'* about what to expect from the trip during their interviews. When questioned specifically about the volunteer work most had difficulty providing details. Two students specifically stated they did not want to have any expectations to avoid disappointment or confusion. While interviewing, the researcher observed body language and expressive terms that suggested a heightened level of excitement in all the students when talking about the trip.

Students were asked to identify what they anticipated would be the most rewarding and most difficult part of the trip. Their responses are summarised in Table 3. Most students gave more than one response when answering each question.

Table 3: Student expectations about the most rewarding and most difficult aspects of the Rangitoto College Cambodia house building trip, 2012

Most rewarding	Number of respondents	Most difficult	Number of respondents
House building volunteer work	7	Building the actual houses	7
Helping people (general)	7	Not being able to help everyone	5
Everything	5	Seeing the poverty	3
Personal feeling of achievement	4	Visiting the orphanage	2
Helping the orphanages	1	Visiting the Killing Fields	2
Seeing the country	1	Other (e.g. flying, sickness)	5

Source: Pre-trip interview Q17 and Q14.

Expectations of the volunteer work

Participants were excited and often animated when talking about their expectations of helping families and children in need. It was the most anticipated aspect of the trip with 15 students expecting that helping people would be the most rewarding experience. Five students expected the families to respond positively when receiving their houses and three students felt that the experience would be very emotional. However, when asked to describe what the experience of house building would be like, most said they were unsure. A common answer was *"I don't really know that much about it".*

While all students were excited, many (14) were also apprehensive about their abilities to do a good job in hot, tropical conditions. The most common reply to the question 'what will be hard?' was the building of houses. Fiona said "*I really want to do a good job and go hard out all day, make the most of it and make sure they do really well, and I don't want to disappoint the families".* This statement clearly shows Fiona's expectation, that a good job involves hard work. Two students revealed a fear of disappointing the families. For more comments related to house building expectations refer to Appendix 12c.

Expectations of the orphanage volunteer work were often mixed. For example, Judith who said "*it will be nice that we've helped by donating things and painting the walls, but we'll walk out wanting to have done so much more*" and Sue who said *"I think it will be fun to see all the kids, but a little bit sad to know they don't have a family.* Five students stated they were unsure about what to expect, five students thought the orphanage would be a happy, fun place and two students felt it would be depressing to see how little the children had. Only one student expected the orphanage work to be the most rewarding activity on the trip.

Overall the students were very positive about the volunteer work they would do and the funds they had raised. They expected to make a difference in Cambodia. Only three students made any comment that suggested they their efforts were limited. When Katy answered a question about the main reason she signed up for the trip she took a moment to collect her thoughts and said it was to change her own perspective, and added *"because we will be helping people but it is kind of limited".*

Expectations of travelling in a developing country

While some students had lived in a country with some poverty or had travelled extensively, there was no identifiable difference in the expectations of those born overseas and those born in New Zealand. Overall, expectations of their Cambodia travels were often limited to it being different from New Zealand. Ten students indicated they were excited, interested or curious to see the country. When asked why, students referred to meeting local Cambodians, interacting with the culture and learning about the history. Specific interests influenced some students excitement such as wanting to try local foods (3), being interested in the Killing Fields (3) and one student specifically mentioned their desire to see the architecture.

Almost all students had some concerns about travelling in a developing country. Ten students had the expectation that they would probably get sick with more than half the students scared

of consuming contaminated food and/or water. Six students commented on the importance of staying with the group at all times, with two mentioning landmines.

Another concern was the level of poverty in Cambodia with 10 students expressing some concern about seeing people living in impoverished conditions. However, only three felt it would be one of the most difficult aspects of the trip. In addition, five students commented on how difficult it would be to not have the resources to help everyone. Claire said *"One of the hardest parts will be seeing how little they have. I cry at everything so I'm probably going to cry the whole trip".* While this may seem 'dramatic', it is representative of many of the students who seemed to be very passionate about the experience. Four other students also expected that they would cry on the trip.

Some students were nervous about interacting with locals such as Sue who said:

> *"How I should interact with them? I don't want to offend anyone. I was going to buy the Hunger Games books for the orphanage, but it's about killing children and so I can't take it because I don't want to offend them".*

Concerns about offending or upsetting the local people were expressed in two ways. Firstly, in daily travel life, two students worried they would do or say something wrong. Secondly, two students expressed concern about sharing their own life story with the orphans, worried that it would make the orphans sad if they showed them pictures and talked about their own families and the opportunities in New Zealand. An example of this is Shona who said:

> *"In one of the meetings our teacher was asking us to make a Powerpoint on what our life is like. I dunno, I feel a bit uneasy about that because its sort of weird to say here's my school, we've got 30 computers in one classroom, and you've got… you know. I wouldn't like it if someone came up to me and said I've got all this!"*

Feeling of achievement

A group of students revealed expectations around the personal feeling of satisfaction this trip would give them. When asked what the most rewarding aspect of the trip would be, Leith said:

> *"that I did something like this, that I actually took part in something, and I got myself to do it and then I did it, and that I got something out of it and someone else got something out of it".*

Three students specifically commented on how rewarding it would be to look back on the experience because, as Rachael stressed, they would be doing something *"special"*. Joanna even alluded to a more long term impact saying she would *"look back on my life and say that I have done something with it, productive and helping".*

Overall expectations

Overall, the researcher felt most students had high expectations of the trip. This was supported by Ms Brown's comment *'they are 15, 16 and 17 they don't have any realistic expectations* [laughs]. *But, I think they are hopeful that it's going to be the best experience in their lives'*. Other teachers on the trip felt that student expectations were perhaps unrealistic. They felt students were unprepared for the level of poverty that they would experience and that, even after information talks and readings, students didn't fully understand how different the culture was. Ms Smith commented that *"No matter how many times you tell them, it does really sink in, they don't really believe you"*. However, the student interview data suggests that many students were apprehensive about the poverty they would experience.

During the pre-trip interview analysis, the expectations of students were interpreted by the researcher in emotive rather than factual terms. Some aspects of the trip were positively anticipated (i.e. students were excited about them), while others were negatively anticipated (i.e. students were concerned or nervous about them). Other expectations were difficult to align with an emotional response; instead they were based on uncertainty. The expectations and associated emotional themes that emerged from the eight questions asked about expectations during the pre-trip interviews are summarised in Figure 6.

Pre-trip expectations

Excited about...

HELPING the people
- Making a difference (15)
- Seeing their faces (8)
- Having fun with the children and families (6)

BEING in a new culture
- Seeing the country, culture and history (10)
- Meeting the 'locals' (5)
- Being tourists (3)

PERSONAL growth
- Feeling of achievement (7)
- Change in perspective (4)
- Gaining independence (1)

Concerned about...

HELPING the people
- The hard work involved (14)
- Not being able to help everyone (5)
- Doing a good job (2)

BEING in a new culture
- Seeing the poverty (10)
- Lacking an understanding (4)
- Being away from home (2)

PERSONAL safety
- Getting sick (10)
- Crime and getting lost (5)
- Flying (3)
- Landmines (2)

Having EXPECTATIONS
- Being disappointed (3)
- Being confused (2)

Unsure about...

HELPING the people
- What the house building will involve (4)
- What the orphanage will be like (5)

BEING in a new culture
- Unsure what they'll see (6)
- Unsure what to do (3)

Figure 6: Pre-trip expectations of the Rangitoto College Cambodia house building trip, 2012

4.4.2   The post-trip actual experience

Student experiences of volunteer tourism in Cambodia

There were a wide variety of activities and experiences discussed by students during their post-trip interviews. These activities have been described in the Introduction chapter and are explained in the Cambodia Trip Itinerary (Refer to Appendix 1). Participants were asked to describe the most significant or impactful experiences using photos they had taken. The

activities/content of these photos and the emotions that they associated with these are summarised in Table 4 below.

Table 4: Auto-driven photo elicitation choices of the most significant experiences on the Rangitoto College Cambodia house building trip, 2012

Photo content / activity	No. of Photos *	Positive / negative experience
House building	13	Positive
Orphanage children	9	Positive
Visit to slum	6	Negative
Street children	4	Mostly positive
Killing Fields	4	Negative
Group photo	4	Positive
Angkor Wat temples	4	Positive
Cooking class day	3	Positive
Other tourist activities **	3	Positive

Source: Post-trip interview Q.22

* total number of photos based around this activity out of 43 images selected by students
** Tuk tuk ride, street scene, elephant ride
Note: Only 15 students provided photos during the interview and three students provided more than three photos.

The volunteer work (either house building or at the orphanages) was selected as most significant by 14 of the 15 students who provided photographic images to discuss. Only one student did not select volunteer work as one of the most significant activities for this task. The next most common imagery selected was that of a slum street, often with rubbish, sewage and children. In addition, some students selected images reflecting tourism activities, both enjoyable such as the temple visit or challenging such as the Killing Fields. Two common image types are provided below. For ethical reasons, photos with no faces shown have been selected.

Image 1:   Image 2:

Source: Images provided by Sophia (Image 1) and Judith (Image 2) and kindly given permission to publish.

When analysing how the actual experience met expectations a general overview of pre and post-trip interview comments were collated. Student pre-trip expectations about activities that would be the most enjoyable and what would be difficult were compared with responses after the trip (e.g. post-trip interview). The data are compiled in Table 5 below.

Table 5: Student responses, both pre and post-trip regarding the most enjoyable and most difficult activities of the Rangitoto College Cambodia house building trip, 2012

BEFORE TRIP Looking forward to the most*	Number of respondents	AFTER TRIP Most enjoyable*	Number of respondents
House building	9	House building	7
Orphanage work	7	Helping the orphanage	7
Touristy stuff e.g. shopping	5	Experiencing the country	6
Visiting historical places	4	Visiting historical places	5
Seeing something different	3	Everything	4
Meeting new people	2	Meeting the local people	3
		Being away from home	1

* note the difference in wording between pre-trip and post-trip questioning.

Table 5 continued:

BEFORE THE TRIP Most difficult	Number of respondents	AFTER THE TRIP Most difficult	Number of respondents
Building the actual houses	7	Visiting the Killing Fields & S21	11
Unable to help everyone	5	Visiting the slum community	8
Seeing the poverty	3	Leaving the orphanage	4
Visiting the orphanage	2	Beggars and street kids	3
Visiting the Killing Fields	2	Other (heat, homesick, sickness)	3
Other (Flight, illness, heat)	5		

Source: Pre-trip interview Q. 13, 14 and post-trip interview Q. 23, 24.

For data analysis, both Table 3 and Table 5 were compared to discover patterns in relation to similarities and differences between expectations and actual experiences. Trends in volunteer work, experiencing poverty, travelling in Cambodia and unexpected experiences were identified and the findings are discussed in the sections below.

Experiencing volunteer work

<u>Similarities</u>

In the pre-trip interviews 15 students placed great importance on the volunteer activities, expecting them to be the most meaningful and enjoyable activities. Even with high expectations, most of the students found this to be the case, selecting either house building and/or orphanage images in their photo elicitation answers in the post-trip interview.

Thirteen of the students selected the house building day as either the best or one of the best experiences of the trip. Terms like happy (3), amazing (7), so good (6) and overjoyed (1) suggest very positive experiences. Katy's comment is representative of many student comments, she said:

> *"The house building was probably one of the best days of the trip, it was really good. After seeing all the Killing Fields and all that, it was probably one of the first positive things we did. It was actually in the middle of a thunderstorm* [laughs] *which was good because it wasn't as hot. It wasn't as hard as I expected".*

Eight students had expectations around *"seeing the faces"* of those they helped as being a positive aspect of the trip. Five students specifically referred to this when describing their actual experience. For example, Shona who enjoyed connecting with the family, she said:

> "*the best thing was having the husband in the family get right in and help us* [build the houses]. *It really showed how grateful he was to have us there. The faces of the families were priceless"*.

Another similarity was the impact of working at the orphanages for the participants. Prior to the trip seven students identified the orphanage work as an activity they were most looking forward to (although only one student expected the orphanage work to be the most rewarding). Six of those same students selected the orphanage work as the best experience on the trip and two others selected it as one of the best. The orphanage work was particularly special because of the connections that were made. For example Sue who describes the experience:

> *"The orphanages were my favourite bit because I love kids and playing with them and making them happy was just so much fun. When you went to the orphanage they come up to you and hold your hand and stay really close to you and drag you around. At first it's like 'what are you doing?' but then you get to know them and it's really nice".*

Others, such as Rachael, had mixed feelings about the orphanage work but finished the day feeling positive. She said *"painting the walls got a bit boring after a while but then everyone joined in and we started dancing together and it was a really fun day"* . Claire and Sophia felt that the orphans knew they were there just for a short period and this made them a little uncomfortable during their visit.

Only one student did not select a volunteer work image when discussing their significant experiences.

Differences

One of the most important differences between expectations and actual experiences involved the physical act of house building work. While most expected house building to be challenging and hard, the experience proved to be much more straightforward. All of the students commented that the house building was not as difficult as they expected due to cooler weather, the local help provided and the short length of time involved (just one day). Joanna's

comments represent the thoughts of most participants, that weather conditions made the day of building easier. She said:

> "It was different, we were lucky because it rained. In the morning before it rained it got so hot and I think if we had stayed there for much longer it would have been too hot, so we were lucky it rained. Without the rain it would have been a lot harder".

Some students were left with mixed emotions in regards to the effort and time involved in the house building. Many expressed a desire to have done more (7), that the day was too short (4) and one student commented that they would have liked the entire ten day trip to be volunteer work. For examples refer to Appendix 12 d. Shona was perhaps the most unhappy with the volunteer component of the trip. She said:

> "I was a little bit disappointed in the volunteering part of the trip. I knew it was raining and that would make it easier for us, but at the end of the day I went away thinking 'all I've done is bang a few hundred nails into a floor'.

Four students alluded to the idea that they felt like they hadn't worked hard enough during the house building activity. For example Leith who said "*I felt like I should have had to put up with more".* However, the amount of house building is directly linked to the amount of fundraising and four of the students did acknowledge that they needed to have raised more money to be able to do more work.

A difference in expectations of orphanage work came from the connections students made with the orphans themselves, with the friendliness of the children a surprise to many. In addition, five students identified their surprise at the similarities between themselves and the Khmer orphans, often using the term *'they're just like us'*. Claire's quote further illustrates this:

> 'It was weird, because we were hanging out at the orphanage with some girls our own age, who spoke full English and we just talked for the whole day about university and school and you have so much in common and yet your lives are so different'.

Five students referred to a specific orphan who they had shared a conversation with or were given a guided tour by. This often led to an insight into their lives and a new understanding of their world. Overall the connections seemed to leave a mark with students and caused many to feel uncomfortable when their day of volunteer work had finished. While the orphanage

work was a highlight for many, four students felt that leaving the orphanage was the most difficult experience of the entire trip.

Experiencing poverty

<u>Similarities</u>

In the pre-trip interview, 10 students identified experiencing poverty as a possible challenge during the trip and expectations were often about raising their own awareness. For example Sophia said *"I'm expecting it to be a real eye-opener kinda thing, seeing the poverty and that stuff will be hard".* After the trip a similar proportion of students identified poverty as challenging. Eight students identified the visit to the slum community as the hardest part of the trip and six students selected an image of the slum visit as one of their most significant experiences.

<u>Differences</u>

While the proportion of students was similar, the level of poverty experienced was greater than expected. Eight students expressed surprise that the level of deprivation they witnessed in Cambodia. This was partly due to an unexpected visit to a slum community in which students saw first-hand the living conditions of some of the poorest people in Phnom Penh (refer to image 2). For example Shona said:

> *"The living conditions surprised me, the slum we went to, walking through everyone's waste and they didn't have anything. I felt angry, intruding on these people, it was like 'why are we here?' Even though we donated $200, it's not going to go far; I wish we could have done more".*

Students questioned how a slum community of this condition could exist. For example Rachael said *"visiting the slum was so sad, it felt surreal, how could someone live like that?".* Four students used the term '*shocking*', for example Catherine who talked about what she saw in the slum, saying *"kids swimming in this water, filled with filth and nappies, was shocking to me".* Four students used the term *'disgusting'* and five (mostly Year 13 students) described feeling uncomfortable being 'tourists' and taking photos in this community. Refer to Appendix 12 e for specific examples.

One student, Angela, perceived the poverty differently, saying *"they didn't seem really poor like in Africa, they had all the necessities like food and water".* This comment suggests she was expecting to see extreme deprivation on this experience.

Travelling in Cambodia

Similarities

References about tourist-based activities were often similar to student expectations in topic, frequency and level of importance. Many students discussed one or two cultural/tourism experiences that were significant, but these did not dominate the post-trip interview. Aspects of Cambodia culture that were different or of contrast to New Zealand (e.g. traffic), became noteworthy for some. The temples were selected by four students as part of their photo elicitation task, expressing their interest in the history and being impressed at its resilience. For example Judith said:

> *"I thought that it's wonderful that there are so many ancient things that are still there, because New Zealand is a very young country. I think it's amazing that structures like that can survive the war, the bombings and atrocities and still be admired by people today".*

Differences

An important difference was based around the expectations (or lack of) many students had about the local Khmer people. Twelve students commented that they were surprised by the level of friendliness and happiness they witnessed while on the trip. One of the most extreme examples was Judith, who was born overseas and had previously experienced feeling unwelcome in a poor community. She was unprepared for the friendliness of the Khmer people. She said:

> *"They were so welcoming and friendly and open about their culture and they wanted us to know about it and were happy for us to try it. So their culture wasn't as scary as I thought it would be".*

One particularly important experience for some students (5) was meeting the local village woman in a community development tourism venture based around cooking classes. It was an especially meaningful and positive part of the trip for Sophia, she said:

> *"We couldn't understand anything they said and they didn't understand us but we spent an hour just talking to them and communicating with hand signals and laughing and stuff. It was one of the best moments on the trip".*

Here students felt they had connected in some way with the local Khmer women. Rachael even referred to a lady she met as '*my second mum*' which could be interpreted as a very special encounter for her.

Another difference was linked to the concerns students had about getting sick in Cambodia. Ten students had expressed concern about getting ill while travelling and most students were in fact ill at some point during the trip. However, only one student commented on their illness when asked to talk about the difficult or challenging aspects of the trip. Sickness was discussed by students, but usually in terms of being upset they couldn't complete their volunteer duties or missing out on an activity. Examples include Sophia who said "*I didn't like how I fainted due to an illness and had to miss out on about an hours worth of house building*" and Catherine who said "*I felt really guilty I couldn't finish the job*". Two students discussed the positive bonding that came from looking after each other when sick. When teachers were asked about possible negative experiences for students they all felt that getting sick was an issue. Yet, the students did not necessarily perceive their illness in the same way. Ms Brown acknowledged that "*even the ones who get sick with terrible tummy bugs say I don't want to miss anything*".

4.4.3   Unexpected experiences

Prior to the trip no participant had mentioned making new friends as a motivation for the Cambodia trip and only three students indicated they would make friends along the way. However, in the post-trip interviews, 13 of the 17 students specifically referred to the bonding and connections made between group members and how much they enjoyed each other's company. Refer to Appendix 12f for student examples. Amanda identified this as being the most enjoyable aspect of the entire trip saying "*one of the best, best parts of the trip is that I have made 20 new friends. Every single one of them was so nice, we got so close together*". Another student, Claire said:

> "*it wasn't just the people you met over there, it was the people you experienced the trip with. Like two girls I was with took two hour shifts looking after me when I was sick. You watched people from day one to day twelve and they became completely different people. We all changed together*".

Four students highlighted changes that the group members had made together, the personal developments they had undergone. In general the researcher felt that the connections made between participants were particularly special, which was unexpected by the students.

Another unexpected positive experience of the trip was the 'random acts of kindness' that students completed during their travel. They ranged from giving food away and helping street children sell their merchandise to donating funds to local charitable projects and buying wells. Sophia and Claire recall two experiences in particular:

> *"The first night we were there we went out for dinner, and the food was so cheap and everyone was excited that it was so cheap so we ordered heaps. But we were so knackered that we didn't want to eat it, so everyone was feeling guilty and crap about ourselves because we didn't eat it and it was such a waste. And, I dunno, we are in this poor country so we can't just chuck it out… and then we made this decision to get little takeaway things and we went and gave it to the street children… which was really cool. So something as simple as dinner turned out to be something better than we thought and we felt so good afterwards considering how crap we felt before".* - Sophia

> *"There was a little girl and her cousin who were on the street by our hotel, who came with us out for dinner at night and we helped them sell their bracelets and my mum was like 'oh but you're there to build houses' but this was one of my favourite parts and influenced my trip heaps."* - Claire

Finally, a unique and significant aspect of this volunteer tourism trip is the visit all students made to the historical war sites of the S21 Torture Museum and the Cheung Ek Killing Fields. These places are also known as dark tourism experiences. The purpose is to give students background information and understanding of factors that have contributed to Cambodia's poverty. Four students selected photos of these places as part of their interview. Interestingly, all four images were of a tree at the Killing Fields where children were tortured, reflecting a particular sensitivity to children being affected by Cambodia's violent past. Eleven students stated that this was the most difficult experience of the trip. Katy said:

> *"I've tried not to think about it* [The Killing Fields] *because when I talk about it I get really upset. You just wonder how it could happen, how humanity could do that, especially to your own people. I just don't understand."*

However, six students directly stated that it was important to experience. This was for two reasons. Firstly Jasmine points out that *"it's good to know what they went through and it's something we should know about."* Secondly, it made the volunteer work more meaningful for many students such as Fiona who *said "I'm glad I got to know the actual history even though it*

was so horrible. We did it before the house building; it made you understand why you are doing it".

4.4.4 Summary

Overall the student responses about their experiences in Cambodia can be categorised into four areas, created from themes that emerged from the data. These experience types, a description, the frequency in which these experiences were discussed by students and examples are summarised in Table 6 below:

Table 6: The different types of experiences and frequency identified by students of the Rangitoto College Cambodia house-building trip, 2012

Experience	Emotional	Connecting	Learning	Travelling
Description	Comments with emotive responses and/ or judgmental language.	Comments about interacting with other people.	Comments about learning, changing attitudes, being surprised, etc.	Comments about tourist culture, activities or aspects of visiting a tourist destination.
Frequency	101	66	61	37
Common topics or concepts	Volunteer work, house building, slum visit, poverty, Killing Fields and S21.	Orphans, street children, village families, cooking class ladies, group members, tourist industry workers.	Poverty, development, history of Cambodia, culture, perspectives	Temples, street scenes, countryside, culture, transport, food.

Source: Post-trip interview questions

The Cambodia house building trip was an emotional experience for all the students interviewed. The frequency of tearful moments discussed by students reflects this. Emotional experiences were both positive and negative. However, even the most negative experiences of visiting the slum, Killing Fields and S21 were considered important by students, who expressed an increased sense of meaning and understanding from it. The positive emotional experiences were often based around the volunteer work outcomes and seeing the faces of the families

they helped. However, for some, there was a feeling that they wanted to do more to help, especially in regards to building more houses.

Overall, expectations around positive experiences were generally similar to actual experiences whereas the expectations around difficult aspects of the trip were often different. Students did not expect the Khmer people to be so friendly, happy and welcoming and they did not expect the poverty to be so severe. Many students knew the experience would be significant, but were not prepared for the emotional 'roller coaster' that this trip would entail. Such as Claire who said *"In a way it* (the trip) *was more emotional, like you can't expect to go there and not cry or not get attached or emotionally involved".*

4.5 Q.3 How did the volunteer tourism experience affect Rangitoto College students?

In the post-trip interviews, the participants were asked how this trip had affected, changed or influenced them. Although an inductive and exploratory study, the researcher used secondary prompting questions to help clarify the question and gain more data. Questions such as how they felt about home, interacting with friends and family and effects on future plans were asked in conjunction with the overriding question. The post-trip interview occurred between four and six weeks of their return home and therefore effects must be interpreted as short term. However, after four months participants were emailed, as part of the research process in checking their transcriptions (refer to section 3.4.3 in Research Methods chapter for more details). Students were asked about the continuation of the effects they had previously identified. All twelve students who responded replied that they still felt the same effects.

There were numerous experiences on this volunteer tourism trip where students (and teachers) gained new understandings, knowledge and skills. For some, such as Fiona, the learning experiences seemed particular abundant. She said:

> *"I remember on the first or second day and I sat down and thought I have done more in the last 24 hours than I have done in the last year, even experienced in my whole life. We'd seen so much from a culture, people and lifestyle and I just really enjoyed it. I felt like I saw a lot and learned a lot.'*

When teachers were asked what they thought the students learned, Ms Black answered with the following:

"I think they learnt how lucky they were. I think they learnt to work as a group and I think they learnt about all the economic problems of a poor nation, about corruption and AIDS. All those third worldy type issues they learn so much about and more. All those good things you want to them to learn about. And they learn it really fast!"

From analysis of the transcripts, five key learning experiences emerged; learning about life in a developing country, what absolute poverty means, Cambodian history and culture, how aid works and the darkness of humanity (due to their experiences on the Killing Fields and S21).

These learning experiences impacted students in numerous ways. The researcher has categorised these into four key sections; attitudinal influences, value changes, behavioural changes and future plans.

4.5.1   Attitudes

Attitude is defined by the Oxford English Dictionary (2002) as "representing a feeling or opinion: a settled mode of thinking" (p. 147). The data collected in the post-trip interviews indicates changes in attitudes as a direct consequence of participants experiencing new and contrasting situations where learning has taken place. Ms Brown considered this one of the most important impacts saying *"they've had their eyes open to the world, expanded their worldview, they don't just see things from the perspective of a fairly affluent, pretty self-centred north shore kid".* Many students (10) specifically commented on a change in their perspectives, such as Sophia who directly stated *'my perspectives and opinions about what I care about have changed'.* More examples are found in Appendix 12g. Table 7 on the following page summarises the key changes in attitudes expressed by the participants throughout the post-trip interviews.

Table 7: Attitudinal changes of students on the Rangitoto College Cambodia house building trip, 2012

Attitudinal changes	Number of students
Less tolerant of 'first world problems'	12
More respect and understanding of Khmer people	9
Increased sense of social injustice	9
Increased confidence	7
More relaxed about things	4
More positive about aid work	4
More content with their life	2

Source: Post-trip interview Q. 26

The most commonly stated effect was a change in student attitudes towards the concept of 'first world problems'. This term is commonly used by students to describe issues people living in relative wealth experience, which seem relatively unimportant when compared to those living in poverty. Ms Smith felt that students could "*distinguish between first world problems now*" and three students used this exact phrase during their interview. Twelve students identified a change in their level of tolerance or empathy when people around them discussed their issues and problems. Jenna said "*when I first got back I got really annoyed when people whinged, because they have a really good life compared to other people".* Shona described the way she interacted with a work colleague:

> *"I've noticed more 'first world problems' and at my new job someone said 'oh my refrigerator has broken, it's like living in a third world country' and I had just started working there and I just looked at her and said 'no, it's really not!'* (laughs)"

In addition, some students (4) expressed a feeling of being less stressed about problems faced at home. They seemed less important after the trip so the students were more relaxed. For example Claire, who said *"I don't get bothered at stupid little things now"*.

Another impact was the new understandings and attitudes students developed about people living in Cambodia. Most students expressed surprise at the level of happiness or contentment

they witness in communities across Cambodia. Eight students used terms like *'normal'* and *'the same as us'* when asked to explain how their views about those in the developed world had changed (Q.25 in the post-trip interview). While no student directly stated 'I respect them more', nine students indicated they were impressed by the resilience, work ethic and sense of community found within the Khmer culture. For example Shona who said *"now I can see that they are so giving and they work so hard for just a little'* and Tania who said "*I found the people were really resourceful, always doing something and are definitely happy".*

In the pre-trip interview some students (7) discussed their motivations with reference to the concept of social justice, using terms such as *'sense of duty'*, *'responsibility'* or even *'guilt'* when explaining why they wanted to do the trip. Government responsibility and other causes of poverty were not mentioned by any students. However, in the post-trip interviews four students specifically referred to their anger and frustration at the inaction of the government in not helping the most impoverished within Cambodia. When talking about the slum visit, Sophia said "*me and a couple of my friends got soooo angry. I can't believe the government gave them no support*". Jasmine said "*the government really makes me angry, it has stuffed them over*". In total nine students indicated they felt the situation for many in Cambodia was unfair. This suggests a stronger sense of social justice within the group after the trip through an increased understanding of factors that contributed to the poverty in Cambodia.

Another change highlighted by seven students was in their confidence levels as a result of the volunteer work. For students such as Fiona, getting involved and seeing the success of their efforts led to an increase in self-confidence. She said:

> *"I used to think I couldn't do something like this, but now I know that I can, you just have to get involved. I used to think I'm not good enough or strong enough or have the mental ability but I don't think that anymore, now I know that I can. If I see something that I can get involved with in the future I will".*

In addition, four students felt more positive about aid and volunteer work as a result of this experience. For example Judith who discussed the negative attitudes many in her English class had about aid and development work prior to the trip. She ended the narrative saying *"I suppose before the trip I did have doubts about how far the money did actually go, but yes it is important and it does go such a long way".* Katy also had this view saying "*some people think 'why bother? You can't do anything to make a difference' and I kind of thought that too. But*

we went to Cambodia and did quite a lot". These comments suggest a stronger confidence in both themselves and aid work in developing countries.

4.5.2 Values

The term value is defined by the English Oxford Dictionary (2002) as "considered of worth or importance, have a high opinion of, take notice of, and be concerned about" (p. 3500). Values are aspects of a person's life that are important to them, often linked to culture or life stage. In the post-trip interviews many different aspects of student's lives were discussed in terms of a change in their importance. These are summarised in Table 8 below.

Table 8: Change in values of students participating on the Rangitoto College Cambodia house building trip, 2012.

Values	Number of students
More grateful and appreciative	17
Family and good friends more important	7
Less materialistic	7
Less wasteful	6
More motivated to take opportunities	5
More generous	3

Of most importance was an increased awareness and value of what student already had, living in Auckland, New Zealand, in a relatively affluent community. Every student said they were more grateful or appreciative since their travel experience. Specific aspects they identified were; family, good friends, food, water, house/bedroom, clothing and medicines. Tania's comment showed a link between her 'first world problems' attitude and new values:

> *"Coming back and listening to my friends I wanted to just scream because they're worried about their hair, their makeup, their new pants… I think that is one thing I want to make a conscious decision not to moan about… and to be grateful for my family, to express my love for them and make it known and not take things for granted, like I used to".*

As reflected by Tania's quote, a common response was the increased appreciation of their family and good friends. Some students (3) thanked their family during the post-trip interview for giving them the opportunity to participate on a trip like this. This theme is identified again when describing changes in behaviour in relation to family members (in the next section).

Two other themes that emerged were based around less materialism and wastefulness. Six students reported a reduction in the value of material items. For example Claire who said *"before I was 'oh yeah I'm bored lets just go shopping', but now I appreciate my money more and want to save it for something important.* Three students referred to Christmas (which was approaching) such as Sophia who said *"my mum asked me 'what do you want for Christmas?' and I'm like 'whatever' it doesn't matter anymore".* In addition, many students (6) referred specifically to valuing food and clean water since their experience and trying not to waste these resources anymore. Refer to Appendix 12h for student comment examples.

Another impact was a change in motivation levels and valuing opportunities that many Cambodians don't have access to. Four students specifically referred to their upcoming NCEA exams and the desire to work harder because of their experiences in Cambodia. For example Leith who said *"I got more motivated to study. It made me realise how important education is. And so as soon as I got home I hit my books".* Jasmine also commented on her efforts saying *"I'm definitely going to try harder. I want to do more things now, because I have more opportunities and I want to take them".* Some students (3) commented on talking with the orphans at the NFC Orphanage about their lives seeing how much value they placed on education for their future. These conversations influenced the student's perspectives on their own education and how important it was not to waste their opportunities.

4.5.3   Behavioural changes

Behaviour is defined by the Oxford English Dictionary (2002) as "observable action, treatments shown to or towards another or others, manners" (p. 211). For many students, perceived effects on attitude and values have resulted in changes in behaviour, often in relation to other people. A summary of the key behavioural changes identified by students are found Table 9 below.

Table 9: Behaviour changes of Rangitoto College students after the Cambodia house building trip, 2012

Behavioural Change	Number of students
More positive family interaction	8
Less wasteful	6
Study harder	4
Avoid 'teen drama' with friends	2
Express care and concern for loved ones	2

One of the most common responses was linked to family relationships and changes in their behaviour towards family members. A reduction in conflicts with siblings (3) and an increased willingness to do chores (3) were the most common. One participant, Tania (who was born overseas) commented on a desire to stay in touch with family more now. She said:

> *"Every time my grandparents call now I definitely make the effort to talk to them, whereas I didn't before. It's important. It's more meaningful to go on Facebook and connect with my cousins and stuff".*

Many positive behavioural changes occurred after the trip for participants in terms of wastefulness and working harder. As already discussed, six students specifically commented on being more careful about consuming food and water after their trip. For example Tania who said *"I feel I would rather eat when I'm hungry now rather than just eating when there is food around"* and Shona who commented on watching waste in a café and thought *'well why did you buy it, if you're not going to eat it?'*. In addition, three students stated they studied harder because of their trip. For example Jenna who said *"it made me more motivated to study harder when I came back. Every time I was like 'I can't be bothered' I'd remember 'Layloi' at the orphanage and how hard he tried and I would keep going".*

In terms of interacting with peers, specific behaviour changes were not specifically expressed by students. However, the researcher surmises that these may have occurred due to attitudinal changes in relation to seemingly unimportant problems. Such as Joanna who said "w*hen my friends tell me why they are sad, it feels so insignificant compared to what Cambodians are going through".* Showing empathy may be harder for some students now and

engaging in gossip may have reduced. This is also suggested in Sophia's comment *"before I left for Cambodia there was some drama between friends, but on the first day back at school I just didn't get into that all, sorry priorities have changed and I couldn't care less anymore"*. However, for some students, changes in how they perceive their close friends have meant they show their appreciation more. As Sophia adds "*I value my friends a lot more and I make sure I let people know that I care, I make it a lot more obvious"*. Her statements reflect two different behaviour changes regarding close friends.

4.5.4   Future ambitions

In the post-trip interview participants were asked if this trip had influenced any plans or goals for the future. Perhaps more than any topic, when asked about the impact this trip had on future plans participant answers were very comparable. These are summarised in Table 10 below.

Table 10: Effects of future plans for students who participated in the Rangitoto College Cambodia house building trip, 2012

Future Plans	Number of students
More volunteer work	14
More travel to developing countries	13
Influenced employment or study decisions	11

Two dominant themes emerged. Firstly, students wanted to continue helping people in need and secondly, they wanted to continue experiencing the developing world. Twelve students specifically referred to places such as Africa and Asia and seven students wanted to return to Cambodia (refer to Appendix 12i for examples). When asked why, many felt their experience had been more meaningful and enjoyable compared to previous holidays which were mostly in developed nations or Pacific Island resorts. In addition, 10 students stated that they would like to be volunteer tourists again because helping people while travelling made the trip more enjoyable. For example Tania who said:

> *"Next summer I want to save up and do a volunteer project, it's one of my main goals. I don't know where things will go from there, but I would rather do a trip like this one again and again and again than go on an extravagant holiday… definitely".*

Shona, although happy with the overall experience, would not do an organised trip like this again because "*it was a bit too rigid*". Connecting with Khmer people was very important to her, and many interactions had been cut short due to time constraints. She did plan to travel and do volunteer work again, but independently.

Nine students highlighted the positive impact of travelling in a culture very different from their own. Two students referred to recent trips to America and felt that it was '*boring*' compared to Cambodia. Fiona said *"I enjoyed the fact that it's different, it's interesting. I didn't know if I would enjoy that, but that was one of the main reasons I enjoyed Cambodia".*

In addition, the teachers also felt this experience would change the way some students travelled in the future, making them more thoughtful and engage with the culture in a more meaningful way. Evidence of this is Ms Brown's comment:

> *"I think for some of the kids they will not just be tourists in the future. They will not be content to just go to places and live the insular life of the tourist and the five star resort, who just wants to see the beach, sun, the good food and maybe a few cultural dances for entertainment. They will be the people who are interested in the people and the culture and places that they visit rather than superficial travellers, being all about them".*

In terms of future study and possible career paths, 11 students stated that this trip had influenced them in some way. Five students indicated that this trip had confirmed their plans for future study; three students want to become doctors, one an aid worker and another a journalist. Two students felt that volunteer work would be a good 'back up' plan and two students wanted to earn more money in the future so they could help more people. Refer to Appendix 12j for example comments. Two students indicated the trip had changed their future study plans. For example Jane, who was usually one of the most concise when answering interview questions. However, when asked how this trip had affected plans for the future, she responded with particular enthusiasm, smiling and eager to discuss her ideas. She said:

> *"At first I was going to study a BA but I've started to change my idea to do a planning degree. That's so I can help society to change their situation, because you can design*

houses not just for the rich but people in poverty. I would like to do that in both New Zealand and Cambodia, because in New Zealand there are people in poverty too. Before I was thinking about planning but wasn't going to do it. But when I got back I applied to the planning course. I had to write an essay and I wrote about my time in Cambodia."

4.5.5   Unique effects

Throughout the post-trip interviews some students shared unique narrative that were not found in other student transcripts but provide an interesting insight into possible effects of volunteer tourism in secondary school students. Three such examples are discussed in this section.

Firstly is Judith's narrative of her experience of family tragedy during the volunteer tourism trip. She describes the way this trip impacted on how she dealt with a very sad family situation:

"Well, on the trip I found out some bad news that my brother's baby died, a miscarriage. Ms Brown told me about the baby and I was really glad I was in Cambodia when I heard about it because it helped me in the healing process. Just seeing how happy everyone in Cambodia is and how they have managed to overcome the pain and scars of what they have been through, living well… if they can do it, then our family can do that … we can move on from something as awful as this. When we went house-building it was for a family who had a little baby. I think it really motivated me. I was like 'I want to give you a future, even though my nephew didn't get a future, you can'. Me and my brother are really close and I told my brother that when I got back and all my stories and I think it helped him to heal. It made the trip even more meaningful because I had never been confronted by death, but on that trip I was confronted by so much death… and I think in that space it influenced the way I saw things on the trip and heal from such a horrible thing that happened. So that's why I'm glad I found out about it there rather than when I got back. It helped me heal so much'.

This story is a powerful one and it reveals the effect such a trip can have on how a student perceives a family tragedy and how it helped (in whatever small way) a family through a grieving process. This is discussed further in the next chapter.

Another student developed a new perspective and attitude towards their own community as a result of this trip. She talked about having a different view of poor people in New Zealand. Jasmine said:

> *"I think people in New Zealand should do things for themselves instead of waiting around for people to do things for them. I used to give money to anyone in New Zealand, but now I don't because there are so much more opportunities here compared to Cambodia".*

This quote suggests that seeing the living conditions and meeting local Khmer people had created a new perspective on relative poverty in New Zealand for Jasmine.

Interestingly, for Angela, this trip was perceived as having little impact on them personally and she identified increased gratefulness as the only change. This was unusual and with further questioning no new effects emerged.

Finally, the importance of relating to a similar culture was highlighted by one student when talking about her volunteer work. Amanda said:

> *"I saw a Korean couple that helped the orphanage with their funding. She seemed like a real role model to me and I thought it was amazing that this Korean lady in her 20's, even though she was so little, had come here to Cambodia. It helped to show me that I can do this too later on, so I want to come back".*

4.5.6   Will these effects last?

This question cannot be answered by the data collected from the student interviews directly. However, as previously stated, students were emailed four months after the trip and were asked whether the changes they had observed one month after the trip were still there. Of the students that responded, only two expressed some form of doubt that the changes may not last. The majority of students wanted the changes to be long term and were endeavouring to ensure such through constant referring back and talking to others about their experience as much as possible. Evidence of this can be seen in Sophia's comment *"I hope I still feel grateful, appreciative and more caring and I hope I feel like that always. I don't think this trip is only going to affect me in the short term, but rather forever".* Tania also showed a desire for permanent change, stating *"I have still changed, but we all start to fall back into our same*

habits and that's why I am trying to remember every feeling and thought I had and remember all the reasons for wanting to change."

When teachers were questioned about effects for students, all of them felt it could potentially be long lasting. Ms Smith felt that *"everybody remembers things from school don't they… being able to go to Cambodia while you are at school, building houses, helping orphanages… it can't not change them"*. However, she also acknowledged that it would be hard to know for sure. Ms Brown comments are aligned with the students regarding the possibility of long term effects. She states:

> *"It depends. For some people the effect will wear off. But, having said that I think it's something that they will return to in their minds. It will always be there and in terms of defining moments, for all of them, I think it will be something that will be a defining moment in their life. And probably for some of them it might not be until they are older that they think, 'hmmm I would like to do something like that again'. I think for some of the kids they will not just be tourists in the future. They will not be content to just go to places and live the insular life of the tourist at the five star resort. They will be the ones who are interested in the people, the culture and places that they visit rather than the superficial travel, being all about them".*

In total, five students referred to the trip as "*life changing"*. Thirteen students said the trip met their expectations or fulfilled what they had hoped it would and four students said it was more than they could have asked for. Ms Brown's comments, regarding the overall effect of such an experience, collaborates these findings. She says:

> *"Constantly the kids say 'this has changed my life' and it's always for the better and it's positive. Universally the kids all say it makes a positive change for them, in terms of their outlook on life and the way they conduct themselves as global citizens".*

4.5.7   Summary

A summary diagram has been created, using the key findings from this question, with four key areas; at the top, the overriding learning experiences of students are identified, as result of participating on the trip. This learning has led to a number of intrapersonal and interpersonal effects. Intrapersonal effects describe changes that have occurred within a participant's own personal situation, such as their perspective, values and behaviour not directly related to others. Most of the answers given by students were intrapersonal. Interpersonal effects

involve changes students identified when interacting with other people and are often the result of intrapersonal changes in attitudes and values. Finally, changes in attitudes and values have impacted on personal behaviour and ambitions for the future for all the participants. These factors are all shown in Figure 7 below:

Learning Experiences
(Identified by students)

- Life in a developing country
- Cambodian history and culture
- Inhumanity and tragedy
- Poverty
- Aid work
- Travelling in a group

Intrapersonal Changes
(Personal development)

Attitudes	Values
- Broadened perspective - Less tolerant of first world problems - More regard for those in developing countries - More aware of social injustice - More confident - More positive	- More grateful and appreciative - Family and friends more important - Less materialistic - Less wasteful - More motivated - More generous

Interpersonal Changes
(Relationships and interactions)

Family	Friends	Community
- Kinder to family - Do more chores - Less fighting with siblings - More communi-cative	- Tell close friends they're appreciated - Less empathetic about their 'first world' problems	- Do more good deeds - More generous - Critical of NZ poor not helping themselves

This has lead to...

Other Behaviour	Ambitions
- Less wasteful of food and water - Studied harder for exams - Less impulse purchasing	- Help more people - Travel to other developing countries - More volunteer tourism - Work in a developing country

Figure 7: Effects on students as observed by students on the Rangitoto College Cambodia house building trip, 2012

Overall, students returned from their Cambodia house building trip with a different perception of people who live in a developing country. They appear to be more appreciative of what they have in New Zealand, less tolerant of people who moan about 'first world problems' and have a desire to do more volunteer work in the future. In general, many felt they were nicer to their

family and some were more motivated and less materialistic. The findings show a range of positive effects for the students, family and community in the short term.

4.6 Conclusion

The motivations, expectations, experiences and effects of secondary school students who participated in the Cambodia house building trip are wide ranging and complex in nature. Each of the three research questions proposed in Chapter Three has been answered in relation to the case study setting. These findings will be discussed in further detail in Chapter Five.

Chapter 5: Discussion

"Moving In"

"Afterwards we were playing rugby with the local kids, some of which were from the families that were moving into the new homes. They were such sweet kids and even though we couldn't speak to them, we knew that they appreciated us, and the feeling that we were making a difference sunk in." – Fiona

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a discussion of the key research findings outlined in the previous chapter. As this study is exploratory, the aim is to address the diverse range of themes that emerged from these data. It does this by providing a comparative analysis of the findings in this case study with previous volunteer tourism literature. In particular, references are made to Wearing's (2001) foundational work on Youth Challenge International (YCI) participants. It also explores theories, both psychological and sociological, in relation to adolescent moral development, self-identity and idealism. The chapter is divided into three main sections to explore each of the main research questions on motivations, experiences and effects of volunteer tourism on secondary school students. It concludes with a summary of the discussion.

5.2 Motivations of volunteer tourism

5.2.1 Comparing the motivations found in this case study with academic literature

Are secondary school volunteer tourism motivations aligned to the literature on university and adult volunteer tourism? Ryan (1997) argues that "motivational factors in tourism may differ but recurrent themes emerge" (p. 27). This seems particularly true in volunteer tourism. The previous Literature Review chapter identified a range of motivations in adult and university aged volunteer tourists. These have been compared with this study and the similarities and differences are presented in Figure 8 below. The Venn diagram highlights a range of similar internal and external factors involved in the decision to become a volunteer tourist. It also reveals a range of themes not found in this study of secondary school students, but common in the published literature on adult and university aged volunteer tourists.

Motivational factors in literature only

- Career development (CV)
- Looking for cultural immersion
- Practice of language
- Wanting to avoid mass tourism
- Wanting to gain future direction
- Particular attractions of the volunteer project
- Wanting to spend time with friends

Motivational factors in both literature and case study

- Wanting to help people (altruism)
- Wanting a unique, new experience - an adventure
- Personal development
- Addressing feelings of guilt
- Family support
- Wanting to travel to new places
- Prior educational and travel experience
- The security of an organised trip

Motivational factors in case study only

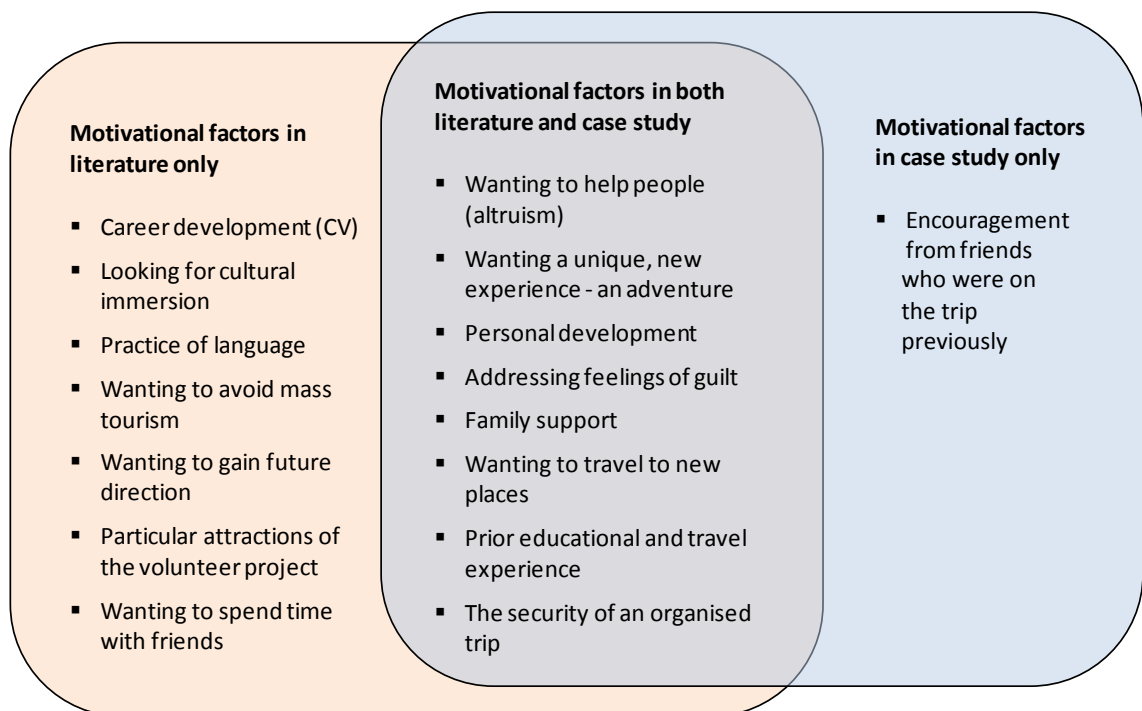- Encouragement from friends who were on the trip previously

Figure 8: Venn diagram showing similarities and differences between the motivations of Rangitoto College students and motivations to participate in volunteer tourism identified in the literature

5.2.2   The similarities

There is a significant alignment of motivational factors between the Rangitoto College Cambodia house building trip students and the academic literature. The following dominant themes emerged; wanting to help people, experience a new and unique destination and the desire for personal development. Both the Rangitoto case study and other published research suggest that, regardless of age and life stage, there are people who gain enjoyment and personal satisfaction from helping others while on holiday. For almost all the Rangitoto students the opportunity to help others while exploring a different country (and culture) was the most significant 'pull factor'. There are a variety of reasons why these factors are so prevalent and they will be discussed in more detail and in relation to adolescent theory in subsequent sections of this chapter.

A further important motivation for some students was the impact of prior experiences and educational opportunities. Previous charity work and a relatively high level of educational attainment are commonly reported in volunteer tourism research (Smith et al., 2010; Soderman & Snead, 2007; Taillon, 2007; Wearing, 2001). These factors can construct a deeper understanding of the impact humanitarian or conservation projects can have which increases the level of motivation to help while travelling. In this inquiry, learning about Cambodia in classes and engaging in social actions with their peers were factors that influenced students to apply for the trip. In addition, many students came from families that provided learning opportunities through their own engagement with charitable activities. Such positive parenting can influence their children's behaviour (Eisenberg, 1991; McLaren, 2003).

Another similarity between this inquiry and research on university aged volunteer tourist was the theme of relative safety. While many studies highlight the desire for risk-based travel, young people often seek an organised trip through an educational institution for safety reasons. This is a noteworthy finding as risk taking is a commonly reported phenomenon in adolescence (Arnett, 1992; Berzonsky, 2000; Coleman & Hendry, 2002). However, for the students in this study, risk was not identified and one third of students explicitly stated the safety aspect of a school based trip as an important element in their decision to participate. The younger age of these volunteer tourists means parental consent was also a consideration for students.

Soderman and Snead (2007) describe this as "the uncertainty and unease of 'the unknown' being mediated by experiencing it from inside the comfort zone of a structured travel

experience" (p. 125). Many students in this inquiry had pre-conceived ideas about the level of safety a trip such as this could offer. Some students were apprehensive about travelling to Cambodia without their family. However, knowing teachers would be looking after them, and that friends were coming, made the trip seem less dangerous. Academic research refers to the perception that organised volunteer tours offered through universities provide a safe and secure means of intrepid travel. An example is Palacios' (2010) study of KOTO University in Australia. He identified students that specifically affiliated with a university project as it was "a safe way of gaining experience in a controlled situation and in a short timeframe" (p. 873). Pike and Beames (2007) noted that in the Raleigh International Ghana youth-based project the "participants enjoy the honour of chance-taking without any real risk" (p. 155). Home comforts, safety records, guides and other group members helped put Raleigh International 'venturers' at ease. These safety factors were desired by the students in this inquiry, suggesting exploration without serious risk-taking was preferable at this stage in their lives.

The absence of push factors was another similarity identified between the case study and literature. These factors (such as escaping stress or taking a break from the mundane) are often found in mass tourism motivational theory (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981; van Egmond, 2007). Instead, it is pull factors of a destination and what the volunteer project offers that are significant. In this inquiry only pull factors were identified, for example, helping others and new experiences. The Rangitoto students did not express a desire to escape the pressures of school, NCEA and peer group pressures and challenges. No one suggested they needed to take a break from their part time jobs to 'recharge the batteries', a common motivational factor for mass tourism (Holden, 2005; Mayo & Jarvis, 1981). When asked about sacrifices made for the trip, most students identified that they had lost time (both for school work and socialising) due to their year of fundraising. This extra commitment placed increased pressures on students especially at assessment times. However, all students identified this as a sacrifice worth making. Little research has been found on pre-trip commitments around volunteer tourism in adults or university aged students and this is an area worthy of further research.

5.2.3   The differences

While the most frequently discussed motivational factors in the literature were similar to this study, a range of differences emerged. In particular, there was an absence of comments regarding the personal benefits of volunteer tourism for a résumé and career development in this inquiry. These have been identified as important motivational factors, especially for university aged students (Daldeniz & Hampton, 2011; Pike & Beames, 2007; Stritch, 2011;

Taillon, 2007). Wearing's (1992) research into YCI students revealed a range of professional development themes linked to university applications and gaining experience in possible career choices. In comparison, students in this study (with the exception of one student who was born overseas) did not identify future career prospects or CV development as motivational factors for this trip.

Literature on volunteerism suggests one of the most important motivating factors for university students is to develop new skills when volunteering (Hall, Lasby, Ayer, & Gibbons, 2007; Smith et al., 2010). Handy et al. (2010) states "as mounting competitive pressures to obtain admission in institutions of higher learning and find good jobs rise, students are more likely to seek out the types of volunteering experiences that help résumé-padding" (p. 503). Jones (2005) and Sin (2009) refer to this as the acquisition of cultural capital, yet while a common theme in the literature, this finding did not emerge in this inquiry.

One reason for this difference may be related to the younger life stage of 16 and 17 year olds in this study. For most young people living in affluent communities in New Zealand, secondary school is not the final qualification stage before full time employment. Most, if not all participants, will continue on to some form of tertiary study at the end of Year 13. Therefore the pressure to gain an advantage in job seeking may not be as pressing as for tertiary students who are closer to this point in their lives and where gaining an advantage or direction is more imminent (Taillon, 2007; Wearing, 2001). Additionally, New Zealand lacks the highly competitive nature of university entrance commonly found in North America, where much of the research has been conducted. Finally, the researcher did not specifically ask Rangitoto students about possible future careers or résumé development, which may have been explicitly asked in other studies. This was due to the exploratory nature of this inquiry and the desire for these themes to emerge from the data inductively. Further research into the perceptions secondary school students have on the benefits of volunteer tourism on attaining their future aspirations is needed.

The avoidance of mass tourism is a common motivation for many volunteer tourists wanting to escape crowded and over-subscribed destinations (Lepp, 2007; Lyons & Wearing, 2007; Novelli, 2005; Robinson, Long, Evans, Sharpley, & Swarbrooke, 2000). While all the students had experienced prior travel, their young age would suggest they were not yet 'seasoned travellers'. Therefore, they have not become bored or displeased with the mass tourism experience, unlike some adult volunteer tourists. However, most students in this inquiry acknowledged this was an opportunity to experience something different. This suggests they

appreciated that Cambodia was 'off the beaten track' for most New Zealand travellers. McIntosh (1990) states "in the Western world the general change in social conditions seems to be in the direction of speeding up the readiness for novelty" (p. 194). Rather than wanting to avoid mass tourism, it would seem students in this study reflect a desire to experience a destination that is novel, unusual and unique. Therefore they appreciated the opportunity to travel to a developing country at this stage of their lives.

Finally, cultural immersion and language development are highly regarded by many university institutions, who actively provide volunteer tourism opportunities for this reason (Palacios, 2010). Participants in this inquiry did not explicitly state 'the chance to experience another culture' as a motivational factor. Instead, students highlighted that their school learning had created an interest in the country and some suggested they wanted to learn first-hand about the history and people of Cambodia. Adult research suggests the process of cultural immersion is a desired activity for travellers seeking opportunities to interact and connect with a host community in a meaningful way (Pearce & Coghlan, 2008; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004). The concept of building relationships with local people while on this trip did not emerge as a motivating factor for students in this inquiry.

5.2.4 Key themes in the case data: Emerging altruism in adolescence

Josh Krippondorf (1987) contends that "travellers' motives and behaviour are markedly self-orientated" (p. 29). However, the dominant motivational factor in this study was a strong desire to help those less fortunate. This form of altruism is also known as pro-social behaviour. Public opinion and the media can often portray young people as stereotypically egocentric, selfish and thoughtless (Arnett, 2010; Paciello, Fida, Tramontano, Cole, & Cerniglia, 2013). However, the students in this inquiry vocalised a strong sense of civic duty and the desire to do something meaningful by helping others. The findings reveal a group of young people with empathy, a wish to address social injustice and appease the feelings of guilt and responsibility they associated with their relatively wealthy lifestyle. This was a powerful motivating force behind fundraising efforts and the time sacrificed to participate on this trip. The researcher acknowledges gender is a likely contributing factor to this finding and will address this separately in a subsequent section.

These findings are consistent with many studies on older students and adults engaged in volunteer tourism, where a strong ethical desire to 'make a difference' exists. Wearing's (1992) research on YCI revealed similar levels of "idealism relating to the concepts of saving the world

and doing good" (p. 66). This study is also congruent with pro-social research on secondary school students. Handy et al.'s (2010) cross-cultural research on volunteer behaviours involved 9000 students across 12 countries. In their comprehensive study, altruism had the highest statistical significance with regards to the probability of volunteering. However, they added "people who volunteer often do so because of a comprehensive set of interrelated motives" (p. 518), as was the case in this study of Rangitoto students. In addition, their research dismissed the notion that career and résumé advancement were the most important motivating factors, a finding which is consistent with this study.

Given that altruism was revealed as a strong motivator for these teenagers, an important question is; what makes these students so altruistic? Some understanding can be gained through an exploration of theory on adolescent moral and ethical development. Pioneering psychologists such as Jean Piaget, Lawrence Kohlberg and Carol Gilligan are all widely cited for their theoretical stage-based models (Borman-Fink, 2005; Coleman & Hendry, 2002; Daniels, D'Andrea, & Heck, 1995; Rice, 2008; Siu, Shek, & Law, 2012). While each has a different focus, they all propose late adolescence as a time of transition to a final stage of moral thinking. During this life stage, an adolescent replaces "hedonistic, needs-oriented, and approval-oriented moral reasoning with higher-level pro-social reasoning and perspective-taking skills" (Sui, 2012: p. 3). All theories suggest an emerging 'universal' or 'community' focus in moral reasoning, going beyond the 'self'. Adolescence is a life stage that is associated with the development of the cognitive thinking skills, perspective taking and abstract thinking needed for humanitarian attitudes (Carlo, Eisenberg, & Knight, 1992; Rice, 2008). In addition, research suggests that between the ages of 16 and 18 there is a transition period for concepts such as social order and justice. An independent perception of right and wrong develops, rather than what others deem it to be (Arnett, 2010; Carlo, Koller, Eisenberg, da-Silva, & Frohlich, 2000). Together these factors can create the desire to help families living in a country far removed from students' own lives, helping people they have never met, regardless of what others may think. Although moral reasoning is a life-long process and age levels should not be rigidly applied (Gullotta, Adams, & Markstrom, 2000; Keniston, 1969; Rice, 2008), one could ask whether younger secondary school students (e.g. 13 years) have the moral development to engage in volunteer tourism in the same capacity as older students.

Behaviourism is another theory applicable when explaining student desires to help others while on holiday. Law, Siu and Shek (2012) state 'behaviourism' is about "consequences triggering the repetition of behaviour" (p. 2). They contend that past behavioural outcomes

influence future behaviour choices. In this study, a prior experience of charity work was a common theme that emerged from participants. As a consequence of this work, positive feelings are often generated; an outcome well documented in academic literature (Schmidt, Shumow, & Kackar, 2007; Yates & Youniss, 1996; Youniss, Bales, & Christmas-Best, 2002). Yates and Youniss (1996) have highlighted this concept stating "it is understood and articulated in terms of what makes one feel good" (p. 91). Some students specifically commented on the feeling of contentment and reward that this volunteer tourism experience would provide. This prediction may be the result of the feelings generated from prior charity work.

5.2.5   Key themes in the case data: Exploration in adolescence

Many students perceived this trip as an opportunity to do something new, different, interesting, and noteworthy. It was a chance for exploration, both spatially and psychologically. Spatially, exploration in youth is linked to an evolutionary trait. The young in a community benefit from searching for new opportunities while in adulthood security is desired to ensure longevity (McIntosh, 1977). Many students enrolled on the trip because they wanted to experience more travel and to see new places. However, exploration of the 'self' is also apparent in adolescence as a time where young people reflect on their place in the world. Erik Erikson (1968), an influential psychology theorist, places great importance on the ability for young people to establish a clear sense of self (Arnett, 2010; Coleman & Hendry, 2002). His theory of 'psychosocial moratorium', whereby young people try lots of different things to get a clear sense of direction and develop their world view, is well documented (Berzonsky, 2000; Gullotta et al., 2000). Trying new roles, such as aid worker, gives students an insight into the adult world of roles "without the responsibility of assuming any one" (Rice, 2008; p. 33). This complex and subconscious process may help explain why students expressed their desire to travel as 'a good opportunity' yet often struggled to explain why.

5.2.6   Gender and volunteer tourism

Within volunteer tourism literature there is a general trend of greater female participation than male in case study research (Andereck, McGehee, Lee, & Clemmons, 2012; Bailey & Russell, 2010; Lepp, 2007; Stritch, 2011). While this trip was offered in a co-educational school, the participants were all female. Similarly, in past years this trip has attracted mostly female participants, a pattern also prevalent in academic literature. Reisinger and Mavodono's (2004) research into the travel motivations of young males and females suggests "females are searching for cultural experience and prestige while men place more importance on

adventure" (p. 72). Yet, this volunteer tourism experience (which is promoted as the Cambodia House Building Trip) suggests an adventurous location with a traditionally masculine activity; therefore, the lack of male participation is interesting. There are a wide range of possible contributing factors, some of which have been the focus of academic adolescent research.

While ethical and moral development is a lifelong process, females generally make the transition at a faster pace than their male counterparts (Arnett, 2010) . This idea is supported by a UK study of 1000 young people aged between 14 and 16 years on service learning. Researchers found that boys were more susceptible to being discouraged to carry out service work if criticised or teased by their peers (Coleman & Hendry, 2002). This suggests they gauge moral reasoning from others and their moral behaviour is still heavily influenced by a desire to please. Females, with a relatively more advanced moral reasoning are more likely to act on their own independent thoughts about right and wrong (Carlo et al., 1992).

Another reason could involve the promotion of the trip in the school, with a focus on 'helping others' which could be a more attractive pull factor for females than males. This is especially true when the commitment of fund raising is explained at an information meeting. Research suggests the concept of altruistic or pro-social behaviour has a different focus for men and women. Gilligan's (1982) theory on moral development describes females with a 'care orientation' and males with a 'justice orientation'. Her research findings suggest males and females view moral concerns differently (Arnett, 2010). Siu et al. (2012) explains "males may tend to adopt a 'justice perspective' that relies on formal moral rules to judge what is pro-social. Females tend to adopt a 'care and responsibility perspective' and pro-social acts should enhance social harmony" (p. 7). These differences are explained through the process of socialisation, where females are socialised into a more caring role, often taking responsibility for younger siblings and praised for their nurturing abilities (Arnett, 2010; Daniels et al., 1995). These traits could help explain the lack of male participants, who perhaps do not relate the concepts of justice, right and wrong, fair and unfair, to volunteering in Cambodia.

In addition, gender has been found to impact on young people's willingness to act (Youniss et al., 2002). Asbrand's (2008) study of students (aged 17 to 19 years) engaged in social action learning in Germany found that girls adopted a positive attitude about their ability to make a difference, whereas boys "prefer to remain passive, because the effects of action are not secure or foreseeable" (p. 39). Therefore girls were more likely to participate in the physical action, whereas boys were more likely to engage only with the learning activities. House building in Cambodia is an example of a physical action.

Finally, another potential reason for the dominance of girls was suggested by one of the teachers on the trip. She questioned the impact of the application process, whereby those wanting to participate on the trip are required to write a letter explaining why they want to go and what they have to offer. Within the education field, boys can be reluctant writers of English and prefer other forms of communication. Females are generally more comfortable writing and have more well developed writing skills at this age (Cuttance & Thompson, 2008; Weaver-Hightower, 2003). The teacher felt that this may have discouraged some male students from applying.

Within the academic body of knowledge on gender and pro-social behaviour there are some researchers who argue that the female dominance is not as significant as often portrayed (Carlo et al., 2000; Eisenberg, Carlo, Murphy, & van Court, 1995; Rochester, Ellis-Paine, Howlett, & Zimmeck, 2010). In New Zealand, there are volunteer tourism trips organised by male single sex secondary schools such as Auckland Grammar School. In addition, research suggests that ethnic or cultural group differences may be more apparent (Carlo et al., 2000). In this inquiry the dominance of girls was a significant pattern to emerge. It suggests that gender impacts on the intrinsic motivations of young people engaging in volunteer tourism. However, the findings also revealed a few unique responses associated with cultural differences in the participants. Further research into this area would be valuable.

5.3   Experiences of volunteer tourism

5.3.1   Defining and describing student experiences

This section explores the experiences students had while engaged in a variety of activities in Cambodia. There is a particular focus on the experiences that were either unexpected or students were unprepared for. The trip itself-has been previously described in detail in the 'Background to the Case Study' section of the Introduction chapter. The Rangitoto College Cambodia house building trip involved a wide range of experiences, both in volunteer work and the local tourism industry. Apart from the volunteer work, other important activities from the students' perspective included; visiting the Angkor Wat temples, an impromptu tour of the poor slum community in Phnom Penh and cooking classes at a sustainable tourism village project. In addition, many found The Killing Fields and S21 torture prison museum particularly challenging. All these experiences can be identified and associated with heritage tourism, pro poor tourism and dark tourism.

Three central themes appeared from the data. Firstly, for all participants the volunteer work, pro poor tourism and dark tourism experiences generated strong emotional feelings, both positive and negative. Secondly, interactions with local Khmer people and fellow group members created meaningful connecting experiences for most students. Finally, students identified new understandings and learning they had as result of this trip. From the simple daily tourist experiences of being in traffic, to the more extreme activities involving poverty and dark tourism, new understandings developed that impacted on the Rangitoto students. These thematic experiences are represented in the diagram in Figure 9 below. The diagram represents the interconnected nature of the different types of experiences. Many of the activities, such as working in the orphanage, were emotional, involved connections and created learning opportunities for the students.
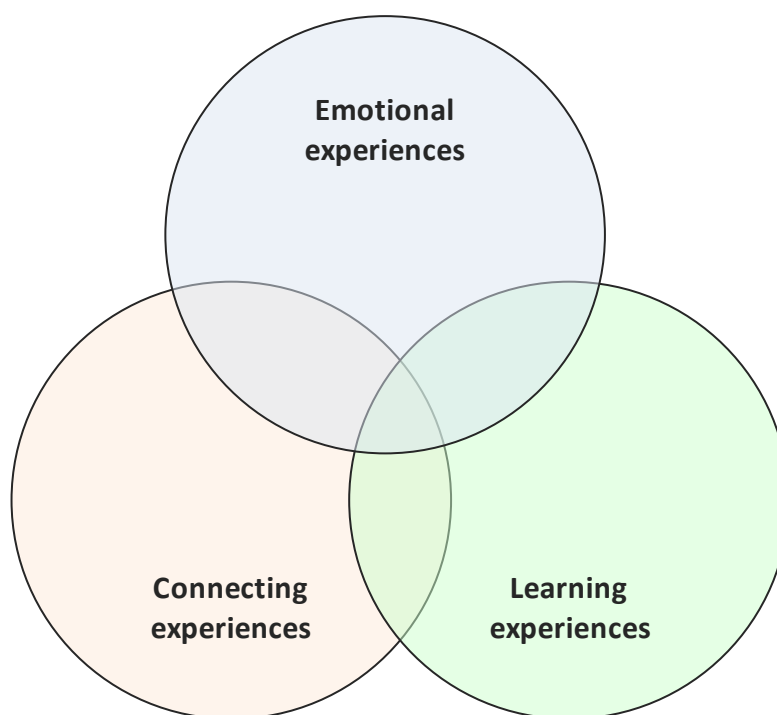
Figure 9: A thematic diagram showing the three main categories (types) of experiences for the students on the Rangitoto College Cambodia house building trip

A wide range of emotional states were expressed by individual students before the trip. For some, there was a concerted effort not to get too excited, not to have preconceived ideas and not to learn too much before they left. For others there was a mixture of both excitement and apprehension, wanting to experience the trip, but nervous about what might happen. Finally, for others there was a huge sense of purpose, a deeper understanding of what they were

doing and a concerted effort to be as informed and prepared as possible. This suggests that there were many different levels of 'preparedness' of the students.

5.3.2   Emotional experiences

Most Rangitoto students expressed a wide spectrum of emotional states when recounting their actual experiences. Many were unprepared for the level of emotional intensity that this trip created for them. Commonly used terms such as *'amazing'*, *'special'*, *'so much fun'* and *'happy'* were aligned to the volunteer work and some tourist activities. Pro poor and dark tourism experiences elicited strong negative emotions with terms such as *'shocking'*, *'awful'*, *'sad'* and *'angry'* often used. Almost every student revealed they had cried during the trip, often on more than one occasion and some students experienced incidents of crying on their return. This high frequency of emotional vulnerability could be attributed to all participants being female. Literature on gender differences in adolescence often report females as being more comfortable to be open, expressing their emotions with their peers, much more than their male counterparts, who often keep feelings hidden for masculine reasons (Arnett, 2010; Chu, 2005; Lehalle, 2006).

This theme of emotional engagement is reported in the academic literature. Studies reveal many adult volunteer tourists find the experience emotional (Govers, 2010; Novelli, 2005; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Stritch, 2011; Vodopivec & Jaffe, 2011; Wearing, 2001). However, few studies have specifically focused on these emotional reactions, such as episodes of crying. Wearing's (2001) study did not identify the concept of 'emotions' when reporting on the experiences of YCI participants in Ghana, instead focusing on themes such as 'interaction' and 'personal identity'. However, Pearce (1988) believes that strong emotions evoked by tourist activities, creates a 'vividness' which leads to deeper learning and changes in attitudes and behaviour. Further to this, Coghlan and Gooch's (2011) analysis of volunteer tourism as a mechanism for 'transformative learning' suggests that strong emotional engagement is an important component of participants changing as a result of their experience. The findings in this inquiry suggest significant attitudinal changes in Rangitoto students, reinforcing the idea that they were in a highly emotional state of mind throughout the trip.

The lack of detailed scholarly comment on this phenomenon implies that perhaps secondary school volunteer tourists are more emotional than their adult counterparts. An exploration of literature on adolescent development suggests they can be. Larson and Richards' (1994) ground breaking 'beeper' study concluded that compared to their parents, adolescents had

"higher peaks of rapture and deeper crevasses of dejection" (p. 83). Arnett (2010) suggests that this period of heightened emotion is a "most ancient and enduring observation" (p. 155). This is linked to brain development and results in adolescents responding to feelings rather than to thinking. Hormones also have a part to play and studies suggest teenagers experience more extreme emotional responses to events than preadolescents or adults (Arnett, 2010; Goossens, 2006; Kehily, 2007). This may help explain the dominance of emotional responses when Rangitoto students were discussing their experiences as well as the frequency of crying episodes reported.

One unique aspect of this volunteer tourism trip is its association with dark tourism activities. Dark tourism has no universal definition, but involves people being attracted to "places or events associated in one way or another with death, disaster and suffering" (Sharpley, 2009; p. 5). Lennon and Foley (2000) highlight Cambodia and the Killing Fields as examples of dark tourism in the modern world. Rangitoto students visited these 'attractions' as part of fulfilling their obligations to The Tabitha Foundation, who ask all foreigners who build houses with their NGO to experience and learn about Cambodia's past.

Visiting these sites was one of the most challenging days for the students and many cried. Hughes' (2008) research on visitors to S21 reveal similar emotions to the Rangitoto students. Her findings reveal many adults "express shock, revulsion, amazement and sometimes anger as they move through the various exhibits" (p. 325). However, as Ms Brown reports: "*even with tears in their eyes they say we want to keep going, we don't want to stop, we want to find out"*. For most students this highly emotional day led to a heightened desire to build the houses for the Khmer families. Stone and Sharpley (2008) suggest that such an emotional experience can help address issues of personal meaningfulness and provide "a key to reality" (p. 590). While almost every student expressed feelings of unhappiness and discomfort at experiencing the Killing Fields and S21, most stated that it was important for them to know and half the students said it made their volunteer work more even more important. This is also similar to Hughes' (2008) study which found tourists engaged in altruistic behaviour (e.g. donated blood to a local hospital) as a result of their visit.

5.3.3 Connecting experiences

Connections were the second most frequently talked about experiences. Unexpected, informal exchanges made with local people were often significant moments for the students. This is consistent with tourism literature that suggests host interaction, even if limited, can be

extremely memorable and important to tourists (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981; McIntosh, 1977; Wearing, 2001). These connecting experiences are linked to MacCannell's (1976) concept of 'an authentic experience' whereby interacting with local people can make a tourist activity seem more real and meaningful (MacCannell, 1976; Vodopivec & Jaffe, 2011). This was suggested by the Rangitoto students. For example, quotes such as '*I've never laughed so hard*' and '*she's like my second mum'* suggest the encounters were enjoyable and meaningful.

Two activities emerged as particularly significant for many students. Firstly, interactions with a group of Khmer women making toys in a rural eco-tourism village were particularly meaningful. Many students engaged with the local women with their smiles and laughter as the dominate forms of communication due to language barriers. Secondly, connections made at the orphanage were very special for most students, particularly those with ambitions to work with children in the future. Some students reported being moved to tears leaving the orphanage, finding it difficult to break the connections many felt had been made with an individual orphan(s) during the day. However, due to the short time frames involved, Raymond and Hall (2008) suggest that it is memories that will result from this interaction rather than lasting friendships. Overall, students in this study connected with a wide range of people. Those in the tourism industry (e.g. tuk tuk drivers), those living in poverty (e.g. street children) and recipients of their volunteer work (e.g. village families). The exchange of smiles, language, cultural understandings and in some cases help or money was noteworthy for most. McGehee and Andereck (2007) believe that the face-to-face contact provides "a sense of self-affirmation they may not otherwise experience" (p. 19). This may be true for the Rangitoto students, who may have felt an increased sense of purpose from the constant flow of smiles and waves from the Khmer people.

Simpson (2005) takes a cautious approach with regards to the claims that contact and connections can be meaningful. In a critique of the UK 'gap year' she argues that volunteer tourism interactions with host communities can lead to misunderstandings and it is "more than just a set of physical interactions, instead, it is part of a process of interpretation and critical reflection" (p. 458). While she acknowledges the power of such connections on experiential learning and pedagogy, she argues it needs to be part of a process, not the learning outcome. These interactions can generate an oversimplified or simplistic attitude towards the local people. As in this inquiry, many studies report volunteer tourists being surprised and humbled by the level of contentment they perceived locals to have (Simpson, 2004; Stritch, 2011). Pike and Beames (2007) highlight this in their Raleigh International study,

stating "there is an acceptance of the happiness of their hosts" (p. 152). These short connections, often friendly and enjoyable must be treated cautiously if they shape student understandings of a culture, poverty and tourism. Rangitoto student perspectives on the host community, developed through the connections made, are explored in more detail in the effects section of this discussion.

Connections amongst group members were also created as a result of a shared volunteer tourism experience. Carter (2008) refers to this phenomenon as 'comradeship' which develops over time. Most Rangitoto students commented on meaningful and supportive interactions, particularly during emotional times (i.e. when crying, or illness was involved). Often students referred to the term 'bonding' in their responses. This suggests they have established new relationships based on the intense experiences they have shared. For one student in this inquiry, this bonding was the most significant and meaningful experience of all. In addition, some students reflected on the learning they had done together and the changes they could all see in each other. Research on volunteer service learning highlights the power of peer interaction, suggesting powerful learning opportunities between young people (Larson, Hansen, & Moneta, 2006; Yates & Youniss, 1996; Youniss et al., 2002).

5.3.4   Learning Experiences

In educational travel research, learning and transformation are often identified as outcomes of international travel experiences (Stone & Petrick, 2013; Falk et al., 2012). While specific data were not directly collected as part of the inquiry process, many Rangitoto students referred to the wide range of learning experiences they encountered throughout the trip, either generally, for example "*I felt like I saw a lot and learned a lot*" or specifically such as "*the changes from Hindu to Buddhism were so interesting* [at the temples]". The Findings chapter has collated these student responses into six key areas (refer to Figure 7); learning about life in a developing country, what poverty means, Cambodian history and culture, how aid works, inhumanity and tragedy and learning how to travel as a group.

For the purposes of this inquiry, learning experiences have been discussed in the following section (5.4 Effects of volunteer tourism). The rationale for this is the 'cause and effect' component of this experience type for students. For an in depth analysis and discussion to occur, learning and its associated outcomes (i.e. effects) are best discussed in conjunction with each other, especially in relation to student attitudinal and behavioural changes. Without learning, these effects may not have occurred and in explaining these changes, learning

experiences have been identified. However, adolescent idealism is addressed below as it relates to the way in which the volunteer tourism experience has been perceived and interpreted by many Rangitoto students.

5.3.5   Idealism and the adolescent experience

Idealism of youth has been widely explored in academic literature (Armon, 1988; Coleman & Hendry, 2002; Keniston, 1969). It involves envisioning things in an ideal form and is often used to explain adolescent romantic relationships (Adams, 2000; Arnett, 2010; Hewlett, 2012). Organisations working with youth such as UNICEF recognise that "late adolescence is a time of opportunity, idealism and promise" (UNICEF, 2011). Arnett (2010) explains idealism requires people to think in hypothetical ways, a skill younger children are yet to master. This ability allows students to imagine they have the ability to make a significant difference in other people's lives. Rice (2008) suggests "some adolescents develop the equivalent of a messianic complex. In all modesty, they attribute to themselves essential roles in the salvation of humanity" (p. 139). He goes on to explain that many young people see the "deprived as victims that need saving" and in conjunction with this unique time in a teenager's life, often faced with turmoil, there is an ability to empathise and act. The prevalence of altruism as a finding in this inquiry suggests the students, who were all female, do strongly empathise with others.

Before this trip many students had extremely high expectations. Some predicted it would be life changing and others felt it would be the best thing they had ever done. These comments suggest an idealistic view about what a nine day trip would involve. Lead teacher Ms Brown collaborates these ideas, stating *"They are 15, 16 and 17 they don't have any realistic expectations* [laughs], *but I think they are hopeful that it's going to be the best experience in their lives".* These very high expectations, which, if influenced by adolescent idealism, may have been a contributing factor in the feelings of discontentment some felt about their volunteer work in Cambodia.

Many students had visions about their importance as volunteer tourists. The short time in which physical house building occurred, after a year of fundraising, left some tinged with disappointment. Approximately one third of students felt that three days of volunteer work was insufficient and half wished they had been able to build more houses for more families. The desire five students had to have worked harder or the feeling that it was too easy suggests they had imagined a very intense experience. This feeling of dissatisfaction is not uncommon even in longer term volunteer tourism experiences (Daldeniz & Hampton, 2011; Diprose, 2012;

Sin, 2009; Vodopivec & Jaffe, 2011). Palacios' (2010) study of a four week trip identified a group of unsatisfied clients. He referred to them as "over-motivated volunteers, people wanting to do too much because they want to feel they are making a difference" (p. 870).

While idealism is often associated with adolescence, it is also a commonly reported phenomenon in volunteer tourism literature (McGehee, 2012; Singh & Singh, 2004; Stoddart & Rogerson, 2004; Stritch, 2011; van Egmond, 2007). In addition, some researchers have also identified cynical attitudes (as a result of idealism), caused by tourists who do not feel their aims and goals were achieved (Paciello et al., 2013). The inability to finish a project goal, or make an observable difference, is a common complaint that would remove idealistic thoughts of volunteer tourism in the future.

However, this trip involved relatively uncomplicated, straightforward and small scale goals due to the short timeframe. Unlike other more complex and involved volunteer tourism projects, the students were able to achieve the goals of building eight houses and helping two orphanages. While some were unhappy about the short timeframe, many returned from Cambodia with continued or even increased idealism about their ability to make a difference. Research on development education suggests it is important to reduce the complexity and uncertainty of poverty when teaching students about development issues. In this way, Asbrand (2008) contends "learners develop a positive attitude regarding the possibilities of acting in a globalised world" (p. 29). One could argue this experience has incorporated this concept with positive outcomes for the Rangitoto students.

5.4 Effects of volunteer tourism

5.4.1 Comparing the effects found in this case study with academic literature

Tourism, in all capacities, has the ability to change the individual (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981; Ryan, 1997). This change is often a result of the learning that tourists experience while travelling in a new culture or environment. Theories such as 'engagement theory' (Alexander & Bakir, 2010) and 'transformative learning' (Coghlan & Gooch, 2011) have explored the positive effects on tourists who experience learning in a relatively authentic context. Many effects of volunteer tourism were described in the previous Literature Review chapter and have been categorised under three main themes; personal development, changes in perspectives and increased social responsibility. The key findings from these themes are summarised in Table 11 below, accompanied by the effects identified by the students in this inquiry.

Table 11: Summary of key effects of volunteer tourism (for the tourist) identified in academic literature and Rangitoto College Cambodia house building trip, 2012.

Impact of experience	Summary of key effects from literature review *	Summary of key effects from this case study
Personal development	▪ Personal development ▪ A greater awareness of self ▪ Increased self-confidence ▪ Respect of resource availability ▪ Skill enhancement ▪ Appreciation of family ▪ Less materialistic ▪ More accepting of life ▪ New career direction	▪ More grateful / appreciative ▪ Respect of resource availability ▪ More motivated (study) ▪ Increased self-confidence ▪ Appreciation of family and friends ▪ Less materialistic ▪ More accepting of life ▪ Future career consolidation
Changes in perspective	▪ Broadening of the mind ▪ A global perspective ▪ Scale of own problems clearer ▪ Beyond stereotypes	▪ Broadening of the mind ▪ Scale of own problems clearer ▪ Stereotypes reduced
Increased social responsibility	▪ Gain sense of empowerment ▪ Increased civic attitude	▪ Gain sense of empowerment ▪ More motivated to help

This list incorporates the main effects identified in the literature and is not intended to be comprehensive.

The following section discusses in more depth the effects identified in Table 11. A comparative analysis of the academic literature with the findings from this inquiry has been undertaken using the themes of; personal development, changing perspectives and social responsibility. References to the literature highlighting concerns about unsubstantiated positive effects of volunteer tourism are also made. In addition, theories on adolescent development, pro-social behaviour and development education are explored in relation to the effects observed by the students in this study.

5.4.2 Personal development

Personal development is considered a process of improving ones self and building capacity to reach a potential. Numerous studies on volunteer tourists have identified this process, referring to self-actualisation, sense of self and identity formation (Coghlan & Gooch, 2011; Lyons, Deville, & Wearing, 2007; Sin, 2009; Singh & Singh, 2004; Zahra, 2011). As found in

scholarly research, elements of personal development were also identified in this inquiry. New attitudes about the Rangitoto students' own potential emerged. Increased value and appreciation for what the students had in their own lives was the most common effect of the trip for students. Many also identified an increased awareness of the importance of family and good friends. The desire to protect resources such as food and water and not waste educational opportunities was also recorded. Finally, some students identified being more relaxed about things since their return and an increased level of happiness as a result of being a volunteer tourist in Cambodia.

These findings are closely aligned to Wearing's (2001) four categories of personal development. His goal was to deconstruct the concept and convey the many different elements that volunteer tourism affects, such as:

- Personal awareness and learning – beliefs, values, abilities, limitations, understandings.
- Interpersonal awareness and learning – appreciation of others, communication, interaction.
- Confidence – a firmer belief in one's self, abilities and skills.
- Self-contentment – perceptions of one's self, appreciation, inner peace (p. 126).

The personal development effects identified in this study on secondary school students fit appropriately into all of Wearing's categorisations. Wearing (2001) acknowledges that the four categories are interrelated and "parallels and connections can be made" (p. 126). Connections between the categories in this inquiry can be represented using the theme of self-contentment. This category emerged as a sense of being relaxed and happiness reported by the students who, in turn, revealed changes in interpersonal awareness including; a reduced need for peer acceptance, engaging in more pro-social behaviour with family members and being less tolerant of self-indulgent behaviours. This alignment with Wearing's findings suggests that younger volunteer tourists experience similar personal development as their adult counterparts.

Wearing's (2001) study of YCI students also identified leisure and tourism as a mechanism of transformation. This concept has been explored by others in the field (Coghlan & Gooch, 2011; Jones, 2005). The idea of transformation emerged in this study when one third of students described the experience as 'life-changing' and others expressed difficulty at explaining what this trip meant to them. This process can be attributed to the intense learning experiences these students were subjected to. Some students acknowledged this through their belief that they had gained more from the experience than they gave. Others felt that one needed to

experience the trip personally to understand its effects. This implies that the student's hands-on learning during the trip could not be replicated in another situation.

Another area of personal development is that of self-identity. Alsaker and Kroger (2006) explain the concept as "how one uses knowledge about oneself-to find vocational, ideological and sexual roles within a society that best express 'who one is'" (p. 91). The learning experiences for students on this trip have been identified by the researcher as significant for some students in terms of self-identity. Similarly, Schott's (2011) in-depth interviews of university aged students in Guatemala found that "leisure and tourism are critical to the young person's personal development and sense of identity" (p. 67).

Eric Erikson's (1968) theory on adolescent development of self-identity suggests those with a firm commitment to an occupation, an ideology, and to social roles have reached 'identity achievement' (Alsaker & Kroger, 2006). This is a stage of feeling comfortable in one's self, something many adolescents struggle with (Arnett, 2010). Yet data gained from this inquiry suggests many felt closer to this point as a result of their volunteer tourism experience. Coleman and Hendry (2002) contend that identity achievement creates "psychologically healthier individuals that score highest on achievement motivation, moral reasoning, career maturity and social skills with peers" (p. 63). For some students in this inquiry, their decision to participate in this trip was based on a desire to learn more about themselves. The ability to take on the role of 'saviour' or 'aid worker' for a short period of time helped some students feel more comfortable with their aspirations for future careers, such as teachers and doctors (refer to Appendix 12j for student response examples). Interestingly, none of the Rangitoto College students identified career choices or ambitions when discussing why they applied for the trip. Regardless, the learning experiences seem to have consolidated their belief in the satisfaction these future roles will bring. This is consistent with research on young people who volunteer. Yates and Youniss (1996) found that "service is a vehicle through which adolescents develop in their self-understanding" (p. 93).

Some students developed an increased motivation to study and desire to not waste educational opportunities as a result of this trip. This is related to the concept of self-actualisation, a term first coined by Goldstein (1939) which describes a process of reaching an individual's capacities or potential. For Rangitoto students, educational pathways may provide the best access to opportunities in which that state can be reached. Some students expressed their desire to work harder for their NCEA exams as a direct result of their orphanage work. In this setting, the students learned about the level of importance orphans placed on education

to change their lives. However, this effect is not directly reported in other academic literature. Holmes and Smith (2009) contend that such research exists, stating "there is some evidence that a gap year can enhance subsequent educational performance" (p. 49). However, studies on university aged students reviewed for this inquiry did not reveal enhanced motivation to study as an outcome of volunteer tourism activities. In contrast, this effect has been associated with broader volunteer activities, whereby students who were engaged in a service learning opportunity reported an increased desire to study as a result of their pro social actions (Henderson, Brown, Pancer, & Ellis-Hale, 2007; Oesterlie, Johnson, & Mortimer, 2004; Youniss et al., 2002). The impact volunteer tourism can have on student motivation and success in educational pursuits is an area that requires further investigation.

Finally, while there are few longitudinal studies of the long term effects of volunteer tourism on personal development, there are some comprehensive studies on student exchange programmes. This research can provide some insight into the long term effects experiencing another culture in a developing country can have (Wearing, 2001, 2006). The American Field Service (AFS) foreign exchange programme has been subject to an extensive longitudinal study which is particularly relevant. Hansel's (1986, 2008) research on the effects of teenagers engaged in the programme began in 1980 and continued until 2008. Evidence of long term effects included positive changes in cultural awareness, open-mindedness, adaptability, communication and critical thinking well into adulthood.

5.4.3   Changes in perspective

Tourism is often seen as an opportunity to broaden ones horizon (Krippendorf, 1987) due to it being an educative process (Ryan, 1997). In volunteer tourism literature some studies have identified the emergence of a 'global perspective' as an outcome of this type of travel (Carter, 2008; Gmelch, 1997; Jones, 2005; Lepp, 2007; Wearing & Neil, 1999). Wearing (2001) uses the phrase "a larger view of the world" (p. 105) to explain this concept. Hansel (1988) applies the term 'international understanding' which involves the development of empathy and appreciation for different cultures. McGehee and Santos' (2005) study revealed "many participants reported that it changed their previously myopic and self-centred views of the world (p. 771).

In this inquiry, Rangitoto students reported a change in perspective closely aligned to McGehee and Santos' (2005) findings. They expressed an emergence of a more global picture in which to place their own lives. This was revealed by a number of students who expressed a

greater understanding of *'first world problems'* and the ability to view difficult situations within a broader context. For example Judith who said *"it broadens your view of the world and makes you more accepting of things".* For Katy, prior travel to America had created the impression that she was poor compared to others, but Cambodia changed that, and she returned thinking "w*e have everything compared to some people".* Over half the students attributed this trip to the formation of a more relaxed attitude towards everyday problems on their return. This is consistent with Alexander's (2012) research in South Africa, which found volunteer tourists had a "lighter outlook on life" and a "99.84% chance of a decrease in depressive feelings" (p. 787).

Adolescence is often seen as a time of being self-absorbed or self-obsessed (Arnett, 2010; Coleman & Hendry, 2002; Goossens, 2006). This is a direct result of adolescent egocentrism, which Arnett (2010) explains as a state whereby "because they [teenagers] think about themselves so much, they conclude that others must also be thinking about them a great deal" (p. 86). This is based on Elkind's (1967) theory of the 'imaginary audience' and the lack of cognitive ability to think about the thoughts of others (Arnett, 2010; Coleman & Hendry, 2002). As a result, when problems emerge in a teenager's life they can seem overwhelming. A volunteer tourism experience such as the Cambodia house building trip has the potential to help bring students' focus away from the self and see the problems that others must face. Ms Brown identifies this as an outcome of the trip, stating:

> *"I think a lot of kids in our society have a lot of issues because it's all about them. And doing something like this takes them out of themselves, it makes them think about other people and sometimes when you think of others you think less about yourself and get on with the business of living".*

This can be cathartic, leading to a much greater sense of contentment, as students can place their own lives in relation to others more easily (Schott, 2011; Zahra & McIntosh, 2007). While this inquiry cannot claim these effects to be long term, it suggests that a volunteer tourism experience can reduce the impact of adolescent egocentrism in some way, a state which reduces significantly in late adolescence (Arnett, 2010).

Evidence of the potential impact of gaining a new perspective was revealed in this study through Judith, a participant whose family experienced a very sad event while she was in Cambodia. In hearing this news, Judith was able to use her experience while building houses to help reduce her personal suffering and create something meaningful. She stated *"I think in*

that space it influenced the way I saw things on the trip and heal from such a horrible thing that happened". This type of impact has been recorded in other studies such as Alexandra (2012) whose research in South Africa reported one volunteer tourist who found his volunteer tourism experience a positive way to help him deal with a recent divorce.

Rangitoto College students also gained new perspectives on the lives of those living in poverty. The deprivation witnessed on this trip was a surprise and shock for many. However, equally surprising for students was the level of happiness they observed while interacting with those living in such conditions (e.g. street children and slum dwellers). These 'connecting' experiences left most students with an impression that, overall, the Khmer were happy and content people (refer to Appendix 12k for student examples). Many students also expressed an admiration of the Khmer people, living in such difficult circumstances and having experienced such a traumatic history. This is aligned to Hansel's (1988) concept of 'international understanding' whereby students have developed an appreciation for the Khmer people and their way of life.

Some researchers are critical of the 'poor but happy' perspective many who experience volunteer tourism adopt (Guttentag, 2009; Raymond & Hall, 2008). Simpson (2004) describes it as "romanticizing poverty" (p. 688) whereby material inequality can be justified because the host community has social or emotional wealth instead. The idea that everyone is happier in the developing world is commonly reported in academic literature on adult volunteer tourists (McGehee, 2012a; Palacios, 2010; Singh & Singh, 2004; Stritch, 2011). Like other short term volunteer tourism encounters, there is a risk that Rangitoto students have over simplified or under estimated the lives of people they encountered. Without a meaningful cultural exchange (such as living with a host family for a significant period of time) it would be difficult for students to understand the complexities of a community within a developing country (Handy et al., 2010; Hansel, 1988).

Another criticism of the effects of volunteer tourism on perspectives is that it reinforces the dichotomy of 'us and them' (Guttentag, 2009, 2011; Simpson, 2004). Over half the Rangitoto students expressed the view that the Khmer people were "just like us" and "normal", suggesting the 'us and them' dichotomy was challenged rather than reinforced in some way. The volunteer work at New Future for Children, where interactions occurred with orphans of a similar age, was particularly important. Conversations whereby students and orphans shared information about their daily lives, ambitions for the future, school experiences, etc. were learning experiences for the Rangitoto students. For example Katy said *"everyone wanted an*

education and all the kids wanted to do well at school. I hadn't thought about that before". Some identified this as a catalyst for a new understanding that regardless of where people are born, they have the same issues, ambitions and desires as they do.

Evaluations of youth based cultural exchange programmes (often one year in length) reveal a lasting impact on young people who develop a more worldly and global perspective (Bachner & Zeutschel, 2009; Hansel, 1988). This new outlook ensures young people are prepared for living in an increasingly globalised world (Bourn, 2008; Scheunpflug, 2008). The findings of this inquiry highlight a range of learning experiences that can benefit students in their increasingly connected world. However, while student perspectives in this inquiry have broadened, the effect may be short term. Unlike the total immersion of a cultural exchange, this brief volunteer tourism encounter may not provide the sustained experience required to instil a permanent change in perspective. A longitudinal study is needed to reveal the impact a short volunteer tourism experience can have on the long term outlook for the students involved.

Eurocentrism - a perspective reinforced or reduced?

The concept of Eurocentrism and neo-colonialism are discussed in volunteer tourism literature (Guttentag, 2009; Palacios, 2010; Pike & Beames, 2007; Raymond & Hall, 2008; Simpson, 2004; Sin, 2009) and have also been identified in youth travel literature (Moisa, 2010). Eurocentrism implies a tourist is making judgments and values based decisions through a European lens or cultural viewpoint. In the process of carrying out volunteer work, there is always a risk that Eurocentric viewpoints and behaviours of European superiority may emerge or be reinforced (Guttentag, 2009, 2011). The concept of volunteer tourism mimicking the colonial past is expressed by Diprose (2012) who suggests international volunteering invokes parallel experiences to those of the 19th century.

Researchers suggest stereotyping and stigmatisation can emerge from those wanting to give service (Pike & Beames, 2007). It is often used as a criticism of commercial volunteer tourism ventures. For example Wearing (2001) states "one fundamental danger is that volunteers can reiterate the ethos of the 'expert' thus promoting deference in the local community to outside knowledge, therefore contributing to the curtailment of self-sufficiency" (p. 51). In addition Palacios (2010) argues that when volunteer tourists with little experience in the developing world "embrace the goal of development aid, negative outcomes such like Eurocentrism, conflict and public critiques are likely to appear" (p. 871).

While no overtly Eurocentric comments were made by the participants, some statements implied such a view. Phrases like "*they don't realise what we realise*" were recorded and "*if they could just pick up the rubbish*" could be interpreted as students feeling their understandings were superior. In addition, an over-simplification of their experiences in Cambodia were commonly expressed by students, signalling that they did not fully comprehend the complexity of aid work and poverty. For example Leith, who said:

> "*Because going to Cambodia made me think of how easy it can be to give service and over there, even like $5 could make such a change and there are probably so many out there that can easily be helped and give attention so volunteer work would be really cool.*"

In addition, some students expressed strong views about the importance of environmental issues. Many were surprised at the level of pollution and some students implied Westerners could help with their superior knowledge. For example Jenna who said:

> "*Well, I think we should teach them stuff to do for themselves, like a sewerage system in the floating village... I mean the Romans worked out how to work their water and stuff, so...* [implies the Khmer could learn too] *It's a way to keep them healthy.*"

These statements could also be linked to the idealism many students had in relation to their interactions with the host community and the impact aid can have.

Overall, the learning experiences of this trip suggest the students have developed a broader understanding of development issues. However, without a structured programme of learning based on effective development education pedagogy, it cannot be assumed that Eurocentric attitudes have been removed or reduced (Simpson, 2005). Raymond and Hall's (2008) research into 10 case studies found that "while cross-cultural understanding has the potential to develop through volunteer tourism, it cannot be assumed to be an automatic outcome" (p. 538). Understanding the impact of an educational strategy aimed at reducing stereotypes and promoting sustained long term positive global understandings would be beneficial for any volunteer tourism programme, regardless of age.

5.4.4   Increased social responsibility

An increased sense of social responsibility was a significant effect identified in this inquiry, which is consistent with numerous studies involving older volunteer tourists. Wearing (2001)

believes these experiences provide enormous motivation for university students to continue to help others less fortunate and engage in future social action. In addition, Fitzmaurice Kuttner (2009) highlights the importance of the learning involved, as it provides an increased incentive and they will "learn how to improve the system" (p. 10).

Almost all the Rangitoto students indicated an increased desire to help others in the future. They expressed this in numerous ways including; engaging in more volunteer tourism (discussed in more detail in the section below), focusing on helping New Zealanders in need and an increased desire to work in education or medicine. This is consistent with Alexander's (2012) research on volunteer tourists in South Africa. Using a control group to enhance validity, it revealed the desire for increased social action. However, Alexander warns that the benefits of an increase in social responsibility are "potential and not inevitable impacts of volunteer tourism" (p. 780). Without the insight of a longitudinal study, it is difficult to state the actual effect on Rangitoto student's levels of social responsibility.

The theory of behaviouralism, discussed previously in the motivations section, can help explain a desire to be more socially responsible after a volunteer tourism experience. For most students, a consequence of their participation was a positive feeling of success in accomplishing what they had set out to do; students felt they had achieved something meaningful and worthwhile for others. This has created a new or increased desire to help others in the future, especially when travelling in the developing world. This phenomenon is also recorded in studies of youth engaged in volunteer work (Cemalcilar, 2009; Damon, Menon, & Bronk, 2003; Larson et al., 2006; Marta, 2008). Bronk's (2012) research of nine adolescents over five years reveals a similar consequence, stating they "derived pleasure and a deep sense of meaningfulness from engagement in their noble purposes" (p. 90). Bronk's study suggests this consequence may be long term as "this belief helped sustain the young people's commitments over time" (p. 90).

The importance of the learning process in developing a sense of social responsibility has been the subject of many studies (Asbrand, 2008; Bourn, 2008; Scheunpflug, 2008). Development education involves learning about global inequality and the "the promotion of action for change" (Bourn, 2008: p. 4). Pedagogical research is limited; however, some have identified the power of short term volunteer tourism trips as an educational tool. Research suggests it can help create a sense of global citizenship and reduce the 'us and them' dichotomy (Bourn, 2008; Diprose, 2012; Harrison, 2005). This is in sharp contrast to Simpson (2005) and Guttentag (2009) who believe short term volunteer tourism without an education strategy will

reinforce this dichotomy. For the full potential of this trip as an agent for social change to be realised, learning in a more monitored and evaluated form may be beneficial. Further research into the potentials of development education for secondary school students engaged in volunteer tourism is required.

5.4.5   Possible long term tourism effects

Does volunteer tourism in school aged students lead to volunteer tourism in adulthood? Findings from this inquiry suggest that travel behaviour could be affected in the future. Every student in this inquiry expressed a strong desire to continue travelling and most wanted to participate in another volunteer tourism experience in the developing world (refer to Appendix 12i for student response examples). In addition, many identified Cambodia as being very special to them and that had a desire to return. Wearing (2001) uses the term 'place identity', whereby the space in which the volunteer tourism occurred is known for the connections made with local people and the influence on their lives. It is a focus point for a sense of self- and "psychological well-being" (Wearing, 2001: p. 115). The impact of place identity and the positive associations students made from this trip may influence future travel choices in the long term. In fact, some students implied that they will endeavour to avoid mass tourism experiences later in life. In addition, many students stated that they were going to encourage their friends and/or family to participate in this form of travel too, for example Jenna who has encouraged her grandmother to travel to Cambodia.

These findings were a dominant theme in which every student expressed a similar view. This has led to the creation of a future travel decision impact model, presented in Figure 10 below. The model proposes that students have been impacted by this volunteer tourism experience, which generally fulfilled or exceeded motivational desires and expectations. This has created a cycle where new desires for further volunteer tourism experiences emerge or new people (i.e. friends and family) have been motivated to try this type of experience. This cycle is aligned to behaviouralism and idealism, two theories discussed previously. It is predicted that repeated volunteer tourism experiences over time will reduce the desire for some travellers, as new motivations and reduced idealism emerges throughout adulthood. Therefore this model is proposed as an adolescent volunteer tourism travel cycle only.
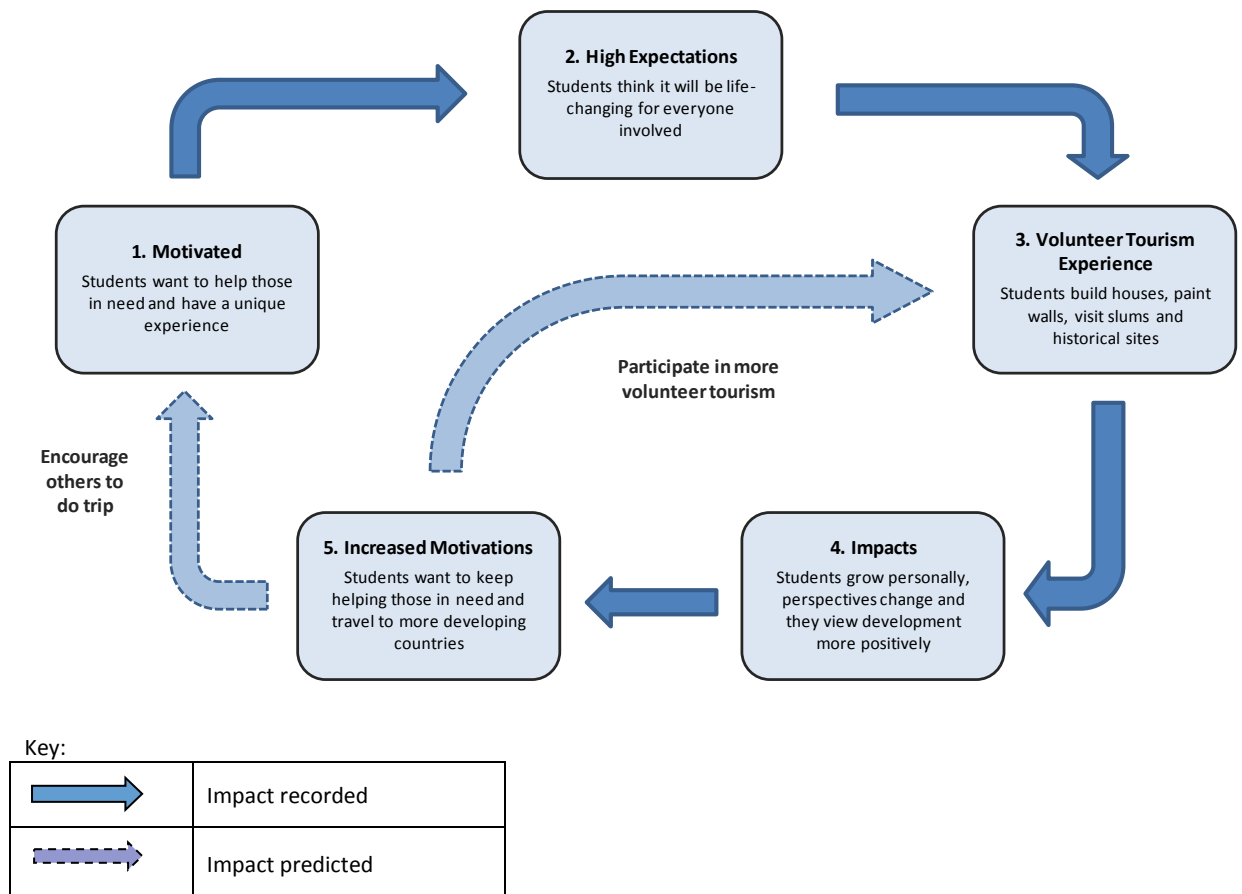
Figure 10: The impact of the Rangitoto College Cambodia house-building trip on student's future travel decisions: A proposed adolescent volunteer tourism travel cycle model.

While there are very few longitudinal studies on the long term travel effects of volunteer tourism, however data suggests that students who volunteer in the school based years are more likely to volunteer in adulthood (Smith et al., 2010). Therefore, there is a likelihood that this travel experience will impact on Rangitoto students' travel decisions in the future. In addition, some students specifically referred to a desire for this effect to be long term. For example Sophia, who said "*I like to hope I still feel that way, and I hope I feel like that always. I don't think this trip is only going to affect me in the short term, but rather forever*". Does an experience such as the Rangitoto College Cambodia house building trip have the potential to create meaningful long term changes in students' lives? Addressing this question in a scholarly manner, would be beneficial for educators, parents, youth workers, tourist operators and anyone who promotes the value of service learning.

5.5   Conclusion

This inquiry aimed to explore a demographic group yet to be a focus in academic literature. With no prior research on secondary school students, this research provides insights into teenage volunteer tourism through a case study using an inductive, exploratory approach. The findings have been discussed using two different methods. Firstly, comparative analysis, which revealed that many findings in this inquiry have also been observed in scholarly research on older volunteer tourists. Some differences have emerged, but in general the motivations, experiences and effects of this trip were consistent with many other studies. Secondly, well referenced theories on adolescent development were discussed in relation to the findings. Key theories around moral development, idealism and self-identity provide some insight into the differences that adolescence may bring to a volunteer tourism experience. Overall, the discussion has revealed areas requiring further research. This would facilitate more accurate and meaningful conclusions about secondary school students engaged in volunteer tourism. It would also benefit the volunteer tourism industry which currently engages with secondary school students in New Zealand. The three main research questions have been summarised in the following Conclusion chapter.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

"Reflections and Renovations"

"I always thought it would be an amazing trip, but I would go back there any day. I really want to go back. I went to America at the beginning of the year and it was so much better than that trip. Cambodia is so different and we did something positive. You come back from America and you think 'we don't have that much compared to some people' but when you come back from Cambodia it's like 'we have everything compared to some people'. It's opposite; it helps put things into perspective". – Katy

6.1 Introduction

The purpose of this inquiry was to explore the experiences of an age group not presently represented in volunteer tourism literature; secondary school students. The motivations, experiences and effects of volunteer tourism have been explored inductively. In this process the researcher has given a group of New Zealand 16 and 17 year olds a 'voice' within the tourism discourse, providing an insight into this younger demographic. The focus of this chapter is to provide a context within which to place these insights. This has been achieved by presenting a summary of the key findings for each research question and explaining the implications of this knowledge for relevant groups including the tourism industry, education,

school trip organisers, parents and academia. The limitations of this inquiry are considered and an extensive list of recommendations for further research has been made. The chapter concludes with a final reflection about this exploratory case study inquiry.

6.2   Summary of key findings

This research was an exploratory, qualitative inquiry using a case study research method. Primary data were collected from students and teachers through a series of interviews and a focus group. Semi structured student interviews before and after the trip provided data about the motivations, expectations, experiences and effects of the volunteer trip. A teacher focus group and lead teacher interview also provided further data from which the researcher could interpret, analyse and seek to answer the research questions. The results of this inquiry are summarised under each research question below.

Question one: Why do secondary school students participate in volunteer tourism?

This inquiry found a variety of internal and external factors that motivated Rangitoto students to participate in a volunteer tourism trip. The two most predominant reasons were the desires to help others less fortunate (altruism) and to experience something different (exploration). Opportunities for personal growth and gaining a new perspective were also discussed by one third of the students. Prior experiences of charity work and international travel were common internal factors shared by the participants; suggesting that previous experiences of these activities had been positive, encouraging further engagement with this type of experience.

Secondly, a range of external factors also motivated students, in particular the encouragement of friends and family was important. Significant financial support was provided by family members in all but one case. In addition, the influence of the school itself was identified, with teachers who discussed the history of Cambodia and house building trip with their classes and peers encouraging students to apply. Students perceived a trip organised by the school would be a safe way of gaining a new experience.

Overall, the most frequently reported motivational factors in this case study are consistent with much of the adult and university aged student academic literature. Themes including altruism, exploration and personal development are closely aligned with scholarly research. However, the absence of résumé development as a motivation (commonly reported in university students) was interesting, suggesting that, unlike university students, the Rangitoto students did not identify the trip as beneficial for future study or job opportunities.

Question two: How do secondary school student expectations compare with actual experiences?

Students had a wide range of expectations about this volunteer tourism experience. Some were more prepared than others in terms of their prior knowledge of Cambodia and their prior experience of travel abroad. Student expectations of the most rewarding aspect of the trip were generally aligned to their actual enjoyment of the trip. Volunteer work for many students was the main reason for their participation and therefore, expectations of these activities being meaningful and memorable were high. This was in fact the case for almost all students who found the house building and/or orphanage work to be the most enjoyable.

However, many students were not prepared for the emotional intensity of this volunteer tourism experience. This was particularly true when visiting the Killing Fields and S21 where strong feelings emerged. Prior to departure, some students acknowledged that seeing the poverty would be difficult. During their trip, most students found visiting the slum community in Phnom Penh challenging and uncomfortable. In addition, many students expected the house building day to be physically exhausting. In reality, the students were surprised at how easy the task was and one third of students were disappointed that they completed the houses so quickly and that only one day was dedicated to this activity.

While student predictions about the positive and rewarding trip activities were often aligned with their actual experiences, most had misjudged the more difficult trip activities. They were unprepared for some of the images that confronted them as volunteer tourists in Cambodia. While many students had predicted the poverty would be difficult to see, the actual reality of witnessing poverty in the slum community was more extreme than any student was truly prepared for. In addition, concerns about travelling in a developing country (such as getting sick) either did not eventuate or were not as important as students predicted while away.

Question three: How does the volunteer tourism experience affect secondary school students?

Three main types of effects of this volunteer tourism experience were recorded; personal development, changes in perspective and an increased desire to be socially responsible. Many students expressed a change in their attitudes and values regarding themselves, close friends and family members and the community at large. Examples include; being more grateful for their way of life, having more faith in their abilities, being less wasteful of food and water, helping more at home and taking advantage of opportunities. These changes reflect personal growth and are closely aligned to the literature on university aged and adult volunteer tourists.

In addition, over half the students felt their perspective had been broadened and in doing so, they understood the concept of 'first world problems' more clearly. By comparing their own lives with those in Cambodia, students expressed the ability to judge the problems they face at home in New Zealand in a broader context. This resulted in one third of students feeling more relaxed and content since their return home, a common effect also found in adult volunteer tourism research.

In regards to socially responsible behaviour, students identified an increased confidence in their ability to 'make a difference' which lead to an increased desire to help others (increased altruism) in the future. Also, every student expressed a desire to continue to travel in the developing world (with most wanting to volunteer when travelling again) as a result of their Cambodian experience.

Overall, these effects are the students own observations, made within weeks of their return from Cambodia. Critics of volunteer tourism argue that such effects must not be assumed and that evidence via a longitudinal study is required to gauge the lasting impacts. Therefore these findings reveal only the immediate effects of a volunteer tourism experience on secondary school students as perceived by those students. How enduring they will remains unknown.

6.3   Implications of this inquiry

Volunteer tourism is a growing and increasingly important market within the travel industry. While current data is unavailable, publications put the number between 600,000 to 1.6 million travellers each year (Tomazos & Cooper, 2011; TRAM, 2008). Such tourists have a new perspective on travelling with Rochester et al. (2011) arguing that "the underlying ethos has changed from a one sided gift relationship to one based on mutual benefit an exchange" (p. 111). The increasing numbers of secondary school students wanting to make a meaningful contribution while travelling has many implications.

Implications for the travel industry

This inquiry suggests that demand for volunteer tourism experiences will continue to grow in the future as young people seek more volunteer tourism opportunities. Webster (2012) contends that "young people are an important target group for destination marketing because they are the current and future consumer" (p. 143). Most Rangitoto students indicated they would continue to undertake this type of travel in the future. At present a small number of

commercially based organisations, such as World Challenge, give New Zealand schools the support and means to organise such trips (World Challenge, 2013).

However, providers need to be aware of the abilities and limitations that secondary school students bring to overseas volunteer projects. Adults often lack the skills, understanding and adaptability needed to make a significant difference in a host community (Barbieri, Santos, & Katsube, 2012; Butcher & Smith, 2010; Lyons & Wearing, 2007; McGehee, 2012a). Teenagers will be even more lacking in these factors. Finding appropriate projects in which this age group can make a useful contribution in a short timeframe (e.g. school holiday period) and in a relatively safe environment is challenging.

Within this case study setting, the tasks of 'house building' and 'orphanage work' did provide students with a sense of accomplishment and enjoyment. Therefore, there is potential for growth in this field. However, it must be done with the age, experience and capabilities of younger students in mind. In addition, the findings in this inquiry suggest that timeframe given to a volunteer project is an important consideration, with age appropriate minimum and maximum timings needed to ensure students gain a sense of achievement without becoming overwhelmed.

Implications for education

The findings suggest that volunteer tourism has the potential to make a meaningful contribution to a young person's schooling. This can be seen in two ways; developing socially responsible 'global citizens' and engaging in best practice development education. Ms Brown, the lead teacher, argues that "*in education you are in the business of not just educating their minds but also their emotions, their social development and their understanding of the world around them*". In other countries there is a growing movement encouraging schools to do just that by promoting and fostering pro-social behaviours and moral reasoning through volunteerism (Rice, 2008). Singapore, Canada and the USA all have funding available for this type of overseas experience (Bailey & Russell, 2010; Henderson et al. , 2007; Sin, 2009). In New Zealand the Ministry of Education has introduced social action learning and a curriculum document that promotes the values of equity, diversity, contribution, participation and positive citizenship (Ministry of Education, 2008). Volunteer tourism in schools can potentially provide learning opportunities that will help foster these values in young people. The findings from this inquiry suggest such values do emerge in the short term.

However, the review of literature revealed that deep learning and 'transformation' should not be assumed as a result of an experience. Simpson (2005) warns that "deliberate educational strategies remain wanting, leaving the industry dependent on assumptions about the value of contact and the inevitability of learning by experience" (p. 465). Short timeframes and limited immersion opportunities could be significant barriers to reaching the learning potential from such an experience. Best practice development education explored by Bourn (2008) and Schenpflug (2008) and a strong reflection and evaluation programme suggested by Raymond (2007) should be incorporated into any volunteer tourism trip within an education context.

Implications for schools

It is important for schools (and potential trip organisers who are often teachers) to ascertain whether this type of travel is appropriate for their students. Are secondary school students ready, both socially and psychologically, to carry out volunteer work in developing countries or isolated wilderness areas? These findings suggest that the 16 and 17 year old female students in this study appeared ready to engage in volunteer experiences in the developing world.

Theories on adolescence aside, the Rangitoto students generally interpreted their experience in a very similar manner to their adult counterparts in the academic literature. The lead teacher of this trip had taken age into consideration when planning the experience. This is reflected in the short time span in which the volunteer work occurs, the skill level required to ensure a successful volunteer project is completed and the safety provided by tour operators, transportation and accommodation options chosen.

However, Cambodia's violent political history (e.g. The Khmer Rouge) and the extreme poverty witnessed by students at the slum village did create highly emotional states involving numerous crying episodes. This suggests that young people, while prepared for the positive activities involved in volunteer work, need to be monitored and supported throughout the trip, especially when confronted by the challenging circumstances of poverty and dark tourism.

Hansel's (1988) study into cultural exchange programmes suggests heightened emotional engagement is a powerful tool for learning and removing all stressful situations will reduce the learning potential. A well designed educational component would help students understand and process these experiences, ensuring that the challenging aspects of a trip lead to positive outcomes rather than leaving students scarred from the experience.

Implications for parents

The findings of this inquiry provide some insight for parents into the positive effects such a trip can have on their children. Often parents make financial sacrifices for a child to participate in an international trip while in secondary school with little empirical evidence of the results. This study suggests there are benefits, in the short term at least, for their efforts.

The literature review also revealed that this type of experience can provide students with skills and understandings that universities and employers' value (Palacios, 2010; Simpson, 2005). In the future, volunteer tourism may play an increasingly pivotal role in preparing young people for acceptance into New Zealand's universities and the job market. If New Zealand's society becomes more competitive, like the USA and the UK, the parental demand for such trips within a school setting may grow.

Implications for academia

In terms of the academic body of literature on volunteer tourism, this research makes a meaningful contribution through its exploration of an age group not often found in tourism publications. By specifically focusing on 16 and 17 year olds, and using qualitative research methods, the 'voice' of secondary school students has been explored. In addition, Webster (2012) argues that there is limited research on the consumer habits of young tourists. There are many studies on older youth travelling between leaving secondary school and beginning tertiary education or employment (e.g. the gap year). This study has focused on students who are not yet at that life stage.

In addition, the methodological approach adopted in this study has been rigorous. Interviews before and after the experience, the use of photo elicitation techniques and interviewing teachers to compare with student responses, means data collected are robust and have allowed for in depth analysis and discussion. It has also highlighted areas for further research (as discussed in the section below) and corroborated other studies that call for further longitudinal research into the effects of volunteer tourism experiences.

6.4   Limitations of this inquiry

As with all research, there are limitations to this inquiry.

Firstly, this study focused on a case that is not representative of the most commonly found volunteer tourism experiences in New Zealand secondary schools (such as those organised by

World Challenge). While all destinations are unique, the Rangitoto College Cambodia house building trip had a particularly short volunteer work component. In addition, the element of dark tourism associated with Cambodia's tragic history heightened the emotional intensity of this experience, something not representative of all volunteer tourism experiences.

In addition, this research cannot provide generalisations about secondary school students engaged in volunteer tourism as these findings apply to Rangitoto College only. The use of one case study means generalisations are rarely justified (Yin, 2003). Lyons, Hanley, Wearing and Neil (2012) criticise the continual use of a single research case which does not allow for "generalisable analysis between participants, experiences and the nature of the volunteer activity" (p. 373). However, this was an exploratory study into secondary school students, designed to reveal new understandings rather than provide generalisations or formulate theory about adolescent volunteer tourism.

As the student participants were all female, the findings in this inquiry reflect only one gender experience. While male secondary school students do participate in volunteer tourism trips in New Zealand, this inquiry is unable to offer any insight into their motivations, experiences and effects.

A commonly reported limitation in a qualitative study is the bias a researcher who is closely associated to a case will bring. This potential for bias has been acknowledged and addressed in the Research Methods chapter. The researcher had prior knowledge of the case due to her experience as both a school teacher and participant of the trip. This may have increased the risk of confirmation bias (Nickerson, 1998) in which the researcher may unwittingly treat data selectively "when a valued belief is at risk" (Nickerson, 1998; p. 205). In reality, the researcher was particularly sensitive to data that were critical of the volunteer tourism experience. Therefore, while attempting to mitigate potential bias, a reverse bias may have resulted instead. Guttenberg (2011) argues there is significant bias in volunteer tourism research, in which trips have "received considerable praise and comparatively little scepticism" (p. 72). This study may do little to alleviate Guttenberg's concerns.

In relation to data collection, one limitation identified in literature is that of the 'social desirability' factor (Coupey, 1997; Faux, Walsh, & Deatrick, 1988; Hamilton & Fenzel, 1988). Students being interviewed may have provided answers they thought were desired as opposed to their true thoughts and feelings. For example, in regards to motivations, Hardy et al. (2010) states "most students find it difficult and embarrassing to admit they are volunteering only to

enhance their private benefits" (p. 516). It is more socially accepted to undertake this type of experience for altruistic reasons rather than personal gain and this aspect may have been over emphasised. In addition, both the students and the teachers were aware of the researcher's former experience of the trip which may have increased their desire to respond positively in order to please to researcher. This is particularly a risk when the researcher is in a position of perceived authority (McGehee, 2012b). Guttentag (2011) and Bowen (2009) also highlight a 'social desirability factor' in adult volunteer tourism research, whereby having invested significant funds in a trip designed for personal development, volunteers want these outcomes to be real, regardless of real transformation occurring. For those students who paid for at least half of the trip, this may have resulted in them embellishing the effects during the interview.

Another limitation was the short timeframes in which data were collected on the effects of volunteer tourism. Due to time restrictions associated with a Master's thesis, post trip interviews occurred just one month after the volunteer tourism experience. While students observed changes, the long term effects of such cannot be known. In addition, by relying on student interviews to collect data on effects, it is difficult to verify their responses. As with the 'social desirability' factor, students may have wanted to believe there were positive changes but those around them may not share this belief. Questioning family members and friends about changes in participants (e.g. asking siblings if their sisters were in fact nicer to them) would help increase the validity of these findings.

The design of the interview questions was limiting in certain respects. The researcher used 'the best experiences' and 'the worst experiences' as a reference point for students to begin discussing the trip and the important events for them. However, this line of questioning did not allow for experiences that did not evoke strong emotional responses to emerge easily. This may have skewed the data in a more emotional context that other lines of questioning would have done. Also in doing so, judgments were made on the experiences worth discussing. In addition, many researchers suggest one hour interview times as being appropriate to gather the data required. Occasionally interview lengths were very short (13 minutes in some cases) as some students provided concise answers to the questions. As this was an exploratory study, the researcher avoided pointing or directing questions to ensure results were inductive. However, many themes may have been missed as a result of the limited questioning technique of the researcher.

6.5   Further research

As this inquiry was exploratory, a wide range of areas for further study have emerged. Firstly, as with many other studies in this field, this inquiry only provides a short term insight into the effects of volunteer tourism on young people. The lack of longitudinal studies needed to gauge the sustained impacts on attitudes and behaviours are fundamentally lacking in the discourse on volunteer tourism (Alexander, 2012; Guttentag, 2009; Lyons, Hanley, Wearing, & Neil, 2012). Revisiting participants in the future, to identify and evaluate the effect of this volunteer tourism experience in a later life stage would help build a more rigorous understanding of this phenomenon.

Further research into other secondary school volunteer tourism experiences is important. Gaining a holistic understanding of the diversity of participants, motivations, experiences and effects will be beneficial for everyone involved. In terms of adult volunteer tourism, Holmes and Smith (2009) argue there are more than enough case study approaches on volunteer tourism and now researchers must "conceptualise tourism volunteering more widely" (p. 44). However, more case studies are needed in school based volunteer tourism before trends, patterns, generalisations and theory can emerge.

This inquiry has generated a range of conceptual models using data collected from the Rangitoto students. However, these models can only be applied to this particular case at this point in time. With further research into other secondary school based volunteer tourism, these may be modified to provide academically rigorous theoretical based models applicable to young people engaging in this type of tourism generally. Of particular interest to the tourism industry would be the proposed model on future adolescent travel behaviour as a result of this type of travel during school years (refer to Figure 10).

Paciello, Fida, Tramontano, Cole and Cerniglia (2013) argue for future research into the development of adolescent moral reasoning in relation to volunteering, stating "we know relatively little about the links between reasoning and action" (p. 205). It is this type of research that will provide valuable insights into the dominance of females in volunteer tourism, as reflected in this inquiry. Research into the moral development in males, and their perceptions of volunteer tourism as social action, would assist schools trying to engage boys in this type of experience. In addition, further understandings will be gained about possible age limits that should be applied to this type of tourism within a school setting.

Within the wider range of data collected in this inquiry, areas for future research also emerged. Firstly, culture became a point of interest when those with shared ethnic backgrounds revealed similar attitudes and viewpoints. For example participants from one particular ethnic group talked about status and class in their interviews whereas other ethnic groups did not. The impact of culture has been identified in the literature (Schott, 2011) but has yet to be a particular focus of research analysis, often due to ethical issues of protecting individual identities in qualitative data findings. However, this is an area that requires further investigation.

Secondly, little research has been found on pre-trip commitments around volunteer tourism in adults or university aged students. The level of commitment required from travellers before a volunteer trip (in terms of fundraising and preparation) may have a significant affect on the level of satisfaction and effects this type of travel could have. In regards to Rangitoto College and New Zealand schools who engage in the World Challenge, significant sacrifices are made prior to departure, this component of the trip requires further research.

Thirdly, the potential effects volunteer tourism can have on student motivation and success in educational pursuits is an area that requires further investigation.

In terms of maximising the potential benefits of volunteer tourism, a very important area that requires scholarly attention is on the prospective effects of a structured education programme. In particular the importance of an evaluation programme which has been suggested by others in this field. Studies involving the development, implementation and evaluation of a structured education programme for school based volunteer tourism would be beneficial.

Finally, like many other volunteer tourism studies, little insight has been gained into the impact of this trip on the host community. Barbieri et al. (2012) contend that while everyone involved recognises that volunteer tourism can alleviate poverty, the true extent of such actions are not yet fully understood. Research into the effects of secondary school students engaged in volunteer work from the host community point of view would be valuable, especially in regards to the possible limitations that young people bring to such projects.

6.6   Final thoughts

Volunteer tourism is a significant and growing area in one of the world's largest industries. Increasingly, young people in developed countries such as New Zealand, are choosing to engage in this type of alternative travel and have the financial abilities to do so. Volunteer tourism provides young people with the potential to make a positive contribution to both the industry and host communities they visit. Their youthful energy together with idealism and a desire to address social injustice can create a mutually beneficial travel experience. The result can be particularly significant when young people are involved, as Judith explains:

> *"It's important for young people, like teenagers to go, because they are so easily influenced. So if we are influenced, we won't just have tunnel vision, we can see more [after a trip like this]. At school and at home you are taught to think and act in a certain way and there are expectations of you. But this trip shows you there is more to life than that".*

Volunteer tourism can be a powerful force for change. By allowing young people to undertake these experiences at such an early age, momentum can be added to that force.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Rangitoto College Cambodia house building trip itinerary, 2012

DATES	ACTIVITY
Saturday Sept 29th	**Meet at Auckland Airport at 8.30 pm** **Depart New Zealand 11.50pm**
Sunday Sept 30th	Arrive Singapore 6.40am (Terminal 3) / Depart Singapore 10.40am (Terminal 2) Arrive **Siem Reap, Cambodia** 11.50am Dinner at Kingdom Angkor Hotel or in town
Monday Oct 1st	Begin the day with an **Elephant ride** into the **Angkor Thom** complex Visit **Ta Prom** and then have lunch opposite Angkor Wat Visit the **Angkor Wat** complex *Dinner together at the **Koulen II Restaurant** with **Apsara Dancing Show**
Tuesday Oct 2nd	Balloon riding in the morning if weather permits Visit local communities on **Tonle Sap** (lake) Lunch in town at "**The Blue Pumpkin**" and then a visit to local **markets.** Dinner in town followed by a visit to the **Night Market**.
Wednesday Oct 3rd	Cooking class in the village of **Kompheim** (Ladybird Village) about 20km from Siem Reap Visit the **Landmine Museum** in the afternoon Dinner in Pub Street and Night Market
Thursday Oct 4th	Depart Siem Reap 10.40am / Arrive **Phnom Penh** 11.25am Transfer to Golden Gate Hotel Lunch near our hotel followed by a **City Tour** by tuk-tuk to see the waterfront, Wat Phnom, and the **Central Market**. Dinner is booked for 6.30pm at **FRIENDS** restaurant (a local NGO) .
Friday Oct 5th	Orientation meeting for house building at **Tabitha Foundation** headquarters Visit the **Killing Fields** and have lunch at **Boddhi Tree Umma** (booked between 1-2pm) Visit **Tuol Sleng** (the infamous S21 Prison) in the afternoon followed by the **Russian Market**. Dinner at a local restaurant
Saturday Oct 6th	**House building** day Early start to travel to village where we will be building the houses. Dinner at local restaurant
Sunday Oct 7th	Visit the **Russian Markets** to buy balls and books, etc for the children at CCH and NFC. Visit the **Centre For Children's Happiness** (an orphanage that recues children from the infamous and recently closed Smoky Mountain rubbish dump). We will sing and entertain, play games, teach English and read to the children. Dinner at a local restaurant
Monday Oct 8th	Visit and work at **New Future For Children orphanage –** painting fence, teaching English Farewell to Cambodia dinner at Phnom Penh's most famous restaurant, **Foreign Correspondents Club** (booked 6.30pm)
Tuesday Oct 9th	Depart Phnom Penh 12.20 pm Arrive **Singapore** 3.20pm Evening cruise on the Singapore River, Dinner either in Chinatown or Orchard Road
Wednesday Oct 10th	Singapore sightseeing/shopping - Leave hotel at 5pm to travel to airport Depart Singapore 9.10pm
Thursday Oct 11th	**Arrive Auckland Airport 11.50am**

Appendix 2: Letter to Board of Trustees seeking trip permission

PROPOSED TRIP TO CAMBODIA
SEPT/OCT HOLIDAYS 2012

REASONS FOR TRAVEL
- To enable senior students to view and experience life in one of the poorest countries in the world.
- To continue to foster the relationships that have been established with various aid organisations in Cambodia such as the Tabitha Foundation and two orphanages in Phnom Penh, CCH (Centre for Children's Happiness) and NFC (New Future for Children).
- To encourage students to give back to the global community in practical and meaningful ways by enabling students to participate in the experience of fundraising for and then the building of houses for families who would otherwise not be able to fund their own adequate shelter.
- To encourage the sentiment among the participating students that while "it may be impossible for them to change the world; it is possible to make a difference to the life of one person".
- To foster positive citizenship, personal responsibility and positive values in the participating students.

TRAVEL DATES
- The trip will be in the Sept/Oct holidays 2012 in order to pose no disruption to classes. The dates proposed are from Friday September 28th (students would not miss school as the flight leaves at about midnight) till October 10th. This also coincides with the end of the rainy season in Cambodia.
- Actual dates will be advised once our trip has been approved by the Board and airline tickets have been confirmed. We expect to be away for 12 days.

PEOPLE INVOLVED
- The teachers in charge will be XXXXXX and XXXXXXX
- Staff will be offered the opportunity to accompany the trip. We will need 3 to 4 extra staff.
- Some spouses of staff may also accompany the trip. They will be advised of expectations and will be police checked prior to departure.
- Students will apply for positions on the trip on the basis of their ability to contribute, their sense of social responsibility and level of maturity. Students selected will be in Yr11 -Yr12 in 2011 as a reasonable level of maturity is required to cope with the demands of this kind of travel. Up to18 students will be selected to go on the trip and a waiting list of other applicants will be put in place.
- The ratio of adults to students will be 1 adult to 5 students maximum.

COST
- The trip is estimated to cost $3800 per person. In addition the students are expected to participate in fundraising activities in order to raise approximately NZ$20,000 for the building of 8 houses and to provide funds to help support the two orphanages in Phnom Penh.

Appendix 3: Participant information sheet: For students, teachers and parents.

Participant Information Sheet

AUT
UNIVERSITY
TE WĀNANGA ARONUI O TAMAKI MAKAU RAU

7th August 2012

Project Title: The motivations, expectations and experiences of secondary school students involved in volunteer tourism: A case study of Rangitoto College house building in Cambodia.

An Invitation:

My name is Sarah Wakeford and I am a student completing a Master of Tourism Studies at the Auckland University of Technology. This information sheet is to invite you to participate in a case study about the motivations, expectations and experiences of secondary school students participating in volunteer tourism. I hope to learn why students want to complete volunteer work when they travel and how it might impact on their lives. Your participation is completely voluntary and NOT compulsory at all. You may also withdraw from the study at anytime. The information I collect will in no way affect your trip to Cambodia and will not be used in any way that might advantage or disadvantage you at a participant or a student.

What is the purpose of this research?

My research will be used to complete a thesis which is a requirement for a Masters of Tourism Studies at AUT. I also hope to publish articles for relevant journals about my findings and may in the future use the data collected to complete further research in this field.

How was I identified and why am I being invited to participate in this research?

As a member of the 2012 Cambodia house-building trip you have been invited to participate in this research. All students, 16 years and over, are welcome to participate if they would like. However, your parent or guardians permission is also required and this can be done with the Parent Consent Form. I would really like the opportunity to interview as many students as possible and collect as many thoughts, stories and experiences as I can.

What will happen in this research?

For this research you will be asked to complete two interviews with me - one before the trip and one after. In the first interview, I will asked you about why you want to go to Cambodia and what you think it will be like. Questions will be open ended and informal, allowing you to discuss your thoughts in relaxed and comfortable way. After the trip we will meet again and I will ask questions about your experience in Cambodia and how you feel the trip has affected you. The interviews will be about 20 – 30min long. In the second interview you will be asked to bring three photos of your

experience that best represent the most significant aspect of the holiday for you and explain why you have chosen this image over others.

To remove any risks, all the interviews will take place within the school – in available classrooms or in the library. I will organise an interview time that suits you by email or over the phone. An appropriate time might be during your study period, lunchtimes or during your exam leave. Interviews will be undertaken in September and November. They will be recorded using an audio tape machine and notes will be taken to ensure there is an accurate record of what you have said.

A more detailed outline of the interview process and what to expect is found in the 'interview guidelines' sheet.

How will my privacy be protected?

The information you give in this study will be completely confidential and anonymous. I will not use any names in my research, I will use letters of the alphabet when refering to your comments and no individuals will be identified in the research report (thesis). The interview data will be kept in a safe place at all times, locked away in my supervisors office or at the researcher's house in a locked filing cabinet. I will not discuss your comments with anyone other than my supervisor.

How do I agree to participate in this research?

To agree to this study you need to complete a Consent Form which is attached to this information sheet. Please read over the form carefully with your parents and discuss this research and whether you are happy to participate in it. I am very happy to answer any questions you have about the research process and what your commitment will mean. You can phone me on 4798474 or email me at sbwakeford@gmail.com. When your parents are happy to give their consent, they need to sign the Parent Consent Form which is also attached to this information sheet. If you could then return these sheets to me via the self-addressed stamped envelope (also attached to this information sheet) or give them directly to me at the next Cambodia trip meeting.

What will happen after I participate in this research?

All the information I get from everyone who participates in the research will be compiled and used to answer my main research questions; Why do students participate in volunteer tourism? What expectations about volunteer tourism do students have? Does it meet expectations? What experiences do students have and how do volunteer tourism experiences affect them? This will then be written as a thesis as part of the requirement for my qualification. The results of this study will be available to you in two ways. Firstly I will be presenting the results in a 'get together' meeting for all participants and interested parties of the Cambodia house-building trip. It will be a power point presentation over a school lunchtime mid way through 2013. Secondly, I am happy to provide a summary of my findings to you via email. The results of this study will be available to all participants who would like access to them.

What do I do if I have concerns about this research?

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisor, Professor Mark Orams, his contact details are: email – mark.orams@aut.ac.nz and his phone number is 09 921 9999 ext 6410 .

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary, AUTEC, Dr Rosemary Godbold, *rosemary.godbold@aut.ac.nz* , 921 9999 ext 6902.

Please don't contact the teachers organising the trip as they are not directly involved in the research process.

Whom do I contact for further information about this research?

Please feel free to contact myself, the researcher. My email is sbwakeford@gmail.com and my mobile phone number is **021839693**

Or you can contact the Project Supervisor whose details are in the question above.

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on August 7th, 2012, AUTEC Reference number 12/171.

Appendix 4: Consent forms for students, teachers, parents and school principal.

Student Consent Form

Project title: **The motivations, expectations and experiences of secondary school students involved in volunteer tourism: A case study of Rangitoto College house building in Cambodia.**

Project Supervisor: **Professor Mark Orams**

Researcher: **Sarah Wakeford**

○ I have read and understood the information provided about this research project in the Information Sheet dated 7th August 2012.

○ I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.

○ I understand that notes will be taken during the interviews and that they will also be audio-taped and transcribed.

○ I understand that I may withdraw myself-or any information that I have provided for this project at any time, without being disadvantaged in any way.

○ If I withdraw, I understand that all relevant information including tapes and transcripts, or parts thereof, will be destroyed.

○ I agree to take part in this research.

○ I wish to receive a copy of the report from the research (please tick one): Yes ○ No ○

Participant's signature: ....……………………

Participant's name: ....……………………………

Participant's Contact Details: …………………………………...………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………….

Date: ………………………………

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 7th August, 2012, AUTEC Reference number 12/171

Note: The Participant should retain a copy of this form.

Teacher Consent Form

AUT
UNIVERSITY
TE WĀNANGA ARONUI O TAMAKI MAKAU RAU

Project title: **The motivations, expectations and experiences of secondary school students involved in volunteer tourism: A case study of Rangitoto College house building in Cambodia.**

Project Supervisor: **Professor Mark Orams**

Researcher: **Sarah Wakeford**

○ I have read and understood the information provided about this research project in the Information Sheet dated 7th August 2012.

○ I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.

○ I understand that identity of my fellow participants and our discussions in the focus group is confidential to the group and I agree to keep this information confidential.

○ I understand that if any student has a concern or question about the research I should refer them to either the researcher (Sarah Wakeford) or the Supervisor (Prof Mark Orams).

○ I understand that notes will be taken during the focus group and that it will also be audio-taped and transcribed.

○ I understand that I may withdraw myself-or any information that I have provided for this project at any time prior to completion of data collection, without being disadvantaged in any way.

○ If I withdraw, I understand that while it may not be possible to destroy all records of the focus group discussion of which I was part, the relevant information about myself-including tapes and transcripts, or parts thereof, will not be used.

○ I agree to take part in this research.

○ I wish to receive a copy of the report from the research (please tick one): Yes○ No○

Participant's signature: ....………………

Participant's name: ....……………………………

Participant's Contact Details: …………………………………..…………………

………………………………………………………………………………………….

Date: ……………………………….

Parent/Guardian Consent Form

Project title: **The motivations, expectations and experiences of secondary school students involved in volunteer tourism: A case study of Rangitoto College house building in Cambodia.**

Project Supervisor: **Professor Mark Orams**

Researcher: **Sarah Wakeford**

○ I understand that my child/children have been invited to participate in a research project on their experiences and thoughts on the Cambodia house-building trip. I have read and understood the information provided about this research project in the Information Sheet dated 7th August 2012.

○ I understand that this research will involve an interview before the trip in September and after the trip in November. I understand that these interviews will take place in the school grounds and will be organised prior by the researcher (Sarah Wakeford) via telephone or email.

○ I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered. I also understand that I am free to ask any other questions at any time about this research and can do this by phoning or emailing the supervisor, the primary researcher (Sarah Wakeford) or for serious concerns, I can contact Dr Rosemary Godbold at AUT.

○ I understand that notes will be taken during the interviews and that they will also be audio-taped and transcribed. I also understand that my child will have the opportunity to view that transcript to ensure it is accurate.

○ I understand that I may withdraw my child or any information that we have provided for this project at any time, without being disadvantaged in any way.

○ If my child withdraws, I understand that all relevant information including tapes and transcripts, or parts thereof, will be destroyed.

○ I agree to my child taking part in this research.

○ I wish to receive a copy of the report from the research (please tick one): Yes○   No○

Child/children's Name/s :…………………………………………………………………

Parent/Guardian's signature:......……………………………………………………………

Parent/Guardian's name:......……………………………………………………………

Parent/Guardian's Contact Details: …………………….…….....................................

………………………………………………………………………………….……

Date: ……………………….

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 7th August, 2012, AUTEC Reference number 12/171   Note: The Parent/Guardian should retain a copy of this form.

Principal's Permission

For Access Form

(Rangitoto College)

Project title: **The motivations, expectations and experiences of secondary school students involved in volunteer tourism: A case study of Rangitoto College house building in Cambodia.**

Project Supervisor: **Professor Mark Orams**

Researcher: **Sarah Wakeford**

○ I have read and understood the information provided about this research project in the Information Sheet dated 7th August 2012.

○ I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.

○ I understand that notes will be taken during the interviews and focus groups and that they will also be audio-taped and transcribed.

○ I understand that the interviews and focus group will be carried out in the school grounds before and after the Cambodia House-Building Trip.

○ I give permission for this research to take place at Rangitoto College.

○ I wish to receive a copy of the report from the research (please tick one):

Yes○ No○

Principal's signature: ....………………………

Principal's name: ....……………………………

Principal's Contact Details: …………………………………………………………..

…………………………………………………………………………………………

Date: …………………………..

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 7th August, 2012, AUTEC Reference number 12/171

Note: The Principal should retain a copy of this form.

Appendix 5: Pre-trip interview questions and protocol

Pre-trip Interview Questions and Protocol

Rangitoto College House Building trip 2012

Hi _____ , thanks so much for agreeing to participate in this interview. As you know I am collecting information about students' motivations, expectations and experiences participating in the Cambodia house-building trip. Motivation means 'why you wanted to go' and expectation means 'what you think the trip will be like'. The experience part of the research will be collected after your trip. Now, I need to you know that it's really important to just be completely honest and say how you feel. There is NO right or wrong answer and all I really need is a true answer of how you feel with regards to these questions. If you feel at any point that you are uneasy, or don't feel that you can answer with honesty then please just say and we can move to another question. Also remember that at any time if you feel unhappy with the interview and my actions please just say so and feel free to leave. Ok? Is there anything you need before we begin? Are you comfortable? Are you happy for us to begin? Ok, I will now turn the audio tape on and record our interview. I will also take a few notes of things as we talk. Is that ok?

Ok, let's begin. The first questions are about why you decided to apply to go to Cambodia as a house-builder. These questions are about your motivations, why you got involved.

1. Firstly, how did learn about this trip?

2. What influenced you to decide to write an application letter to go on the trip?

3. In the letter, what reasons did you give the teachers for selecting you?

4. Did you ask your parents for permission before you applied? What did they think about you going on the trip?

5. How are you funding the trip? Who is paying?

6. How important is having friends on this trip for you? Why? Why not?

7. You have had to help raise $20,000 towards the building project and orphanages. How do you feel about this?

8. Have you had to make any sacrifices to go on this trip? If so, what are they?

9. Have you ever done anything like this trip before? For example, have you visited a poor developing country or travelled with the purpose of helping

    disadvantaged people. If so, can you describe this experience?

10. Of all the reasons you chose to go, what reason do you think is the main one? The one that you consider to be the most significant in motivating you to go.

Ok, now I am going to ask you some questions about your expectations for this trip. These might be linked to your reasons for participating on the trip and you might repeat yourself- sometimes which is fine ☺

11. What do you know about travelling in a country like Cambodia?

12. Are you nervous about travelling to Cambodia? Why? Why not?

13. What are you looking forward to?

14. What do you think will be the hardest part of the trip?

15. Do you have any specific expectations about building houses in the village? What do you think building houses will be like?

16. What about visiting the orphanages? What do you think this will be like?

17. What do you think will be the most rewarding part of the trip? Why?

Ok, is there anything else you would like to add about going to Cambodia?

Well, thanks _____ so much for your time, it's been really useful. I'm going to turn off the recorder now. I hope you will be happy to do another interview after you return from Cambodia and I would like to ask about your experiences during the trip. I am also going to ask you to choose three photos that best represent what the house-building trip meant to you and events or things that really influenced or affected you. Are you going to take a camera? Ok, great. (No?, Ok, perhaps you could ask someone on the trip to take a few photos for you?). I'll be in touch with you after you return if that's ok.

Good luck with everything and I hope you have a wonderful time. Bye.

Appendix 6: Post-trip interview questions and protocol

Post-trip Interview Questions and Protocol

Rangitoto College House Building Trip 2012

Hi _____ , thanks so much for agreeing to meet with me again and participate in this interview. As you are aware, I am in the process of collecting information about students' motivations, expectations and experiences participating in the Cambodia house-building trip. In this second interview I am keen to learn about your expectations for the trip and how the actual trip was similar and different to these. I am also interested in your actual experiences as a volunteer tourist and whether this experience has impacted you – perhaps your attitudes, your beliefs or even your behaviour has been influenced? Or perhaps not. Now, I need to remind you that it's really important to just be completely honest and say how you feel. There is NO right or wrong answer and all I really need is a true answer of how you feel with regards t these questions. If you feel uneasy at any point, or don't feel that you can answer with honesty then please just say and we can move to another question. Also remember that at any time if you feel unhappy with the interview and my actions please just say so and feel free to leave. Ok?

Hopefully you have bought with you three photos that represent what the most significant or important part of the trip for you. If you could place these photos in front of you and we will discuss them during the interview. Thanks.

Is there anything you need before we begin? Are you comfortable? Are you happy for us to begin? Ok, I will now turn the audio tape on and record our interview. I will also take a few notes of things as we talk. Is that ok?

Ok, let's begin. The first question is about your expectations and how it was similar and different to what you expected. In your interview, here are some of the things you mentioned when talking about what the trip would be like: ADD INDIVIDUAL STUDENT COMMENTS HERE:

1. What aspects or parts of this trip really surprised you?
2. In what ways was the volunteer work what you expected? In what ways was it completely different?
3. Overall did this volunteer tourism trip meet your expectations?

Ok, now let's look at your overall experiences as a participant in the Cambodia house-building trip.

4. There are three photos in front of you that you have chosen to best represent the most significant experiences for you during the Cambodia trip. Can you please explain what these photos represent and why you chose them.
5. When thinking about the volunteer activities and the travel activities, which experiences did you enjoy the most? Why?
6. What experiences on this trip did you find difficult?
7. In what ways has this trip changed your views about people or life in a developing country?

8. Do you think the experience of volunteer tourism has changed you personally in any way? If yes, how? If not, why do you think not?
   : Think about:
   a. How you see yourself-
   b. How you relate to others or how you feel about being home
   c. What you will do in the future?
   d. Other?
9. Imagine you were asked by another student interested in the trip for next year. How would you describe this trip to them?
10. Overall, when you think back to WHY you wanted to go to Cambodia (INSERT PERSONAL COMMENTS STUDENTS MADE IN INTERVIEW ONE) , do you think these aspirations or reasons were fulfilled? Was it worth the time, money and effort you put into it? Explain why or why not.

Ok, is there anything else you would like to add about your experiences in Cambodia?

Well, thanks _____ so much for your time, again it's been really useful. I'm going to turn off the recorder now. I am very grateful to you for sharing your thoughts and feelings about the trip. Thanks for being honest and reflecting on this experience. I am looking forward to analysing your helpful comments and getting an overall picture of this trip and the impact it has on students. There is one last commitment I need from you – it's the checking of your interview transcripts. I will be emailing these to you and it would be great if you could read over the typed comments and if they are a correct representation of our interview then approve them. If there are any comments you are unsure about or don't reflect how you feel then we can discuss these and look at modifying the transcript. I hope to get these to you as soon as possible. Are you happy with that?

Good luck with your exam results and I will be in touch soon. Bye.

Appendix 7: Teacher focus group questions and protocol

Teacher Focus Group Questions and Protocol

Rangitoto College House Building Trip 2012

Welcome to you all, thank you so much for agreeing to participate in this focus group, I know you are very busy teachers and I appreciate your time. As you know I am collecting information about student motivations, expectations and experiences participating in the Cambodia house-building trip. The aim of this focus group is to find out your views, opinions and thoughts about the students who went to Cambodia to complete a volunteer project. We will be exploring your thoughts on why students wanted to participate in this trip and how realistic the student expectations were. Then we'll talk about how you think this experience impacts students – in the short term. I would really like to hear from **everyone** in this group and hopefully you have seen the questions and everyone has ideas to share with me. I just want to stress that there is NO right or wrong answer and all I really need is your truthful thoughts. If you feel uncomfortable or upset at anytime please feel free to leave the focus group session. Ok?

Is there anything you need before we begin? Are you all comfortable? Are you happy for us to begin? Ok, I will now turn the audio tape on and record our group. I will also take a few notes of things as we talk. Is that ok?

Ok, let's begin. The first questions are about why you think students wanted to go to Cambodia to build houses.

1   How would you describe the students who travelled with you to Cambodia?

   -    Religion? Wealth? Intelligence? Social status?

2   How motivated or engaged were the students fundraising? What students tended to be more pro-active?

3   How prepared do you think students were for this trip?

   -    Emotionally ? Financially ? Physically ?

Ok, now I am going to ask some questions about student experiences and how you think this trip has changed or influenced students.

4   What experience do you think influenced students the most in Cambodia?

5   What did students learn from the volunteer work they did in Cambodia?

6   Throughout the trip did you notice any changes in student attitudes and behaviour?

7   Were there any negative experiences for students on this trip?

8   Were you surprised by any students on this trip in terms of them changing significantly or showing particular traits not seen before?

9   Overall how significant would you say this trip is for students? Do you think it will change their lives in the long term? Why? Why not?

Ok, is there anything else you would like to add about going to Cambodia?

Well, thanks everyone so much for your time, it's been really useful. I'm going to turn off the recorder now. I am very grateful to you for sharing your thoughts and feelings about the students on the trip. Thanks for being honest and reflecting on this experience. I am looking forward to analysing your helpful comments and getting an overall picture of this trip and the impact it has on students. There is one last commitment I need from you – it's the checking of this focus group transcript. I will be emailing it to each of you and it would be great if you could read over the typed comments and if they are a correct representation of this focus group then approve them. If there are any comments you are unsure about or don't reflect how you feel then we can discuss these and look at modifying the transcript. I hope to get these to you as soon as possible. Are you happy with that?

Thanks again and good luck with the rest of the term and I will be in touch soon. Bye.

Appendix 8: Lead teacher interview questions and protocol

Lead Teacher Interview Questions and Protocol

Rangitoto College House Building Trip 2012

Welcome _____, thank you so much for agreeing to participate in this interview, I know you are a very busy teacher and I appreciate your time. As you know I am collecting information about student motivations, expectations and experiences participating in the Cambodia house-building trip. The aim of this interview is to find out your views, opinions and thoughts about the students who went to Cambodia to complete a volunteer project this year and also ideas about past trips that you have organised. We will be exploring your thoughts on why students want to participate in this trip and how realistic the student expectations are. Then we'll talk about how you think this experience impacts students – in the short term and possible impacts in the long term. I just want to stress that there is NO right or wrong answer and all I really need is your truthful thoughts. If you feel uncomfortable or upset at anytime please feel free to leave the interview. Ok?

Is there anything you need before we begin? Are you all comfortable? Are you happy for us to begin? Ok, I will now turn the audio tape on and record our interview. I will also take a few notes of things as we talk. Is that ok?

Ok, let's begin.

The first questions are about the Cambodia trip and getting some background information.

1. When did this trip start and how many trips have you taken?

2. What volunteer work are the students expected to undertake as part of the trip. What does it involve?

3. What does the trip involve? Costs? Time?

4. What type of student usually participates? What characteristics do they have? What similarities do they have?

5. What part of the trip is most significant for you personally?

The second set of questions are about why you think students wanted to go to Cambodia to build houses.

6. Why do you think students want to join the trip?

7. How important do you think the volunteer work is for students?

8. How do student efforts/behaviour differ when it comes to the fundraising? What students tended to be more pro-active?

9. How prepared do you think students are for this trip? Emotionally ? Financially ? Physically ?

10. How realistic do you think student expectations of this trip are?

Ok, now I am going to ask some questions about student experiences and how you think this trip has changed or influenced students.

11. What experience do you think influences students the most in Cambodia?

12. What do students learn from the volunteer work they did in Cambodia?

13. Throughout the trip do you notice any changes in student attitudes and behaviour?

14. Were there any negative experiences for students on this trip?

15. How does this trip influence students?

16. Overall how significant would you say this trip is for students? Do you think it will change their lives in the long term? Why? Why not?

Ok, is there anything else you would like to add about the Cambodia trip?

Well, thanks so much for your time, it's been really useful. I'm going to turn off the recorder now. I am very grateful to you for sharing your thoughts and feelings about the students on the trip. Thanks for being honest and reflecting on this experience. I am looking forward to analysing your helpful comments and getting an overall picture of this trip and the impact it has on students. There is one last commitment I need from you – it's the checking of this focus group transcript. I will be emailing it to each of you and it would be great if you could read over the typed comments and if they are a correct representation of this interview then approve them. If there are any comments you are unsure about or don't reflect how you feel then we can discuss these and look at modifying the transcript. I hope to get these to you as soon as possible. Are you happy with that?

Thanks again and good luck with the rest of the term and I will be in touch soon. Bye.

Appendix 9: Concept map example
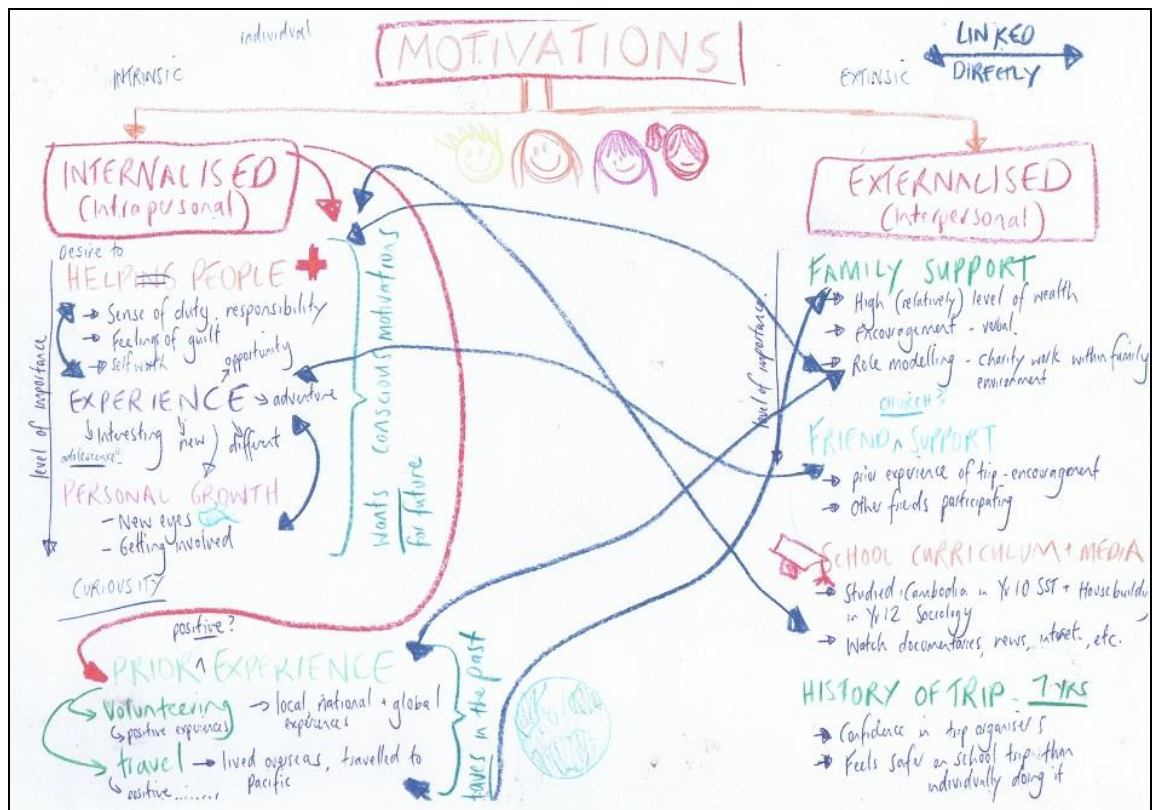
Appendix 10: Interview guidelines

All interviews will follow the interview guidelines to ensure students are safe and comfortable before, during and after the interview process. **The guidelines are as follows**:

Before the interview:

- Students will be shown respect and courtesy when being contacted by the researcher.

- Students will be consulted in advance about an interview time and the researcher will do their best to find a time that suits the student and does not interfere with their lessons, exam study or other extra-curricular commitments.

- Students will be consulted about the place of the interview and asked if they are comfortable with the location. Locations will only be in the school grounds, either a free classroom (with door open) or a quiet area in the library such as the 'reading rooms'.

- Students will be given the interview questions before the interview to help them prepare and allow them to seek clarification if unsure about what is being asked. Technical language will be avoided.

- Students will be welcome to contact the interviewer at any time and withdraw from the research if they wish at any time.

- Students will be contacted a day before the interview to remind them and to answer any questions they may have. For the second interview they will be reminded to bring three photos with them to the interview.

During the interview:

- Students will be greeted warmly and efforts to ensure they are comfortable will be made e.g. chairs, position, etc.

- The student will be shown the audio tape device and it will be turned on when the student is ready.

- The student will be asked a variety of questions about their motivations, expectations and experiences of the Cambodia House-building trip. The researcher will in no way make judgements, leading comments or try to influence the student answers in anyway. The language used will be informal but professional. The researcher may clarify student ideas if unsure.

- Students are free to clarify or revisit their answers at anytime during the interview.

- The student is free to end the interview at anytime. However, it is expected that the interview will take between 20 – 30minutes.

- During the second interview students will be asked to show three photos and explain why they have chosen them. Students will NOT be asked to give the photos to the researcher and they will not identify other students in the photos formally. No copies of the photos will be made, but a description of the main content of the photo will be recorded.

- Students will be asked if they would like to add or say anything else, not covered by the questioning which they are welcome to add.

- When the interview is finished, the audio tape machine will be switched off and the student will be thanked for their time and contribution to the research.

After the interview:

- The student will receive an email thanking them for their time at the interview.

- The interview answers will be typed up in a transcript which will be sent to the student to read and check. They will be asked to confirm the accuracy of the transcript and amend any incorrect information.

- All recorded data (written or audio taped) will be stored in a safe place at all times, either in the supervisors office or in a locked cabinet in my house. All information shared in the interview will be confidential and not discussed at any point with anyone but the supervisor.

- Students may be asked to give additional information via email or over the phone to clarify any comments that may be ambiguous or confusing during the interview.

- Students may contact the researcher at any time requesting information about the research or to ask any questions that may have arisen.

- Students will be invited to attend a formal Cambodia House-building Research meeting in 2013 whereby the results of the research will be shared with all participants involved.

Appendix 11: AUTEC Ethics approval letter

A U T
U N I V E R S I T Y
TE WĀNANGA ARONUI O TAMAKI MAKAU RAU

M E M O R A N D U M

Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC)

To: Mark Orams
From: Rosemary Godbold, Executive Secretary, AUTEC
Date: 7 August 2012
Subject: Ethics Application Number **12/171 The motivations, expectations and experiences of secondary school students involved in volunteer tourist: A case study of Rangitoto College house building in Cambodia.**

Dear Mark,

Thank you for providing written evidence as requested. I am pleased to advise that it satisfies the points raised by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC) at their meeting on 23 July 2012 and I have approved your ethics application. This delegated approval is made in accordance with section 5.3.2.3 of AUTEC's *Applying for Ethics Approval: Guidelines and Procedures* and is subject to endorsement by AUTEC at its meeting on 27 August 2012.

Your ethics application is approved for a period of three years until 7 August 2015.

I advise that as part of the ethics approval process, you are required to submit the following to AUTEC:

- A brief annual progress report using form EA2, which is available online through http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/research-ethics/ethics. When necessary this form may also be used to request an extension of the approval at least one month prior to its expiry on 7 August 2015;

- A brief report on the status of the project using form EA3, which is available online through http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/research-ethics/ethics. This report is to be submitted either when the approval expires on 7 August 2015 or on completion of the project, whichever comes sooner;

It is a condition of approval that AUTEC is notified of any adverse events or if the research does not commence. AUTEC approval needs to be sought for any alteration to the research, including any alteration of or addition to any documents that are provided to participants. You are reminded that, as applicant, you are responsible for ensuring that research undertaken under this approval occurs within the parameters outlined in the approved application.

Please note that AUTEC grants ethical approval only. If you require management approval from an institution or organisation for your research, then you will need to make the arrangements necessary to obtain this.

To enable us to provide you with efficient service, we ask that you use the application number and study title in all written and verbal correspondence with us. Should you have any further enquiries regarding this matter, you are welcome to contact me by email at ethics@aut.ac.nz or by telephone on 921 9999 at extension 6902. Alternatively you may contact your AUTEC Faculty Representative (a list with contact details may be found in the Ethics Knowledge Base at http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/research-ethics/ethics).

On behalf of AUTEC and myself, I wish you success with your research and look forward to reading about it in

your reports.

Yours sincerely

Dr Rosemary Godbold

Executive Secretary

Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee

Cc: Sarah Wakeford sbwakeford@gmail.com

Appendix 12: Additional participant responses

a) Complete list of student comments regarding 'seeing the faces' (or similar phrasing) of the local people they were helping.

Name	Quote	Interview Q.
Rachael	*I want to see their faces when they go into their house… I want to see their faces when we give them all the tools too and all the things that they need.*	15
Shona	*And I can't wait to see their faces after we've built the houses; that's what I'm looking forward to.*	15
Jasmine	*I'm looking forward to seeing their faces light up when we give them gifts.*	16
Leith	*I'm kind of excited to see the reaction on their faces after we build the houses.*	15
Amanda	*Like when we are building houses and they look with those eyes, they just kind of look at you like you're a super hero. I really want to make friendship with those people.*	13
Tania	*I think looking at their faces… I think it will be just amazing.*	17
Joanna	*Looking at everyone's face after you have done something to help them and how appreciative they will be, and just… I think that's just as rewarding to you.*	17
Jenna	*To be able to make a difference in people's lives and see how happy they'll be... it will make us feel real good.*	10
Fiona	*Seeing the families once they have their houses done. Seeing how happy their faces are.*	17

b) Examples of student comments regarding friends and family members encouraging them to apply for the Cambodia house building trip.

Name	Quote	Interview Q.
Leith	*To be honest it was my friends who got me into the trip.*	6
Sophia	*But I know heaps of people who have been on the trip, like, my cousin went two years ago, and my sisters friends have been. So I've known heaps about it*	1
Jenna	*I found out about it through family friends who had been and they encouraged me to go.*	1

Jasmine	*My friend went last year and she encouraged me and my friend to go. She just seemed like she had a good time.*	1
Joanna	*My sister went two years ago. She told me all about it, how much she enjoyed it and how much of a good experience it would be for me to do it.*	1
Catherine	*My Mum was definitely keen because she was there with our family friend when she was telling me about her trip to Cambodia and my Mum said it was great.*	5

c) Examples of student expectations about building houses on Cambodia house building trip.

Name	Quote	Interview Q.
Leith	*I think it going to be very gruelling and hot. It's not going to be very pleasant. Very tiring and stressful, because it's a whole day. It's going to be like an endurance kind of thing.*	15
Sue	*I dunno what to expect…I'm expecting to see a blank area where the villagers play, not much more.*	15
Catherine	*Really hot, busy and hard work, from early in the morning till dark it's going to be full on building houses. I'm expecting to be full on the whole day.*	15
Judith	*I think it will be very emotional, both for the people we are giving the houses to and us, a really emotional time.*	15
Tania	*I think it's going to be hot and sweaty and hard.*	15
Jasmine	*Not sure, I just know it will be hard, difficult to always be happy while we are building, because I'm going to get tired.*	15
Claire	*I'm nervous of building their house, because it's their house and they've never had one before.. and what happens if I do something wrong… Ms Parkinson told us not to hammer the wrong way and I was freaking out that I'm going to hammer it the wrong way and ruin their house.*	15
Amanda	*I reckon I might cry if I see those families cry.*	15
Jane	*I don't know, I just don't know. I'll just have to see*	15
Angela	*Hard, but fun. I reckon it will be fine meeting all the village people because I'm not really shy. I'll be fine*	15
Sophia	*I don't know how it works. I don't know if there are other people* (in the village) *around that we aren't specifically building for but I think its going to be hard walking away. I think that's going to be hard.*	14

d) Examples of selected student comments regarding feeling that the day of house building was shorter, easier, less rewarding than they had expected.

Name	Quote	Interview Q.
Jenna	*I kind of feel like I didn't do enough, there is still so much poverty. Like the house building day went so quickly which was the main reason we went there, so I kind of wish we'd raised more money.*	20
Jasmine	*I was expecting the house building to be harder, like I was expecting to do more, we just nailed down the boards and put up the walls, it would have been good to build more of the house. After wards you were playing with the kids and that helped give you more energy, so I felt like I wanted to do more.*	20
Sue	*I would have liked to do more because I feel like I didn't do much. I still got a lot out of it, but I felt that my expectations were lessened. It was still a great day but I felt like I wanted to do more. You had all this energy and wanted to give all of that. I just felt like at the end of the day there was something missing... I dunno what it was...*	20
Claire	*If we could have done house-building for the whole two weeks I would have done that instead of the touristy stuff. I enjoyed the temples and you have to go and see the Killing Fields to understand the situation they are In and what they believe and superstitions and everything which was good to see before you go... but my purpose was to volunteer rather than just have fun.*	20
Angela	*I really wanted to do more house building because that was the best day and it felt like it was over too quickly.*	20

e) Student comments regarding feeling uncomfortable witnessing poverty as a tourist on the Cambodia house building trip.

Name	Quote	Interview Q.
Claire	*I have a real problem with poverty being a tourist attraction, it's disgusting. I barely took any photos because I felt so uncomfortable taking photos of people's lives in poverty. You can't just go around acting like it's just a trip, you impact on their lives and you need to understand that.*	22
Jasmine	*I felt rude taking pictures and uncomfortable with everyone else taking pictures* (in the slum).	20
Sophia	*And it felt so rude because we were going through and taking photos... they loved it and they were all like posing for the photos and looking at them... but it felt so intrusive, especially*	24

	when it was so poor.	
Shona	*The living conditions surprised me, the slum we went to, walking through everyone's waste and they didn't have anything. I felt angry, intruding on these people, it was like 'why are we here?*	20

f) Examples of student comments regarding the connections made with other members of the Cambodia house building trip.

Name	Quote	Interview Q.
Fiona	*You feel a connection with everyone that went. We all understand what we've been through.*	27
Tania	*I shared my room with one person the whole time. The most amazing thing was, all the emotional things I was feeling, she was too, we both were. It was a really amazing time to talk with her, about the day, crying and together feeling it.*	28
Leith	*At the start we hung out in our own little groups with people that we knew. But we had all these stories and incidents together and we laughed about it together and got really close. It got to the point that you could sit on the bus with anyone and talk.*	22
Sophia	*I made SUCH amazing friends, they are the most lovely people to ever go on a trip with. Because of the people I went with and the people of the country, everything was amazing.*	23
Sue	*I made a lot of friends on this trip, we made a close group. It was nice and I wasn't really expecting that. When you are travelling with each other 24/7 you have to make friends. And we watched out for each other, it was really nice.*	22
Rachael	*At the start we were in these little groups but even after a couple of days were all bonding and like friends.*	22

g) Examples of student comments regarding a change in their perspective or views based on their experiences on the Cambodia house building trip.

Name	Quote	Interview Q.
Tania	*It's life changing. It opens your eyes. It shows you things, experience an interesting culture and it was nice to be a part of something different.*	26
Judith	*It broadens your view of the world and makes you more accepting of things. You are not so stuck in your ways because you learn so many new perspectives on life.*	26
Katy	*You come back from America and you think 'we don't have that much compared to some people' but when you come back from Cambodia it's like 'we have everything compared to some people. Its opposite, it helps put things into perspective.*	21
Shona	*Life changing. It's a big term I know, but it's changed my perspective on things.*	25
Sue	*It's definitely changed the way I see people, its completely different.* It *changed my thinking as well, they are happy with what they've got, even though it's barely anything, so I should be more thankful for what I've got.*	25
Catherine	*This trip really impacted me in the way I see the world. It opened my eyes to how much is really out there and to experience other cultures.*	25

h) Examples of student comments regarding a change in the way they view food and water based on their experiences on the Cambodia house building trip

Name	Quote	Interview Q.
Jenna	*One thing that has changed is I don't waste food, I try to finish everything.*	25
Tania	*I would rather eat when I'm hungry now rather than just eating when there is food around. I don't eat as much food, we have so much and most people throw it away and I'm like 'nooo'… kids in Cambodia are happy and they have no food.*	25
Leith	*I was saving more water, not leaving tap running and as more conscientious about wasting food.*	25
Fiona	*Like with water, I definitely conserve water, like people would look at us in Cambodia because we had these big bottles of water'. I appreciate things more.*	25

Name	Quote	Interview Q.
Joanna	*I appreciate things more, like clean water and food.. yeah I don't waste as much.*	25

i) Examples of student comments regarding wanting to travel to more countries in the developing world in the future due to their experiences on the Cambodia house building trip.

Name	Quote	Interview Q.
Rachael	*I would definitely go back to Cambodia I loved it there. Before the trip I probably wouldn't have gone to a country like Cambodia.*	25
Katy	*I would really love to go back and travel to countries in Africa. I was thinking that there is stuff you can do to help. We went to Cambodia and did quite a lot, so now I think there must be something we can do.*	25
Sophia	*I would much rather go somewhere like Cambodia than places like America and be a little bit touristy. I definitely want to go back and do more volunteer work.*	25
Jane	*I want to go to third world countries more than wealthy flashy countries. As a tourist you can spend money there and help people.*	25
Leith	*I've always wanted to travel, but I want to go to more rural areas, places like Thailand. I want to look at worse places like Africa.*	25

j) Examples of student comments regarding their ambitions to have a career that involves aid and charity work.

Name	Quote	Interview Q.
Leith	*I've always wanted to do bio-med because I love science and stuff. I want to be a paediatrician. I have always liked kids but this trip has set that in stone. It confirmed what I want to do.*	25
Sophia	*I've always wanted to do work like that later on* (working in orphanage) *, but now I know I definitely want to, there is no question about it.*	25
Jenna	*I definitely want to go back and do some more work there. Depending on what job I get, I want to do medicine if I get in. Janne at Tabitha told us about the hospital for women and children that they setup and I would love to go back and help there.*	25
Amanda	*I want to go to countries like South Africa and Cambodia*	25

	often and maybe build my own hospital or something and help them.	
Shona	*Last week I was thinking, 'what if uni doesn't work out, maybe I could just go and work in this village'. Yeah, I would be keen to do more volunteer work.*	25

k) Examples of student comments regarding their impression of the Khmer people being happy and content.

Name	Quote	Interview Q.
Leith	*It surprised me that they were happier than many of the people here in New Zealand. When they see you they are so happy and waving and the little kids come up to you. It was a good atmosphere with the people but the environment was shocking.*	19
Tania	*I found the people were really resourceful, always doing something and are definitely happy and it shows you that money does not make you happy, definitely.*	25
Jasmine	*The poverty was a bit overwhelming but then people have smiles on their faces. They are just happy about things*	24
Rachael	*People weren't down in the dumps, they were happy, they weren't wallowing. Especially the ladies in the market. It was like, they didn't care that they didn't have much money, they weren't obsessed about it. They were un-materialistic.*	19
Shona	*Everyone in Cambodia was so happy, that after the house-building, it just seemed normal.*	27
Sophia	*The people are so genuinely lovely and funny and carefree – they are like we should all be. Like, we have nice people in New Zealand, but I don't think we could EVER be like them, how good they are.*	19

Appendix 13: List of prior charity work

Table showing the different charity work participants on the Cambodia House Building Trip had participated in before the trip.

Activity	Number of responses
Raising money for Cancer	7
40 Hour Famine	6
Amnesty International	5
Red Cross collection	5
Students Against Drink Driving	3
City mission volunteer	3
Church charity work	3
Trade Aid volunteer	2
Sports Coaching	2
Christchurch Earthquake appeal	1
Random Acts of Kindness	1
DEER animal rights fundraising	1
Helping the elderly	1
Riding for the disabled	1

Appendix 14: Volunteer work factsheet

RANGITOTO COLLEGE TRIP TO CAMBODIA
AID PROJECT INFORMATION

Since 2007 Rangitoto College students have built over 15 houses for poor rural families as part of a project run by Janne Ritske of the **Tabitha Foundation**. The Tabitha Foundation aims to encourage savings among a population who were punished under the Pol Pot regime of the 1970's for having money. Saving money is something they are very mistrustful about. They are encouraged to do this because for every US90 cents they save they earn interest of 10 cents. When their savings reach US$30 they can then purchase a small plot of rural village land. They then wait anxiously for people like us who must provide the funds to purchase the materials to build a very modest house (by our standards). A house costs about $1500 and consists of a one room wooden or tin home built on stilts to escape the seasonal flooding that destroys many rural homes every year. This home is luxurious by village standards and the joy on their faces at the completion of their new home is reward enough after a day of sweltering heat, blisters, sweat and sheer hard work by soft bodied Kiwis.

Information about house building in Cambodia with the Tabitha Foundation can be found at http://www.tabitha.ca/housebuilding.html.

The other focus of our aid projects in Cambodia is providing financial help for 2 amazing orphanages. The first is an orphanage called "Centre for Children's Happiness" that rescues children from the city garbage dump locally known as Smokey Mountain. This horrific place is home to many of the poorest of the poor in Phnom Penh, the capital city. Not only do thousands of people work in its fetid squalor trying to retrieve anything that may be able to be recycled, but they actually live there in shacks made from materials scavenged at the dump. Some of our students and one teacher actually saw this first hand when they visited the dump in 2008. One of the people who run this orphanage was actually rescued himself as a child from this dump and he now looks after about 60 children who have had such unfortunate starts to their lives.

The other orphanage is called The New Future For Children and like the other orphanage, they also provide education, vocational training and a home for children who would otherwise have to exist on the streets. We will spend some time at each orphanage playing games with the children, teaching them English and showing them that people do care.

Both orphanages are always struggling to provide the care and education that these children need. With rice prices increases substantially since 2008 and increased school fees, the funds they do receive on a regular basis are never enough. Helping young people into jobs is also a huge commitment that costs money but means a future free from poverty for these children.

For more information about these two organisations please visit:

The Centre for Children's Happiness website: http://www.cchcambodia.org/

The New Future for Children website: http://newfutureforchildren.com/