THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL TOURISM AND GLOBAL LEARNING IN SOUTH AFRICAN HIGH SCHOOL LEARNERS

by

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ABSTRACT

There is a growing demand in the literature for rigorous empirical research to test the underpinning assumption of international education theory, namely that global learning occurs as a consequence of international travel. Through the application of a global learning survey instrument to 1152 Grade 11 learners in 16 South African exclusive independent high schools, evidence is provided to indicate that significant global learning only occurs when the international travel experience is facilitated to encourage learning, when there is a desire by learners to engage with cultural differences at their travel destination, and when learners feel comfortable expressing their opinions within their tour group. Furthermore, some types of international educational tourism are more conducive to global learning than others.

Additionally, a conceptual, process-driven model of international educational tourism is proposed based on the synthesis of educational tourism, international education, experiential education and global learning theories. The model is tested and refined through analysis of the data collected from the questionnaire. By conceptualising educational tourism as a process it overcomes the limitations associated with segment-based definitions and in doing so demonstrates the potential for hybridising educational tourism with other sectors of the industry.

Finally, owing to the expense involved with international travel, non-travel related factors are identified which encourage global learning in high school children. Non-coerced participation in community service and possessing an altruistic disposition are found to be the most influential. The implication of this finding is that there are substantially less expensive and more accessible means of developing global learning, which is essential in South Africa where huge discrepancies exist in terms of financial wealth and quality of education.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 BACKGROUND

International educational tourism is an under researched subject. Theoretically, it has many similarities with international education which in contrast is extensively investigated in the literature. International education theory has as its core the assumption that international travel, with its concomitant exposure to other cultures, nationalities and environments, is a highly desirable endeavour. It has the potential to foster intercultural learning and development (Vande Berg, Paige & Lou, 2012: xiii); to facilitate global learning and the resultant development of global awareness (Kurt, Olitsky & Geis, 2013), global mindedness (DeMello, 2011; Hett, 1993) and global competence (Deardorff, 2014a; Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009); to facilitate international mobility (Kenway & Fahay, 2014); to strengthen international socio-economic linkages (De Wit, 2016; De Wit & Jooste, 2014), and generally make the world a better place (Tate, 2013).

There is a growing concern however, that very little positive intercultural or global learning even takes place on many international programmes (Kenway & Fahey, 2014; Vande Berg *et al,* 2012). Vande Berg *et al* (2012:5) list a number of concerns regarding the impact of international education on student development including: that meaningful engagements with the host cultures and the development of intercultural competencies are limited; that substantial gains in foreign language acquisition are not occurring, and that many students view their international experiences as an opportunity to take a vacation. As later identified in this thesis, many of these criticisms of international education can also be made in relation to international educational tourism.

Further criticisms of international education include: that it is essentially elitist and serves the dominant social class (Epstein, 2014; Kenway & Fahey, 2014; Tate, 2013; Weis, 2014); that it perpetuates social stratification between mobile and non-mobile students (Resnik, 2012a); that it encourages “brain-drain” from less developed nations (Fahey & Kenway, 2010), and that it can divert energy and resources away from local issues to

global ones (Tate, 2013). Consequently, practitioners and theoreticians of international education are calling for rigorous empirical research to scrutinize the underpinning assumptions of the theory (Sidhau & Dall'Alba, 2012; Tarc, Clark & Varpalotai, 2012a; Tarc, Mishra-Tarc, Ng-A-Fook & Trilokekar, 2012b; Vande Berg *et al,* 2012).

Research in educational tourism tends to be fragmented owing in part to a lack of consensus regarding what the construct actually comprises (Árnason, 2010; Campbell-Price, 2014; Cuba Canada, 2009; Pitman, Broomhall, McEwan & Majocha, 2010; Richards, 2011; Ritchie, 2003; Stoner, K., Tarrant, Perry, Stoner, L., Wearing & Lyons, 2014). Studies on the impacts of international educational travel have tended to concentrate on university student mobility, with research into the effects of international tourism on high school learners being a newly emerging field (Kenway & Fahey, 2014; McCarthy & Kenway, 2014; Resnik, 2012b). Similarly, analysis of the concept of global learning (Ambrose, 2008; Béneker, van Dis & van Middelkoop, 2014; Dede, 2009; Deloach, Kurt & Olitsky, 2015), and how educators can best nurture it in school children (Béneker, Tani, Uphues & van der Vaart, 2013; Choo, Sawch & Villaneuva, 2012; DeMello, 2011; Merryfield, 2012; Reidel & Draper, 2013; Van Rekan & Rushmore, 2009), is a developing theme in the fields of geography education and global citizenship education (GCED).

This thesis is constructed around three interwoven objectives related to international educational tourism (IET). The first objective is to critically analyse the theories of educational tourism, international education, experiential learning and global learning in order to propose a conceptual, process-driven model of international educational tourism. In doing so, this thesis develops the theory of IET and makes a significant contribution towards clarifying the nature of and terminology associated with educational tourism

The second objective of this thesis is to make a significant contribution to the literature by bridging the gap between theory and practice, by providing empirical evidence to support, or refute, the underpinning assumption of international education theory, and by association IET theory, that participation in IET increases global learning. To achieve this, the *world-mindedness scale* assessment instrument of Béneker *et al* (2013) which has

been extensively tested and validated in numerous European studies (Béneker *et al,* 2013:328), is adapted and modified in order to quantify levels of global learning in high school learners who have travelled internationally and to compare those levels with learners who have not. Moreover, through analysis of the data, the types of IET experiences that are best suited to encouraging global learning are identified and elucidated.

The final objective of this thesis is to explore the nature and scope of IET within the South African high school context. Through an analysis of the websites of selected high schools, the types of IET experiences that are available to learners are identified. This information is corroborated with the data collected from the administration of the survey instrument. Additionally, the demographic profiles of South African learners who participate in IET are developed.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The theories of educational tourism, international education, experiential learning and global learning originate in different academic disciplines but collectively construct the concept of international educational tourism. International education and educational tourism both describe the process of traveling in order to learn and both disciplines employ experiential learning theory to explain the manner in which effective learning takes place. Global learning describes a primary outcome of the process of IET and also provides the means to empirically test whether learning is indeed occurring as a consequence of that travel. In this instance, learning does not refer to specific academic or vocational knowledge which might be gained during a specifically themed international tour, but rather it refers to the acquisition of knowledge of social and environmental issues that transcends national boundaries and the development of transferable or “soft” skills such as the ability to effectively communicate and collaborate in culturally diverse environments.

Global learning tends to follow a progression from *global awareness*, the acquisition of knowledge about world issues and “an understanding of one’s self in the world” (Tarrant, Rubin & Stoner, 2014:143); to *global mindedness*, a change in attitude or way of thinking

(Béneker *et al,* 2014), associated with being more socially and environmentally aware (Tarrant *et al,* 2014); to *global competence*, the ability to function within culturally diverse situations (Deardorff, 2014a) and to behave in a manner that "is motivated by social responsibility" (Tarrant *et al,* 2014:144) towards local, national and global communities. It is suggested that owing to the age of high school learners and their limited international experience, that *global mindedness* is an appropriate anticipated outcome of school-driven IET.

Review of the literature indicates that the vast majority of literature and research in international education emanates from the USA, Canada, the UK and Australia and considers the phenomenon as it is applied in universities and impacts on university students. Whilst tourism research has increased substantially over the last few decades, educational tourism remains an under-researched sector, with very little theoretical innovation since Ritchie's (2003) *segmentation model of educational tourism*. Global learning theory, by contrast, has generated significant interest, particularly amongst north-western European geography education researchers and proponents of global citizenship education. The *integrated world-mindedness scale* developed by Béneker *et al* (2013) specifically for use by secondary school learners, provides a means to quantify global learning resulting from IET. Experiential learning theory is well established in the literature and is integrated into educational tourism, international education and global learning texts.

Through a critical analysis and synthesis of the four theories, this research develops the theoretical concept of IET. The underpinning assumption of international education, namely that it contributes to the development of global learning, is empirically tested. The study also extends existing research in this domain by evaluating the impact of participation in IET on the development of global learning in high school learners.

1.3 PURPOSE STATEMENT

There are three main purposes of this study. The first is to develop a conceptual model of international educational tourism based on the synthesis of educational tourism,

international education, experiential learning and global learning theories. The second purpose is to provide empirical evidence to test the underpinning assumption of international educational theory and by association IET theory, namely that it contributes significantly to the development of global learning amongst participants of international educational travel. The third purpose is to explore IET within the South African high school context. In doing so, this thesis bridges the gap between theory and practice and extends the application of the theory from tertiary-level education to secondary education. In order to achieve this, the following objectives and hypotheses are proposed.

1.3.1 Research objectives

This study is constructed around three primary objectives:

1. To develop a conceptual model of IET as an experiential process.
2. To empirically test the underpinning assumption of international education theory that international travel encourages global learning.
3. To explore IET within the South African high school context.

In order to achieve the objectives of this thesis the following specific sub-objectives are proposed:

1. To critically review the underpinning assumptions of the theories of educational tourism, international education, experiential learning and global learning.
2. To suggest a conceptual model of IET based on the synthesis of educational tourism, international education, experiential learning and global learning theories.
3. To determine the scale and type of IET that occurs in selected South African high schools.
4. To quantify and compare levels of global learning between high school learners who have travelled internationally with those who have not.
5. To determine whether different types of IET result in different levels of global learning.

6. In light of the findings of the above research objectives, to determine the validity of the underpinning assumption of international education theory, namely that a primary outcome of the process of international educational travel is the development of global learning.
7. Finally, through analysis of the results of the research, to test and where necessary modify, the conceptual model of IET that has been proposed.

1.3.2 Research hypotheses

In order to achieve the second primary objective of this thesis, the following three hypotheses will be tested:

H_1: Learners who have travelled internationally are more globally minded than those who have not.
H_2: Of those learners who have travelled internationally, those who have participated in an IET experience are more globally minded than those who have not.
H_3: Some types of IET are better suited to encouraging global learning than others.

1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

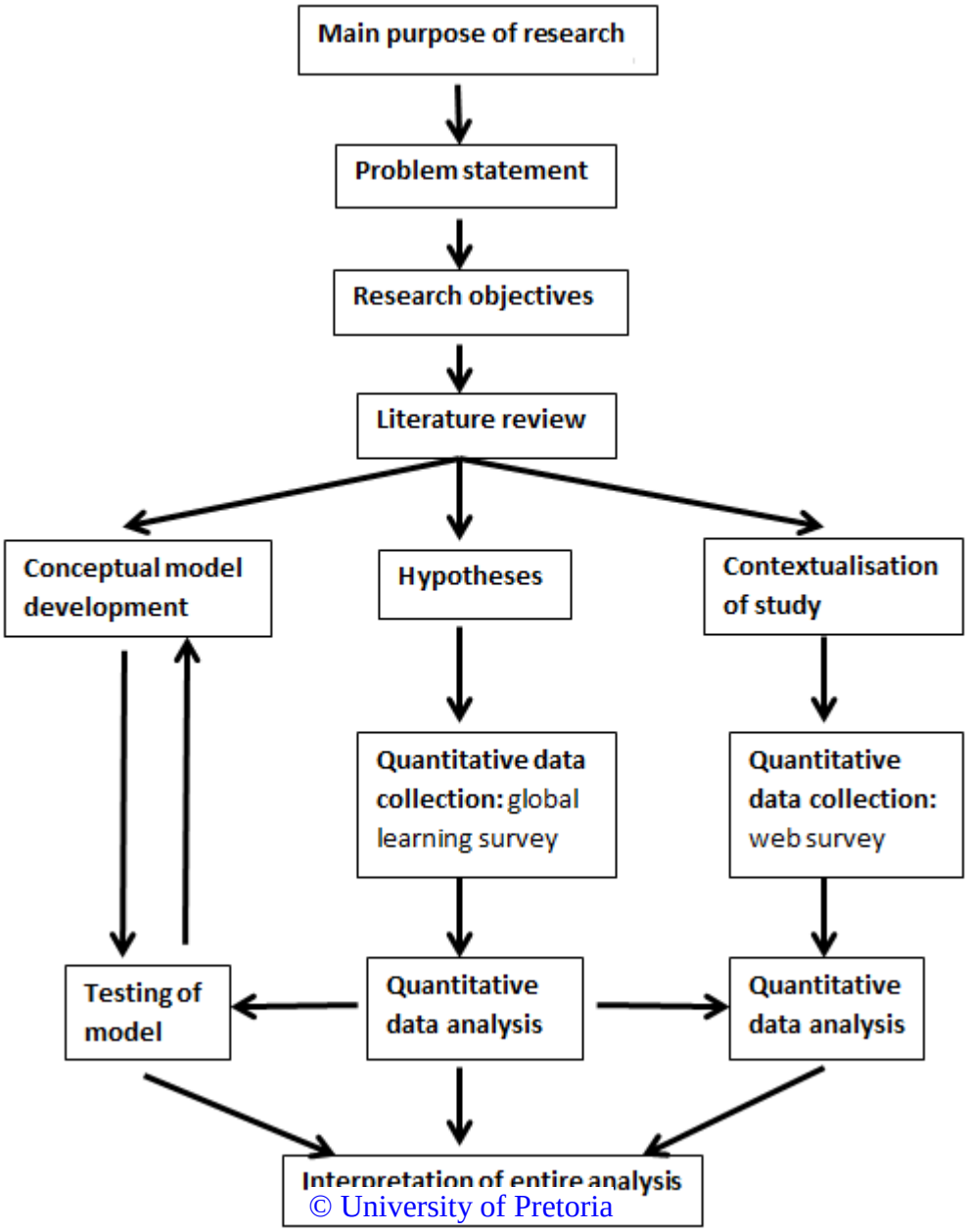
A positivist philosophy is adopted for this thesis. As an epistemology, positivism focuses on causality and the ability to develop generalisations (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012:140). Quantitative positivism provides the means by which statistically significant relationships can be identified and theories substantiated (Reiter, 2014). Since a primary objective of this thesis is to provide empirical evidence to test and develop international educational tourism theory, the adoption of positivism as the research paradigm is justified.

In order to achieve the three primary objectives of this thesis, the research is designed around the following components:

1. The development of a conceptual model of IET, based on an extensive literature review of educational tourism, international education, experiential learning and global learning.
2. The administration of a global learning survey instrument to selected Grade 11 learners, in order to test the conceptual model and the research hypotheses.
3. A web-based survey of exclusive South African high schools in order to analyse IET within the schools and to establish the context of the thesis.

A road map of the research design is provided in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1: The research process road map



1.4.1 Conceptual model development

Educational tourism and international education share a common history. The process of travelling in order to learn is a feature of both and together, they describe IET. The theory of experiential learning, which is extensively cited in the international education literature, can be applied to explain the manner in which learning occurs during IET. Global learning theory may be used to describe the generic, as opposed to subject-specific, desired outcomes of IET.

Educational tourism

Research in educational tourism is sparse and fragmented, in large part due to the lack of consensus regarding what it actually comprises. Definitions of educational tourism usually concur that it involves travel with either the primary or secondary purpose being to learn in a unique environment (Campbell-Price, 2014; Cuba Canada, 2009; Pitman *et al,* 2010; Richards, 2011; Ritchie, 2003; Stoner *et al,* 2014). Beyond travelling motivated by the desire to learn however, there is little agreement. Much of the literature attempts to define educational tourism in terms of the industry sectors or segments it either encompasses or excludes, and is based on Ritchie's *segmentation model of educational tourism* (Ritchie, 2003). Adopting a market segment approach to defining educational tourism runs the risk of excluding sectors of the industry in which learning may be a significant activity. To avoid this, Pitman *et al* (2010) propose a process approach for defining educational tourism. Richards (2011) moves the concept further by suggesting that educational tourism be conceived as a transformative experience and Stoner *et al* (2014) suggest that global citizenship is a learning outcome of educational travel.

In order to propose a conceptual model of IET, the educational tourism literature is critically analysed. As a starting point for the development of the model, a typology of IET is suggested that draws from the work of Ritchie (2003) and Pitman *et al* (2010).

International education

Unlike educational tourism which can be applied to all stages of life, international education is usually considered a tertiary-level educational phenomenon. Knight defines

international education as: “the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, function or delivery of post-secondary education” (Knight, 2004:11). International education theory is well established and various conceptual models have been developed to describe the process by which students become more inter-culturally competent. Intercultural competence is associated with the development of skills and knowledge which enable one to communicate effectively and behave appropriately within cultural settings which are different from one’s own culture (Deardorff & Jones, 2012). Table 1.1 provides a summary of the similarities and differences between educational tourism and international education.

Table 1.1: Comparison of educational tourism and international education

	Educational tourism (ET)	**International education (IE)**	**Comment**
Origins	*The Grand Tour*	*Academic pilgrims*	Different terms but shared origins in the mid-17th C.
Process of learning	Experiential education	Experiential education	Same process though theory employed more in IE literature.
Educational level applied	From pre-primary school to life-long learning	Only tertiary education	Overlap at tertiary level for students studying abroad for one year or less.
Strands	• International or local • Day trips or over-night tours	• IE “at home” – internationalising the curriculum • “Cross-border” IE – international study programmes	ET is not concerned with internationalising the curriculum within schools.
Educational outcomes	• Global competence • Specific academic / vocational competencies	• Cross-cultural competence • Specific academic / vocational competencies	IE focused on enabling students to function within inter-cultural settings; ET does this plus it is hypothesized it develops broader social and environmental awareness potentially leading to behavioural changes (outcomes of *global learning* theory).
Economic contribution	• Some research on contribution of school trips to local economies	• “Export education” is a multi-billion dollar global industry	ET is very under-researched with regards to its economic impact on economies.

Experiential learning

Kolb's theory of experiential learning (Kolb, 1984) is referred to extensively in the literature to explain the process of learning associated with educational tourism (Stoner *et al,* 2014; Vance, Siebeck, McNulty & Hogenauer, 2011; Van 'T Klooster, 2014); international education (Deardorff, 2006; Tarrant *et al, 2014;* Vande Berg *et al,* 2012), and global learning (DeMello, 2011; Itin, 1999; Merryfield, Lo, Po & Kasai, 2008). Kolb (1984) proposed the integration of four different but complementary styles of learning to achieve effective education. His theory is reviewed for its potential to inform a conceptual model of IET.

Global learning

The outcome of international education is the achievement of intercultural competence that enables one to function within various inter-cultural contexts. Global learning builds on that, progressing personal development to a point where one considers one's role within a broader multi-cultural and environmental context. Like the intercultural competence models, the process of global learning, which in some of the literature is referred to as *global citizenship education,* is considered to follow a progression, from *global awareness* (the acquisition of knowledge), to *global mindedness* (a change in attitude or way of thinking associated with being more socially and environmentally aware), to *global competence* (associated with a change in behaviour that is more participatory and justice-orientated) (Tarrant *et al,* 2014).

This thesis proposes that international tourism encourages global learning but acknowledges that international travel is not a prerequisite for global learning. For example, global citizenship education in the classroom is identified as one of the three pillars of the United Nations' *Global Education First Initiative* (Ban, 2012). Owing to the fact that global learning may occur without associated international travel, this thesis considers potentially confounding and moderating variables of global learning associated with classroom-based education, such as studying geography or a third language, participating in community service programmes and taking an active interest in the news.

Through a critical investigation of the literature related to the theories of educational tourism, international education, experiential learning and global learning, salient features that collectively define IET are identified in order to propose a synthesised model of international educational tourism.

1.4.2 Contextualisation of the thesis

The World Economic Forum's *Global Competitive Report: 2015-2016*, ranks the quality of the South African education system at 138 out of 140 countries (Schwab, 2015). Huge discrepancies exist in terms of the quality of education provided by most state versus independent schools. The vast majority of the country's state schools are characterised by a deprivation of resources (Motshekga, 2016a), and 84.5% of all state schools charge no school fees and are located within low income communities which have relatively small economies (Ndebele, 2016:461). Owing to the expense of international travel, international educational tourism is unobtainable for the vast majority of South African learners.

Through an analysis of IET opportunities promoted on the websites of selected schools, this thesis demonstrates that only the most expensive schools in the country offer IET experiences to their learners and that most of the exclusive schools which do, are independent rather than state governed. Furthermore, since exclusive schools are likely to produce many of South Africa's future business, social and scientific leaders, this thesis tests the claim that IET encourages "brain-drain" from less developed nations (Fahey & Kenway, 2010), by determining whether participation in IET accentuates the desire of learners to leave South Africa.

1.4.3 Testing the model and hypotheses

In order to empirically test the theoretical proposition that international educational tourism facilitates global learning, a survey instrument based on the *integrated world-mindedness scale* of Béneker *et al* (2013) is developed. Additionally, a combination of exploratory, descriptive and explanatory questions are included in the survey instrument in order to establish the type of IET opportunities that are available to learners in South African

exclusive high schools; to develop profiles of learners who participate in such opportunities, and to test the thesis's hypotheses by establishing any causal relationships between IET and global learning. Following the administration of the questionnaire to 67 learners during a pilot study, the global learning survey instrument was refined prior to undertaking the major research survey. Analysis of the data collected also enables the appraisal and refinement of the conceptual model of IET that is proposed.

1.4.4 Research population

School selection

A pilot study of high school websites was used to identify schools that are most likely to offer IET opportunities to their learners. Guided by those results the following criteria were adopted for the sampling frame:

1. all high schools that are members of the *Independent Schools Association of Southern Africa* (ISASA), and
2. that follow the *Independent Examinations Board* (IEB) curriculum, and
3. charged annual tuition fees of at least R54 000 per annum in 2015.

In total, 47 exclusive high schools in South Africa met those criteria. All those schools were approached to participate in this research and 16 of which, representing a participation rate of 34% of the total population, elected to participate.

Participant selection

The majority of international exchange opportunities occur during the Grade 10 academic year in South Africa. Other forms of IET, such as thematic tours, international academic competitions and youth leadership summits, occur throughout the high school years (Grades 8-12). Therefore, in order to survey the largest possible number of learners who could have experienced some form of international tourism, learners in Grade 11 were selected to be the study population. Grade 12 learners were excluded owing to them writing their final school leaving examinations.

All Grade 11 learners in the 16 schools were invited to complete the survey instrument. In total 1152 learners chose to participate in this thesis, representing a final return rate of 78.0% of all Grade 11 learners in the study population.

1.4.5 Data analysis

A cross-sectional analysis is employed involving the administration of a single global learning questionnaire to Grade 11 learners at the end of their academic year (October-November, 2015).

Data collected from the survey instrument is analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics with IBM SPSS Statistics (23) software.

The analysis commences with the employment of descriptive statistics to describe the demographic characteristics of the learner participants in terms of gender, race, country of birth and language spoken at home. The international travel behaviour of the learners is then investigated according to continents they have visited, frequency of international travel and whether or not they have attended school in another country. Their travel behaviour is further analysed through the examination of a *travel curiosity* factor which is specifically developed in this thesis based on literature relating to behaviour that facilitates inter-cultural learning (Lilley, 2014; Pitman *et al,* 2010).

Prior to exploring any relationships among the variables, the reliability of the *global mindedness* component of the global learning survey instrument is assessed using Cronbach's alpha. Independent sample t-Tests are then used to test the first two hypotheses of the thesis, namely:

H_1: Learners who have travelled internationally are more globally minded than those who have not.

H_2: Of those learners who have travelled internationally, those who have participated in an IET experience are more globally minded than those who have not.

The results are investigated further by correlating *global mindedness* scores with *global awareness* scores and *travel curiosity* scores which are also calculated from the survey responses.

In order to test the third hypothesis, namely:

H_3: Some types of IET are better suited to encouraging global learning than others,

the data is first analysed in order to categorize the types of IET experiences and the frequency of participation in those activities by learners. One-way between-groups analysis of variance is conducted to explore the impact of different types of IET on global learning.

Potentially confounding and moderating variables which may influence the relationship between IET and global learning are then reviewed using exploratory statistical techniques.

In light of the results of the data analysis, the conceptual model of IET is reviewed and further developed. The process is enhanced through discussions with the principals of surveyed high schools whose learners scored highly on the global learning survey.

1.4.6 Assessing and demonstrating the quality and rigour of the research design

The "scientific canons of enquiry" (Saunders *et al,* 2012:192) of the positivist paradigm, namely: reliability, construct validity, internal validity and external validity are applied to ensure academic rigour.

The global learning survey instrument that is developed for this thesis is based on the *integrated world-mindfulness scale* (IWMS) developed by Béneker *et al* (2013; 2014). The IWMS comprises equal numbers of individual items from two earlier scales, namely: Sampson and Smith's (1957) *world-mindfulness scale* and Hett's (1993) *global-*

mindedness scale. All the individual items that comprise the two scales, have been extensively validated in previous studies (Béneker *et al,* 2013; Béneker *et al,* 2014; DeMello, 2011; Vassar, 2006), and the reliability of the IWMS has been demonstrated in its application in two studies of European high school learners (Béneker *et al,* 2013; Béneker *et al,* 2014). The reliability of the survey instrument for assessing global learning in the South African exclusive school context is confirmed using Cronbach's alpha to test for internal consistency of the survey items. From an original scale comprising 21 items, the global mindedness component of the global learning survey instrument is reduced to a 16 item scale, with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.79.

Reliability refers to the ability of an instrument to measure consistently. If an instrument can be shown to be reliable, then it is most likely also valid, meaning that it measures what it is intended to measure (Tavakol & Dennik, 2011). Ensuring reliability of the information provided on school websites however, is problematic since their data may be incomplete, inaccurate or out of date (Edwards, T., Tregaskis, Edwards, P., Ferner & Marginson, in Saunders *et al,* 2012:263). Corroboration of the website information with data collected via the survey instrument, regarding the details of learner participation in IET, ensures greater reliability. As this component of the research is essentially descriptive, construct and internal validity are of no concern.

In terms of overall reliability of the research, the sampling frames are clearly explained and the method of gathering data is transparent and repeatable. Correct administration of the survey instrument is dependent upon teachers' implementing the test as per the research requirements, specifically learners are requested not to discuss their responses with other learners, so participant error may be introduced if talking is allowed during completion of the questionnaire. Owing to the nature of the questions however, participant error is only anticipated to significantly impact results in the section of the survey instrument that measures *global awareness.* The methodology employed could easily be applied in other settings or using other sampling frames, thus assuring the external validity of the research.

1.5 RESEARCH ETHICS

Prior to commencement of data collection, clearance was obtained from the *Research Ethics Committee* of the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences at the University of Pretoria.

All primary data for this research were either collected off school websites or directly from learners via the global learning survey instrument. As a result, consideration is given to ensure that no infringements of copyright occurs when referring to websites and that anonymity is assured with regards to participating schools and their learners during presentation and analysis of the data. Pseudonyms are assigned when referring to specific schools and for the majority of the data analysis responses are aggregated from the 1152 learner participants.

Owing to the nature of the global learning survey instrument, the fact that it is anonymous and no potentially harmful questions are asked of the learners, and because many learners are weekly or termly borders and thus cannot conveniently get their parents to sign consent forms, school principals acted *in loco parentis* and provided permission for their learners to participate in this research. Additionally, the nature of the study, the responsibilities of the researcher and the rights of the learners including their right to not participate were clearly explained to all potential participants prior to commencement of the survey.

1.6 ACADEMIC VALUE AND CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

This study contributes to the academic literature by proposing and empirically testing a conceptual model of international educational tourism based on the synthesis of the theories of educational tourism, international education, experiential learning and global learning. By reconceptualising educational tourism as a *process* with clearly defined and measurable outcomes, rather than by the content or subject matter of a tourism product, this thesis develops a clearer framework upon which educational tourism experiences can be developed.

Furthermore, Ritchie's *segmentation model* (Ritchie, 2003) of educational tourism which is most often cited in the literature, employs a segmentation approach to defining educational tourism and in doing so, excludes certain forms of tourism in which substantial learning may be occurring. The process-driven conceptual model of IET and the typology of educational tourism that this thesis presents, provide a practical means by which educational tourism products and services can be identified and developed. A process approach also demonstrates the possibility of hybridising educational tourism with many different sectors of the tourism industry.

The thesis is also motivated by the growing demand in the literature for rigorous empirical research to support, or refute, the underpinning assumptions of international education theory, namely that global learning occurs as a consequence of international travel. Using a global learning assessment instrument that is adapted from the *integrated world-mindedness scale* which has been extensively tested and validated in a number of European studies (Béneker *et al,* 2013:328), this thesis provides empirical evidence to test the underpinning assumptions of international education theory. In doing so, the research bridges the gap between theory and practice.

Very little research has considered the IET experiences of children. This study generates new information regarding the types of international educational tourism and the educational impact of IET on high school learners. It also identifies the processes by which global learning may be encouraged during educational tourism activities.

Finally, this study contributes to local knowledge by determining the scope and type of IET opportunities that are offered in select exclusive South African high schools and by developing demographic profiles of learners who participate in IET.

1.7 CHAPTER SEQUENCE

This thesis is constructed in the following manner:

Chapter 1: Introduction to the study – provides an overview of the thesis. It introduces the theories which inform the thesis and the South African educational context of the study. The research objectives and research strategy are outlined and the academic contributions of the thesis are briefly mentioned.

Chapter 2: The relationship between educational tourism and international education – through a review of the literature, the common history of the two disciplines is presented then their theoretical and practical differences are discussed. Next the chapter focuses on the practice of international educational tourism within exclusive schools and concludes with an analysis of the research that informs IET theory.

Chapter 3: Global learning and experiential learning – in this chapter the lack of consensus in the literature with regards to the terminology associated with global learning theory is reviewed in order to develop the definitions which are used in this thesis. Following that, global learning and experiential learning theories are discussed. Methods for quantifying global learning are then appraised and the chapter ends with a discussion on the contemporary need for global learning in schools.

Chapter 4: Reconceptualising educational tourism theory – this chapter presents one of the primary objectives of the thesis, namely the development of an alternative model of international educational tourism to Ritchie's (2003) *segmentation model*. The conceptual model draws together the four theories that were discussed in the previous two chapters and considers IET as a process. In doing so, it removes the limitations imposed by defining educational tourism as a segment of tourism and thus provides the means by which educational tourism can be hybridised with, and thus add value to, many different sectors of tourism.

Chapter 5: South Africa's exclusive schools – in order to contextualise this thesis, a history of South Africa's exclusive independent and state schools is provided. The chapter also considers the dualistic nature of contemporary education within the country and concludes with an analysis of the IET opportunities that are offered to children in the country's exclusive schools.

Chapter 6: Research design – this chapter provides the rationale for adopting a positivist research philosophy then explains the research strategy, survey instrument design, pilot studies, sampling frames, mode of data collection and research ethics that inform the research design.

Chapter 7: Findings and analysis – in this chapter the data are analysed using IBM's SPSS (version 23) software. Demographic profiles of learners who have participated in international school-based travel are presented and the IET offerings of the sampled schools are described. The reliability and validity of the survey instrument are then investigated. Learners' perceptions of global problems are presented, following which the thesis's hypotheses and the underlying constructs of the conceptual model of IET are tested. This chapter concludes with a discussion of confounding and moderating variables which influence the relationship between international educational tourism and global learning.

Chapter 8: Discussion – the final chapter of the thesis reviews the research findings in terms of the objectives and hypotheses of the study. Insights garnered and the academic contributions of the thesis to the literature are considered. Limitations of the study, together with recommendations for future research, are proposed.

1.8 SCOPE

International educational tourism is essentially an activity of exclusive schools and therefore only exclusive schools and the Grade 11 learners who are enrolled in those schools comprise the study population of this thesis.

In contextualising this research, the history of South African exclusive independent and state schools is considered. Exclusive state schools are often referred to in the literature as “former model C schools” and were identified in this study from the independently ranked *Top 25 Government Schools, 2013* survey (Fairlady, 2013) and the *100 best schools in Africa* (Anon, 2013) ranking. Independent schools were defined as those that are members of *ISASA*, charged annual tuition fees of over R54 000 per annum in 2015, and follow the *IEB* curriculum.

Only the exclusive independent schools were included in the global learning survey in order to remove the potentially confounding influence of learners following different academic curricula from those in government schools.

All global learning questionnaires were completed between October and November of 2015. A preliminary survey of the schools’ websites to delineate the sampling frame was undertaken in August 2015. Analysis of the schools’ websites for evidence of international educational tourism occurred between February and March of 2016.

1.9 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Educational tourism: the process of travelling for pleasure, during which learning may either be an explicit measurable outcome, or may occur more implicitly as a consequence of leisure activities.

Exclusive school: one which is considerably more expensive than the majority of schools within a nation (charge school fees within the top 10 percentile of all schools) and that is well resourced compared with the majority of schools. Exclusive schools may also be considered elite if they cater primarily to the top academic, sporting or cultural achievers.

Global awareness: the acquisition of knowledge about world issues and “an understanding of one’s self in the world” (Tarrant, Rubin & Stoner, 2014:143).

Global citizenship education (GCED): “a paradigm which encapsulates how education can develop the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes learners need in order to build a world that is just, peaceful, inclusive and sustainable.” (Choonghee, 2015:1).

Global competence: the ability to function within culturally diverse situations (Deardorff, 2014), and to behave in a manner that “is motivated by social responsibility” (Tarrant *et al,* 2014:144) towards local, national and global communities.

Global learning: a primary outcome of international educational tourism. Describes a process by which one becomes progressively more knowledgeable and mindful of social and environmental issues that transcend one’s local environment and which ultimately encourages behavioural changes that reflect consideration of one’s role and responsibilities within a broader multi-cultural and environmental context.

Global mindedness: a change in attitude or way of thinking (Béneker *et al,* 2014), associated with being more socially and environmentally aware (Tarrant *et al,* 2014).

High school: another term for *secondary school*. In South Africa, Grades 8-12 constitute high school.

International education: “the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, function or delivery of post-secondary education.” (Knight, 2004:11).

Learner: a child who attends primary or secondary school. In South Africa, learners are in Grades 0 – 12.

Student: a person engaged in a learning programme in post-secondary, or tertiary, education.

Table 1.2: Abbreviations used in this thesis

Abbreviation	Meaning
BRICS	Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa – an economic bloc
GA	Global Awareness
GCED	Global Citizenship Education
GL	Global Learning
GM	Global Mindedness
GMS	Global-Mindedness Scale
IEASA	International Education Association of South Africa
IEB	Independent Examinations Board
IET	International Educational Tourism
ISASA	Independent Schools Association of Southern Africa
IWMS	Integrated World-Mindedness Scale
SADC	Southern African Development Community
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNWTO	World Tourism Organisation
WMS	World-Mindedness Scale
WYSETC	World Youth and Student Educational Travel Confederation

1.10 SUMMARY

This chapter has provided an overview of the research design of the thesis. The theoretical constructs that inform the study and the contextualisation within South Africa's exclusive high schools have been introduced. The three primary objectives of the thesis, namely: to develop an alternative conceptual model of IET; to empirically test the underpinning assumption of international education theory that international travel encourages global learning, and to explore IET within the South African high school context, have been presented.

The following two chapters review the literature pertaining to the four theories which form the theoretical framework around which this thesis is constructed. In the next chapter educational tourism and international education theory are considered in order to develop a definition of international educational tourism which is employed in this thesis. The

chapter also considers IET within the context of exclusive schools and reviews the literature for research in school-based IET.

CHAPTER 2: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EDUCATIONAL TOURISM AND INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The theories of educational tourism and international education both describe the process of travelling in order to learn and share a common history. The theories diverge in terms of the educational level to which they are applied: educational tourism can be integrated into all levels of education, from primary school to life-long learning (Ritchie, 2003), whereas international education is specifically a tertiary-level educational phenomenon (Knight, 2004). Furthermore, while travel is a prerequisite for all forms of educational tourism, a large component of international education is concerned with internationalising the curriculum, "internationalisation at home" (Knight, 2012:34) and as such is not associated with any form of travel. By drawing together the theory of educational tourism and the aspects of international education theory that are associated with international travel, namely "cross-border education" (Knight, 2014:34), this chapter lays the foundation for the development of a conceptual model of international educational tourism (IET) that is proposed in Chapter Four.

The presentation of information in this chapter is arranged in two parts. It commences with a review of educational tourism and international education within the higher education sector owing to the fact that most of the literature, as well as industry development, is focussed there. The second part of the chapter considers school-based educational tourism and the characteristics of the schools that offer IET.

The chapter commences with a discussion on the shared history of educational tourism and international education. Following that, definitions of the two concepts are considered. The export education industry is briefly analysed in order to demonstrate how international education has developed in the last few decades and to illustrate the potential for growth in the IET market. The second part of the chapter traces the history of educational tourism in schools. Then contemporary IET associations and their regulatory bodies are briefly

discussed. The defining characteristics of exclusive high schools and the type of IET experiences they offer are described. The chapter concludes with a review of the literature pertaining to school-based educational tourism research.

2.2 HISTORY OF EDUCATIONAL TOURISM AND INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

Ever since our early ancestors migrated out of Africa over one million years ago, the inherent inquisitiveness of humans has led us to travel to seek out novel destinations. It can be argued that learning of some description is a component of all forms of travel. Early pilgrims would have experienced different cultures as they travelled to religious sites. Seafarers encountered innumerable new phenomena during the Age of Discovery, and armies would undoubtedly have been aware of the differences of, and similarities to, the people they conquered. In each of these instances however, learning would have been incidental to the primary motivators of travel, namely: religion, economics or military domination. When the desire to learn, that is to develop one's knowledge, skills or values, is a major reason for travelling, then one may be considered to be an educational tourist.

2.2.1 The Grand Tour and British educational tourism

The *Grand Tour* is generally cited as the origin of educational tourism (Ritchie, 2003) and international education (De Wit & Merkx, 2012). Conceived during the mid-sixteenth century, young aristocratic British men and their tutors, the *peregrinationes academicae* (academic pilgrims) (De Wit & Merkx, 2012:44), would spend on average three years touring certain cities and places in Western Europe primarily for education and pleasure (Towner, 1985:310). Participants were taught foreign languages (Latin, French, Italian and German); visited ancient Classical and Renaissance sites (Towner, 1985:311), and learned fencing, riding, dancing and foreign affairs (Ritchie, 2003:10). The practice of sending their sons to study at the prestigious institutions of the Old World was viewed by the wealthy as a means of exercising their privilege (Dorres & Scheuermann, 2007:4).

The Enlightenment period

With the onset of the Enlightenment period, a new segment of educational tourism emerged, the "scientific traveller" (Towner, 1985:311), which was possibly in response to the establishment of the *Royal Society* in 1660. The society's members originally comprised academics and wealthy amateur natural scientists (Royal Society, n.d.) and it was the latter that travelled extensively gathering empirical data and specimens. As increasing numbers of professional middle-class men and later their families started taking shorter versions of the *Grand Tour*, the profile of the tourists changed to such an extent that by the mid-eighteenth century the aristocracy abandoned the *Grand Tour* to seek more "socially exclusive" destinations (Towner, 1985:309; Kopper, 2009).

The Romantic period

Educational tourists driven by literary motives increased in numbers during the 1880s and 1890s (James, 2013; Towner, 1985). Many of these tourists were professional writers seeking inspiration from destinations associated with the Romantic writers and artists. A *Romantic Grand Tour* operated in Europe between 1814 and 1820 (Towner, 1985:311). European *finishing schools* were also established during this period, providing young women the opportunity to travel to Europe to acquire "an irreproachable foundation in all aspects of social etiquette, entertaining and lifestyle appreciation" (Zablith, n.d.).

The Victorian period

The Victorian period heralded large scale British imperial expansion and its associated global travel. The *Royal Geographical Society*, founded in 1830 as a "gentleman's dining club" in London (Royal Geographical Society, 2005), encouraged travel with an educational focus. Charles Darwin was elected onto its council in 1837 and is arguably one of the most prolific educational tourists ever, having gathered specimens from around the world during his five year-long voyage on the *HMS Beagle* between 1826 and 1830. Closely allied for many of its earlier years with "colonial exploration in Africa, the Indian sub-continent, the polar regions and central Asia" (Royal Geographic Society, 2005), the *Royal Geographical Society's* members included *inter alia*: Livingstone, Stanley, Scott, Shackleton and Hillary. Through their travels, these men not only personally grew in knowledge, but also significantly expanded the body of knowledge of the time. The

Victorian preoccupation with ancient Egypt also spawned a number of educational tourists. Victorian intellectual and travel writer Amelia Edwards (1831-1892) explained an attraction of travel to Egypt was "the possibility for even an amateur to make important contributions to knowledge of its ancient civilization" (O'Neill, 2009:43).

Towards the end of the 19th century, the *Grand Tour* dissipated (Towner, 1985). In 1847 the *Royal Society* became an academy of professional scientists (Royal Society, n.d); the Industrial Revolution and its associated infrastructure led to the massification of tourism (Gordon, 2014), and tourists' interests became more sophisticated and diverse (Colbert, 2014).

2.2.2 The *Fashionable Tour* and North American educational tourism

19th Century

Across the Atlantic, by 1820 the *Fashionable Tour* provided a cheaper and more accessible alternative to the *Grand Tour* for Americans and Canadians (Gordon, 2014:83) and encompassed the north-eastern USA with an extension north into Canada. The development of the *Fashionable Tour* coincided with the creation of guidebook itineraries and walking tours, which enabled 19th century tourists to educate themselves about local culture and history as they strolled through the city (Gordon, 2014).

20th Century

By the early 20th century, educational tourism had become a means by which American teachers, the majority of whom were single women, could improve their promotional possibilities, integrate what they learned during their travels into their teaching and earn middle-class respectability (Gough, 2011). The academic sabbatical had been introduced into ten universities and colleges during the last two decades of the nineteenth century (Kimball, 1978) and spread to high schools shortly thereafter. Teacher travel was encouraged in 1911 by the establishment of the Kahn Foundation which offered fellowships to high school teachers for travel abroad (De Wit & Merkx, 2012:47). By early 1930, teachers on sabbatical comprised the largest occupational group to travel abroad (Gough, 2011:270), with 350 teachers participating in the *Outagamie County educational*

pilgrimage to Europe in 1931, making it "the largest organized travel from North America to Europe" that year (Gough, 2011:274).

2.2.3 The divergence of international education and educational tourism

Following World War I, the *Institute of International Education* (IIE) was founded in the USA and the first university study abroad programmes from America to Europe were established, motivated by the desire to foster peace and understanding between nations (IIE, 2016). The establishment of the IIE probably represents the point at which international education and educational tourism diverge. Working with government and the private sector, the IIE established policies, sourced funding and developed international educational programmes, including the prestigious Fulbright Programme and Gilman Scholarships (IIE, 2016). The industry growth and scholastic research in the field of international education was not matched by educational tourism during the 20th century.

Initially, study abroad programmes were either a semester or a year in duration, for academic credit, and solely an undergraduate experience (Deardorff, de Wit & Heyl, 2012). After the Second World War, IIE increased its commitment to developing inter-cultural understanding and established *NAFSA: Association of International Educators* and the *Council on International Educational Exchange* (CIEE) (IIE, 2016).

In post-World War II Europe, international student travel continued to be essentially an activity of the socially elite however the students now tended to be the children of wealthy families from developing nations seeking degrees in the countries that were the dominant colonial powers of the time (De Wit & Merkx, 2012:51). By the middle of the 20th century, increasing numbers of American students were studying abroad. Through exposure to other cultures, it was believed that students would develop a broader understanding and greater respect for their own and other cultures (IIE, 1997:48). The establishment of the *East-West Centre* in 1960 (East-West Centre, n.d.) and the *Peace Corps* in 1963 (Peace Corps, 2015), reflect the underpinning rationale of mutual inter-national understanding promoted by then President J. F. Kennedy. In Europe, the *European Association for International Education* (EAIE) was convened in 1989 to promote short-term intra-

European student mobility via its *Erasmus* programme (EAIE, 2013). Differing from the USA, the driving forces for encouraging student mobility were language acquisition and the gaining of experience to enhance graduate employability in Europe.

By the end of the century, almost two million students were studying abroad (UNESCO, 2013) and the nature of study abroad had diversified to include shorter-duration sojourns for American students and work experience and internship programmes for European students (Van 'T Klooster, 2014). In addition to study for academic credit, international education now incorporated foreign language acquisition, internships and volunteer or service learning. Around this time there appears to have been a renewed interest in educational tourism, with scholars such as Ritchie observing the convergence of the tourism and education industries, with "education facilitating mobility and learning becoming an important part of the tourist experience" (Ritchie, 2003:1).

2.2.4 International education and the student travel industry

Although educational tourism literature emanating from the 20th century is sparse, two significant developments in the student travel industry occurred.

With more students travelling internationally to study after the end of World War II, the student travel industry grew. In the Netherlands, a group of university student unions established the *International Student Travel Confederation* (ISTC) in 1949 with the objective of making travel more affordable for students (WYSETC, 2016a). A year later a similar group, the *Federation of International Youth Travel Organisations* (FIYTO) was founded in Denmark. FIYTO catered for the broader category of youth tourists, as opposed to only students enrolled at tertiary institutions. In 1953, ISTC launched the *International Student Identity Card* (ISIC) (ISIC, n.d.). Originally the card was designed to provide students with access to less expensive travel, but today the card enables students to maximise their international travel experiences in terms of affordable transport, accommodation, travel insurance and other related goods and services (ISTC, n.d.).

In 2006, the *World Youth and Student Educational Travel Confederation* (WYSETC) was founded through the merger of ISTC and FIYTO, in order to create a stronger united body to represent the global youth travel industry (WYSETC, 2016a). The WYSETC's mission: "*To contribute to the personal and professional growth of students and young people and positively impact our global community by fostering international understanding, responsible international travel, cultural exchange and education"* (WYSETC, 2016a), succinctly summarises the essence of what international educational tourism should strive to achieve and reflects the driving forces behind the development of educational tourism and international education.

2.3 DEFINING EDUCATIONAL TOURISM

Although tourism has become "one of the major social and economic phenomena of modern times" (Sharpley & Telfer, 2014:3), a range of definitions of the term exist. This may in part be a consequence of the subject being a relatively new academic discipline, as reflected by the first publication dates of some of the tourism journals. *Annals of Tourism Research* is the oldest publication, having started in 1973, followed by the *Journal of Tourism Management* (1982). The 1990s saw the introduction of the *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* (1993), *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research* (1999) and the *International Journal of Tourism Research* (1999). Only after the turn of the century did the first journals devoted to the teaching of tourism as an academic subject appear, namely: the *Journal of Teaching in Travel and Tourism* (2001), and the *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education* (2002).

According to Burkhart and Medlik (in Sharpley & Telfer, 2014:15), definitions of tourism tend to fall into two broad categories: technical and conceptual. The former are usually employed by organisations wishing to quantify types of tourists and the tourism activities they engage in. For example, the annual *Yearbook of Tourism Statistics* published by UNWTO, defines tourism and tourists in terms of supply of and demand for products and services used by visitors and excursionists. In contrast, conceptual definitions often employ a more anthropological perspective, and consider "the meaning or role of tourism

to the tourist themselves" (Sharpley & Telfer, 2014:15). Definitions of educational tourism fall into both categories.

Pitman *et al's* (2010) observation that the terms "tourism" and "education" are "problematic bedfellows" is fitting considering the lack of consensus regarding the nature of educational tourism. Proponents usually concur that it involves travel away from one's home with either the primary or secondary purpose being to learn in a unique environment (Árnason, 2010; Campbell-Price, 2014; Cuba Canada, 2009; Pitman *et al,* 2010; Richards, 2011; Ritchie, 2003; Stoner *et al,* 2014). Beyond that however, definitions of educational tourism vary.

2.3.1 Sector approaches to defining educational tourism

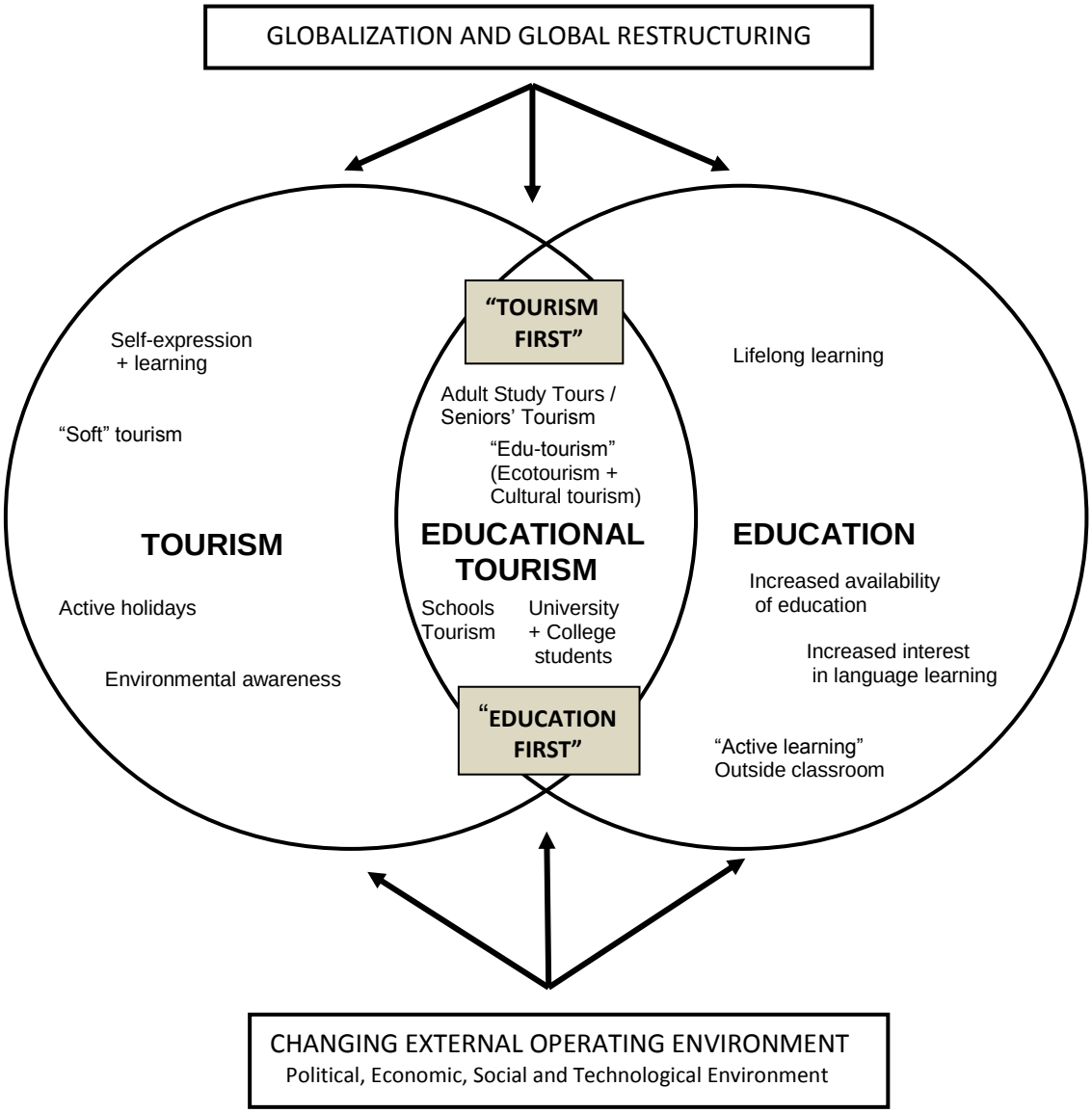
Much of the literature attempts to define educational tourism from a technical perspective in terms of the industry sectors or segments it either encompasses or excludes. For example, Richards (2011:14) suggests that growth in educational tourism is a consequence of the fragmentation of cultural tourism, and that educational tourism is a separate niche from volunteer tourism, language tourism and creative tourism. In contrast, The *City of Cape Town (*2009:154) recommends considering educational tourism, volunteer tourism, backpacking and youth tourism as a single composite, owing to the close association between the four sectors. Bodger (in The City of Cape Town, 2009:70) suggests that educational tourism includes four subtypes of tourism: eco-tourism, heritage tourism, rural/farm tourism and student exchanges between educational institutions. Ritchie also proposes that educational tourism comprise four segments, though instead of defining them according to subject matter, like Bodger, he defines three of his segments demographically while his fourth category is termed "edu-tourism" (Ritchie, 2003). Ritchie's model is discussed further owing to the fact that much of the research in the last decade has adopted his definition of educational tourism.

Ritchie's segmentation model of educational tourism

Ritchie's (2003) *segmentation model of educational tourism* adopts an anthropological perspective and is based on the motivational factors that drive tourists of different age-groups. According to him educational tourism is defined by the desire to learn. In his

model, learning may be either a primary or secondary motivator to travel (Ritchie, 2003:14), and learning may occur formally (using an expert or guide) or informally (independently, or self-driven) (Ritchie, 2003:11). His conceptual model of the major segments of educational tourism is reproduced in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Ritchie's segmentation model of educational tourism



(Source: Adapted from Ritchie, 2003:13).

In essence, Ritchie identifies four major market segments within the educational tourism sector:

1. “Edu-tourism” – comprising ecotourism and cultural tourism.
2. Adult or seniors’ educational tourism.
3. University or college educational tourism, including foreign language schools and student exchanges.
4. Schools tourism.

According to Ritchie, university or colleges and schools educational tourism represents formal learning and is indicated by “education first” on his model, whereas adult or seniors’ education and edu-tourism tend to occur informally and according to him are motivated more by leisure, rather than the desire to learn, hence “tourism first”. In the latter segments, elements of learning are incorporated into the tourism product, while in the former the purpose of travel is to learn (Ritchie, 2003:9).

Although Ritchie’s model helps conceptualise the overlap between education and tourism and has contributed to developing awareness of educational tourism as a niche sector, it has limitations. Adopting a “tourism first” or “education first” motivational dichotomy is problematic. For example, life-long learning is a primary motivational factor for many senior tourists (Pitman *et al,* 2010; Road Scholar, 2015), yet seniors’ tourism in the model is positioned as a “tourism first” activity. Furthermore, defining motivational factors is difficult when people self-identify (Scarinci & Pearce, 2012) and may be particularly so in the case of school-based educational tourism. For example, whilst teachers would perceive a school trip as being primarily educational, children are more likely to view participation as primarily a fun experience and hence in Ritchie’s model would be categorised as “tourism first”. From an educational perspective, good learning at school level should be fun, making the need to differentiate in terms of education or tourism redundant. Furthermore, by defining educational tourism by the criterion of being motivated either primarily or secondarily by the desire to learn is particularly problematic when dealing with children. A child may have no desire to learn on a tour. Their participation could be motivated by the desire to be with a friend, to avoid some other less appealing activity, to avoid getting detention for non-attendance and so on.

By equating “formal education” with universities, colleges, foreign language schools and schools (Ritchie, 2003:11), Ritchie excludes other post-secondary professional, technical and vocational training activities, as well as creative pursuits that encourage knowledge and/or skills development. His lumping together of ecotourism and cultural tourism as “edu-tourism” also excludes a number of other potential educational tourism sectors, such as: agri-tourism, heritage tourism and literary tourism.

2.3.2 Process approaches to defining educational tourism

Adopting a segmentation approach to defining educational tourism assists in the identification of particular market segments and products, however, it runs the risk of excluding sectors of the industry in which learning may be a significant activity. By employing a process approach for defining educational tourism this potential limitation can be avoided.

In an online survey of over 850 educational tourists, academics and tour operators in Australia, Pitman *et al* (2010:223) identified three key features of an educational tourism experience:

1. The trip was intentionally educationally focused.
2. The style of learning was experiential.
3. The trip was structured around an educational programme.

Educational tourism was described as “involving a deliberate and explicit learning experience” (Pitman *et al*, 2010:221). To be effective, it required active participation on the part of the educational tourists. The attitude of the tourist, in term of willingness to learn, was found to be more important for successful learning than any qualifications they might have. Reflective practices that took place on site or during the tourism experience were important for learning. In a departure from normal definitions of tourism, the process of educational tourism “extended beyond the actual touristic experience and encompassed pre- (and post-) travel considerations” (Pitman *et al,* 2010:234). In this regard, female tourists were found to engage in pre-departure preparations more than their male colleagues.

Interestingly, in contrast to Ritchie (2003), Pitman *et al* (2010) exclude formal learning (study abroad and for academic credit tours), as well as all forms of learning associated with informal education (such as self-growth during a rite of passage experience), from their definition of educational tourism. They use the term "non-formal learning" to define the process of educational tourism.

If one accepts the proposition that educational tourism is defined by the process of learning, that is the acquisition of knowledge and skills, then a number of other sectors of tourism need to be included under the umbrella of educational tourism. According to Richards (2011:35), *creative tourism* consists of "an exchange of knowledge and skills between guest and host" and thus should be considered as educational tourism. Similarly, *volunteer tourism*, "fuelled by the desire to learn about other cultures" (Richards, 2011:36) and *spiritual tourism,* which involves a personal journey of self-discovery and growth, should also be considered segments of educational tourism.

2.3.3 Educational tourism as transformative experience

Pine and Gilmore (in Richards, 2011) introduce the concept of the *"Experience Economy"* as the next stage in the production of value. In essence, they describe how economies over the last two centuries have moved from the extraction of raw materials, to production of goods, then services, and that the next stage is the production of "unique experiences" (Richards, 2011:36). This concept is central to educational tourism. Educational tourists today tend to be better educated, more academically minded, have a higher disposable income, and are more concerned about the environment and cultures (Árnason, 2010; Pitman *et al,* 2010; Richards, 2011). Educational tourists increasingly demand an authentic, rather than mass produced experience (Richards, 2011:36) and are particularly wary of the commodification of cultures (Lyons, Hanley, Wearing & Neil, 2012). According to Richards, this shift in demand is associated with a more co-operative form of tourism, whereby the tourists and the tour providers "co-create the desired experiences" (Richards, 2011:38), a notion supported by Pitman *et al* (2010).

Van 'T Klooster (2014) adds a further requirement for a desired educational tourism experience, namely the experience of cultural difference. According to him, in order for learning to occur during educational travel, some degree of difference from the tourist's normal life experiences needs to be encountered. This argument is supported by international education theoreticians (for example: Bennett, 1986; Deardorff, 2006; DeLoach *et al,* 2015) and is discussed further in the next chapter.

The different approaches to defining educational tourism and the lack of consensus regarding what constitutes educational tourism highlight the need for the development of a generic typology of the phenomenon and a model of the process of travelling to learn. Richards suggests that perhaps tourism products, services and experiences need to be reconceptualised using a hybrid model owing to an increasing trend of combining work with leisure and tourism (Richards, 2011:27). These considerations will be discussed further in Chapter Four.

2.4 DEFINING INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

Unlike educational tourism which can be applied to all stages of life, international education is usually considered a tertiary-level educational phenomenon. Sidhu and Dall'Alba describe it as: "the provision of higher education beyond national or regional borders" (Sidhu & Dall'Alba, 2012:413), while Knight provides more insight by defining international education as: "the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, function or delivery of post-secondary education." (Knight, 2004:11). According to Knight, two strands of internationalisation have developed on university campuses, namely: "internationalisation at home and cross-border education" (Knight, 2012:34).

2.4.1 Internationalisation "*at home*"

Internationalisation *"at home"* refers to practices and policies put in place by institutions to internationalise their campuses, curricula, research and extra-curricular activities (Knight,

2012:34). By doing so, higher education institutions are able to increase domestic student exposure to international and global issues (IAPO, 2010; Jobbins, 2015; Knight, 2012) and develop their inter-cultural skills (Deardoff, 2006) even if they do not participate in international travel. In two global surveys of the heads of over 100 universities in 2005 and 2009, the top rationale given for internationalisation was "to prepare students to be inter-culturally competent and more knowledgeable about international issues in a more globalised world" (Knight, 2012:32).

2.4.2 "*Cross-border*" education

"Cross-border" education involves recruiting international students and staff and sending domestic students and staff to different countries (Knight, 2012:34). It is this strand of international education that forms the focus of this thesis. International ranking scales such as the *Times Higher Education Report*, *Quacquarelli Symonds* and *U-Multirank,* have a significant impact on the ability of institutions to attract international students (THE, 2014; Van Damme, 2014), the so-called "reputation pull" of an institution (Naidoo, 2010:6). As a result, marketing and recruitment strategies have become more targeted and innovative to attract the mobile international student market (Naidoo, 2010; Sidhu & Dall'Alba, 2012; Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007). Critics of the excessive commercialisation of higher education, such as the *European Association of International Education* and the *Canadian Bureau for International Education,* have accused universities of "mission drift" as their global image has taken priority over local needs and called for a greater role of ethics and values in the delivery of international education (Choudaha, 2015; De Wit & Jooste, 2014; EAIE, 2014; Knight, 2014).

For institutions that are successful, internationalisation generates income, can raise the international profile of an institution, facilitates intercultural competencies amongst staff and students, encourages the establishment of strategic institutional alliances and enhances knowledge production (Knight, 2012:33). Income generation from *"cross-border"* education is not limited to institutions of higher education. *"Export education"* has become a multi-billion dollar global industry and is a significant contributor to the economies of many nations.

2.5 THE GLOBAL EXPORT EDUCATION INDUSTRY

Modern international education, like international tourism, has become a global economic phenomenon, yet international educational tourism, which theoretically may be considered as the point at which the two industries overlap, is an underdeveloped sector. The export education industry has grown substantially over the last few decades and is almost exclusively a phenomenon of international education. While the provision of degrees to international students is obviously not the business of tourism, the industry could develop complementary products and services for those students. Moreover, the potential to develop non-university-based international educational tourism experiences, within unique and diverse environments, appears largely unexplored. The opportunities for IET product development are limited only by the imagination. Export education is presented here to indicate a financially lucrative direction in which IET could develop.

In addition to higher education institutions devoting more resources to their international marketing and recruitment campaigns, countries now are also branding themselves to attract a greater share of the internationally mobile student market. This trend is particularly notable amongst the Anglo-American countries (Rhoades, 2016). The UK, Australia and New Zealand have centralised national marketing strategies to attract full-degree or diploma as well as shorter-term international students (Asaad, Melewar & Cohen, 2015; Sidhu & Dall'Alba, 2012), and the *Institute of International Education* (IIE) provides a similar function in the USA. New Zealand (Naidoo, 2010), Australia (UWN, 2016) and Finland (Schatz, 2015) have branded themselves specifically to attract international students and international education was identified as a priority sector for development in Canada's *2013 Global Markets Action Plan* (De Wit, 2016).

2.5.1 The contribution of export education to national economies

Notwithstanding differences in the definition of international students and data collection methodologies, the contribution of export education to national economies is huge. Traditionally, the USA has received the largest share of the international student market. In

2014, international students alone contributed over US$ 27 billion to the country's economy (Ortiz, Chang & Fang, 2015). According to the USA's *Association of International Educators* (NAFSA), the international student industry supported 340 000 jobs in the USA during the 2013/2014 academic year (NAFSA, 2015). Export education is supported and encouraged by the American government (Burton, 2006; Sánchez, 2011). Similar trends are recorded elsewhere.

In 2012, the British Council set the goal of growing the export education market from £18 billion that year to £30 billion by 2020 (Morgan, 2015; TCE, 2013), with the objective of becoming the global leader in international education (Coryton, 2013). Australia, which is the third most popular destination for international students after the USA and UK (Open Doors, 2015), generated A$ 19.65 billion from export education in 2015 (O'Malley, 2016). International education is Australia's largest service export and third largest export after coal and iron ore (Stoddart, 2014; UWN, 2016). New Zealand (Lewis, 2011; Martens & Starke, 2008; Naidoo, 2010), Hungary (Nagy & Berács, 2012) and China (Haugen, 2013; Zhou, 2009), are examples of other countries that have recognised the value of export education and are actively developing their international marketing and recruitment strategies.

2.5.2 The South African situation

Export education does not appear to have yet entered South African discourse in higher education, although there are at least 16 further education organisations that offer teaching of English as a foreign language (TEFL) courses in the country (Anon, 2016). As recently as 2012, the prospect of generating income from internationalisation practices was described by Vice Chancellor of the *University of Cape Town*, Max Price, as an "ugly topic" owing to it being perceived as contrary to the ethos of the intellectual academy (Price in UCT, 2012:1). Although the *International Education Association of South Africa* (IEASA) acknowledges the need for local universities to look for innovative ways to generate income (IEASA, 2015:16), no mention is made of any plan to develop a national export education strategy. It appears for now that South African institutions of higher education are focused on developing closer networks and collaborations with other African

and BRICS countries (Jooste, in IEASA, 2015:2-3). This “Afropolitan” (Rhoades, 2016:1) approach to higher education has been lauded as an example of universities using internationalisation policies to provide a public purpose “aimed at enhancing the collective qualities of life for communities locally, nationally” (Rhoades, 2016:3) and regionally. Rhoades highlights an issue that increasingly is being debated amongst international educators, namely the need to balance the academic, civic and ethical components of international education with the institutional need to generate income. This is supported by De Wit who calls for rigorous scrutiny of current export education practices in order to develop sustainable and principled recruitment strategies (De Wit, 2016).

While an Afropolitan approach to internationalisation may well develop institutional capacity, increase local students’ global mindedness and provide a public service, it is unlikely that it will contribute financially to South African universities, particularly as students from SADC countries pay the same fees as local students. Given the current *#FeesMustFall* campaign, it might be prudent for local universities to consider adopting a responsible recruitment strategy to access some of the export education industry.

National political instability, visa processing problems and changes to the student as well as exchange visa requirements that came into effect in April, 2015 (South African Government, 2014), have not encouraged international fee paying students to choose South Africa as a study or exchange destination. In fact during the 2013/14 academic year, although on average destination countries increased their USA student enrolments by 5.2% compared with the previous year, South Africa showed a decline of 6.9%. Only two other destination countries dropped in enrolments, Argentina (5.5%) and China (4.5%), (Open Doors, 2015). At the August 2015 annual meeting of *IEASA,* delegates reported that 854 international students across 10 South African universities had pending visa cases, while a further 226 had pending visa appeal cases (MacGregor, 2015). According to Quinlan (in MacGregor, 2015), the net effect of the gross incompetence on behalf of the government’s *Department of Home Affairs* is that students are being placed in vulnerable positions, lack of visa processing is being construed as a deliberate act of xenophobia and researchers and academics are increasingly reluctant “to include South African universities in international networks” (Quinlan in MacGregor, 2015:4).

2.5.3 The high school market

Historically, export education has been a higher education phenomenon. The potential of growing the export education industry to include the schools' market is a fledgling field. Australia, for example, through the government trade commission *Austrade,* is actively campaigning to recruit high school children from China, Vietnam and Malaysia (Austrade, 2014). The Australian government and the parents of the Asian children perceive the arrangement as mutually beneficial. The children receive what is considered to be a better education than that they would have received in their home country, which then provides them with access to Australia's institutions of higher education. The children's presence contributes to the export education industry and if they choose to settle in Australia on completion of their tertiary level studies, the young Asians then add to the national work force.

A number of South African independent schools educate learners from neighbouring southern African countries. Schools in Limpopo (*Southern* Cross) and Mpumalanga (*Uplands College* and *Penryn College*) attract children from Botswana, Mozambique, Swaziland and Zimbabwe. The Gauteng independent schools draw learners from neighbouring countries and further afield in Africa, such as Kenya and Uganda (*St Stithians' Colleges; St Peters College; St Mary's, Waverley*). Grahamstown in the Eastern Cape is the only city whose primary economy is based on education (Dayimane, 2014) and its independent schools also attract a share of the African market. Unlike the situation at many universities, African children attending South African schools do not pay a premium tuition fee. However, they contribute to the schools' and local economies through their boarding and living expenses and inbound family visits. Many of these children stay in South Africa to undertake their tertiary studies, thus further contributing to the local export education sector.

Having discussed the history of educational tourism and international education, and the direction of current trends in the export education market, the second half of this chapter addresses the development of educational tourism specifically within the context of schools. The types of IET experiences that are offered to high school children and the

defining characteristics of the exclusive schools that offer IET are considered. The chapter ends with an overview of the literature pertaining to school-based educational tourism research.

2.6 THE RISE OF EDUCATIONAL TOURISM IN SCHOOLS

2.6.1 Summer camps

While the Enlightenment period seems to have generated an increase in the number of adult educational tourists, it would appear that it was during the Romantic period that educational trips for children became established. Summer camps for children appeared in Europe towards the end of the nineteenth century and were probably a response to the increasingly polluted and unhealthy living conditions of industrialised cities. In Switzerland in the summer of 1876, Pastor Hermann Walter Bion, took children from a poor neighbourhood of Zurich to the alpine countryside of Appenzell. After two weeks of fresh air and exercise he noticed a marked increase in their health (MOTIF, 2008). Subsequent years saw him repeating the camp with increasing numbers of children and support staff. Similarly, the *Colonies de vacances* developed in France in 1880 were created to provide urban children with the opportunity to experience the countryside and the sea (Downs, 2009). In the USA, Abigail and Frederick Gunn took the first group of boys camping in New England in 1861 and are considered to be the forefathers of the *American Camp Association* (ACA, 2015). Back in Kaiser Wilhelm I Germany of the 1880s, the *Wandervögel* boys' organization arose from a romantic notion of a simpler past, opposed to the increasing industrial development, materialism and social class system based on birth and wealth (Gavin, 1999).

Baden-Powell's *Boy Scouts* was established in 1907 during a nine day camp in Dorset, England and its sister organization, the *Girl Guides* in 1910 (Scouts, 2013). Through its unique combination of "adventure, education and fun" (Scouts, 2013), the popularity of the movement in providing experiential learning opportunities for young people grew rapidly. During the two world wars, scouts and guides provided a number of volunteer services to

assist where adults had gone into active service. Today, the *World Organization of the Scouting Movement* comprises over 40 million boys and girls in 200 countries and territories around the world, with the objective of inspiring young people to become active local and global citizens, to help them create a better world (Scouts, 2013).

During the inter-war period, a number of political, paramilitary and religious youth organisations developed in Europe, but it was after the end of the Second World War that summer holiday camps for children proliferated in Europe and North America (Van Slyck, n.d.). A variety of different educational themes arose. In the USSR, the *Young Pioneer Camps* served as sites for patriotic indoctrination, much in the manner of Hitler's earlier *Youth League*. Various organisations from both the political left and right established children's camps in France (Downs, 2009). Some camps focused on rekindling cultural and language knowledge, such as the *Gaeltacht* camps in Ireland (Gaelsaoire, 2008). Developing language proficiency was a theme across many European countries and was also a phenomenon in South Africa with English speaking children being encouraged to spend their school holidays on the farms of Afrikaans speaking families. In 1958, the first *Veld and Vlei* outdoor adventure camp, based on the British *Outward Bound* model, was established in South Africa by J. Ormond (Blumfield, 2008). The concept of leadership development through physically challenging outdoor activities was further advanced by Telfer in KwaZulu Natal who founded *Spirit of Adventur*e in 1994. Today the organisation attracts school groups from provinces across the eastern side of South Africa (Spirit of Adventure, 2016).

As the twentieth century progressed, the educational content of summer camps diversified and international camps were established in non-"traditional" locations such as Asia, South America and Africa. The USA was at the forefront of this move and international high school summer holiday programmes became increasingly commercialised with the establishment of organisations such as *The Experiment in International Living* and the *Council on International Educational Exchange: High School Summer Abroad*, founded in 1932 and 1947 respectively (CIEE, 2015; Experiment, 2015). Both organisations provide short-term immersive experiential learning programmes with the objective of developing global citizenship amongst their participants and have sent thousands of American high school children abroad since their inception.

2.6.2 International exchange programmes

In addition to summer camps, a second form of educational tourism developed during the twentieth century, namely international exchange programmes. A benefit of exchange programmes is that they are often less expensive than summer abroad programmes, since families take it in turn to host each other's children. Established by Harris in Chicago in 1905, *Rotary,* which was probably the first international exchange programme, became globalised in 1972 and renamed itself *Rotary International Youth Exchange* with the mission of promoting "global peace and understanding" through cross-cultural and service learning (Rotary, 2015). The *Lions Club: Youth Exchange Programme* established in 1957 follows a similar format (Lions, 2015). Today numerous high school international exchange networks exist between countries around the globe.

WLSA and GALES

The *World Leading Schools' Association* (WLSA) and the *Global Alliance of Leading-Edge Schools* (GALES) are both examples of multinational networks of similar schools. *WLSA* was established in 2011 "to bridge cultural differences and promote further understanding" between high schools in China and the West (WLSA, 2015), and has offices in the Netherlands and China. Currently only three South African schools are associate members: *Westville Boys' High School, Westville Girls' High School* and the *African Leadership Academy.*

GALES was founded in 2010 by the elite *Raffles Institution* in Singapore and hosts a biennial *Tiltshift* summit for learners from the "20 top secondary and pre-college schools from around the world" (Raffles Institution, 2015). How schools are selected is not elucidated. To date, no South African school has been invited to participate.

The Round Square organisation

Round Square is a British registered charity that was established in 1966 based on the educational principles of Kurt Hahn. Born in Germany in 1886, Hahn was one of the original proponents of experiential education theory, and founded *Outward Bound* in 1941, *The Duke of Edinburgh's Award* (on which the South African *President's Award* is

modelled) in 1956, and the *United World Colleges* alliance of international schools in 1962. Hahn believed that only through experiencing challenging situations could one truly understand life and develop the skills, knowledge, attitude and principles needed to reach one's true potential and that "the greatest thing one could learn, and inspire in others, was compassion" (Round Square, 2016a).

Today, *Round Square* is an association of over 160 schools in 40 countries that have adopted a holistic approach to learning based on six IDEALS, which collectively are believed to develop "meaningful and lasting understanding, tolerance and respect" of different cultures (Round Square, 2016b). The six IDEALS, which are referred to as educational "pillars", are based on Hahn's educational philosophy and are summarised in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: *Round Square's* educational IDEALS

	Educational pillar	**Explanation**
1	**I**nternationalism	Learners are encouraged to look beyond gender, class, race, nationality and culture, and to see themselves as global citizens in order to understand human nature.
2	**D**emocracy	Freedom of thought and speech is greatly encouraged and supported appropriately in the classroom and during lessons.
3	**E**nvironmentalism	Learners learn about the role of people in maintaining a healthy and sustainable planet.
4	**A**dventure	Through participating in physically challenging activities, learners realise that they are capable of more than they may have thought.
5	**L**eadership	Personal responsibility, kindness and justice are encouraged through the practice of servant leadership.
6	**S**ervice	By undertaking service projects in communities in need, learners discover how they can make a positive and sustainable difference to others.

(Source: based on Round Square, 2016b)

Member schools of *Round Square* strive to integrate the six IDEALS into all aspects of the curriculum. High school learners have the opportunity to participate in international exchange programmes with other member schools and to actively participate in international service projects and learner-led international conferences. *Round Square* has been criticised as an international network that benefits "a particular stratum of society" (Kenway & Fahay, 2014:187) owing to the high costs of membership and participation in the service projects and conferences. This criticism has also been voiced by South African educators Cowling (2015), De Boer (2016) and Hagspihl (2015), and is perhaps supported by the fact that despite the excellent underlying philosophy of *Round Square,* only 11 South African schools are members (Round Square, 2016c).

Although *WLSA, GALES* and *Round Square* have been criticised for their social exclusivity owing to their high membership fees, they represent well managed, mutually beneficial collaborative models of international educational exchange between partner schools.

2.6.3 Regulation of high school international exchange programmes

The USA-based *Council on Standards for International Educational Travel* (CSIET) and the *Council of Australian Student Exchange Organisations* (CASEO) are both national organisations that were established in response to the growing high school educational tourism industry and endeavour "to ensure that youth are provided with safe and valuable international and cultural exchange experiences" (CSIET, 2011:2). Founded in 1984 and 2009 respectively, both organisations have developed a set of standards and identified best practices that support learning and a positive experience on international exchanges (CASEO, n.d.; CSIET, 2011). The standards cover: educational credibility of international exchange programmes; exchange partner relationships; learner selection and orientation; placements and homestays; travel insurance and programme operations and finances (CASEO, n.d.; CSIET, 2006).

Currently there are no national guidelines regarding international educational travel undertaken by South African high school learners. The comprehensive policies and

protocols that have been developed by *CASEO* and *CSIET* could be adapted to form a framework for use by South African schools.

2.7 INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL TOURISM IN EXCLUSIVE HIGH SCHOOLS

The willingness and ability of schools to participate in school tourism varies. In addition to financial and logistical constraints to travel (Dale, Ritchie & Keating, 2012), the increasing blame culture and litigation mentality around the world (Ritchie, 2003:148) impacts negatively on many schools' desire to participate in educational tourism activities. In 2002, the risk of teachers being sued resulted in the UK's *National Association of School Masters and Union of Women Teachers* (NAS/UWT), advising their members not to organise or participate in school trips (Ritchie, 2003:148). Staff unwillingness and staff shortages, a lack of knowledge of tourism destinations on the part of teachers, timetabling issues and misbehaviour of children on school trips (Campbell-Price, 2014; Dale *et al,* 2012; Ritchie, 2003), are all challenges to developing school-based educational tourism. When the complications of international travel are added, the appeal of organising school tours is even less.

Owing to the costs associated with international travel, and supported by a cursory survey of South African high school websites, this thesis proposes that international educational tourism is primarily the domain of schools that charge fees which are substantially higher than the majority of schools. Furthermore, many of those expensive schools use their international programmes to promote their exclusivity in their marketing campaigns.

2.7.1 Defining exclusive schools

Kenway and Fahey use the term "elite" to describe schools which have "at least some independence from the national government; are highly resourced compared with most national schools; have considerable success in school-leaving exams and entrance to high-status universities; usually have excellent reputations and generally charge high fees"

(Kenway & Fahey, 2014:178). Elite schools tend to position themselves internationally through their choice of curriculum; the international tourism opportunities that they provide for their learners, and the international education networks to which they belong. Parents sending their children to elite schools do so in the belief that through attending those schools, their children will have greater access to international universities and employment opportunities than their public school peers (Kenway & Fahey, 2014; Williams, 2013).

Although Kenway and Fahey's (2014) explanation describes the schools which are studied in this thesis, the term "exclusive" is employed rather than the term "elite". "Elite" tends to be associated with top achievers, be they in academics, sport or culture. For example, the *Hwa Chong Institution* in Singapore may be considered an academically elite school as it enrols the top 3% of candidates who write the national *Primary School Leaving Examination* and is the top international school feeder for the Oxbridge universities (Tan, 2016). The learners at the *Hwa Chong Institution* may be considered elite amongst their national peers. However, when merit is not the primary selection criterion, and when the ability of parents to afford the school fees has a significant influence on whether or not their child will be accepted at a school, then the term "exclusive" is more appropriate. Exclusive schools have exceptional resources but they are also socially exclusive, excluding children whose parents cannot afford the fees.

2.7.2 International tourism opportunities in exclusive high schools

With the commodification of education (Kenway & Fahey, 2014:181) and the rapid growth in the number of exclusive schools since the 1990s, schools have had to add international tourism opportunities to their curricula in order to remain competitive. The marketing of those opportunities is a very visible means by which schools can establish their exclusivity compared with schools that do not offer international tourism. Rizvi for example, describes how an old exclusive school in India introduced learner exchanges and short-term international study tours in order to remain competitive with the newly established exclusive schools that cater for the newly "moneyed class" (Rizvi, 2014:302). The most

commonly offered school-based international tourism opportunities are discussed below and listed in Table 2.2.

Sports tours and cultural tours

International sports tours and international cultural tours such as travel to participate in music eisteddfods have a long history of being offered by exclusive schools. In South Africa, *Bishops Diocesan College* and *Westville Boys' High School* both have records of sending boys on international sports tours from the early 20th century (Bishops, 2015; WBHS, 2016). *Afrikaans Hoër Seunskool* and *Meisieskool* (*"Affies"*), *Kearsney College* and the *Drakensberg Boys' Choir* regularly compete in international eisteddfods (Affies, 2015; Drakensberg Boys Choir, 2016; Kearsney, 2015). Sports and cultural tours are normally led by school staff members. Although learners will practice extensively before departing on a sport or choral trip, these forms of international tourism are not usually associated with any overt attempt to prepare learners for the cultural differences they may encounter.

Table 2.2: Types of international travel opportunities available in exclusive schools

	Type	Examples
1	Sports tours	cricket, rugby, water-polo, soccer
2	Cultural tours	eisteddfods, choral, literary, drama
3	Teacher-led thematic tours	subject-specific or multi-disciplinary themed tours
4	Independent provider programmes	*CIEE* and *Experiment in International Living* summer programmes
5	Learner exchanges	between partner high schools
6	Service programmes	*Rotary, Round Square* and faith-based organisations
7	International academic competitions	Maths and science *Olympiads*
8	Youth leadership summits	*Round Square, Tiltshift, Hwa Chong Asia-Pacific Young Leaders Summit*

Teacher-led thematic tours

Teacher-led thematic tours usually have an academic focus and either are linked with one specific subject, for example a business studies tour to China, or across a number of disciplines, for example an ecological tour to Ecuador for biology and geography learners, or literary tour of east coast USA for learners studying English literature and drama. Depending on the schools and teachers involved, these tours may have a substantial academic component and may require some form of assessment task to be completed during or after the tour. Global learning is not usually an explicit part of the tours, though it is hypothesised that because of the more educational nature of these trips, global learning may occur.

Independent provider programmes

As has been previously discussed, organisations such as the *Experiment in International Living* (World Learning, 2016), and the *Council on International Educational Exchanges* (CIEE, 2016), provide learners with the opportunity to travel and learn about different cultures and communities around the world during their school summer holidays. Owing to the experiential nature of these short-term educational programmes and because they are specifically located in cultures that are different from those of most learners, they have the potential to facilitate significant global learning.

Learner exchange programmes

International exchange programmes are often less expensive than other forms of international tourism owing to them normally including a host family. Families at partner schools take it in turn to host each other's children and as such the costs of living are reduced in this model. Review of the "international exchanges" web pages of many of the schools originating in the British tradition, including English-speaking South African schools, indicates that often exchange partner schools have similar values and cater to the same privileged class of learners within the exclusive schools market. As such, it is unlikely that much global learning occurs on these exchanges. Where exchange programmes are established between schools that have very different traditions, or where the medium of instruction is different from the one with which the learners are familiar, it is more likely that global learning will occur. Under these conditions, the host family

experience has the potential to contribute significantly to learners becoming more inter-culturally competent.

Service programmes

Round Square, Rotary International and some faith-based organisations arrange international service projects whereby learners have the opportunity to participate in an environmental or community development project. It can be argued that learners who choose to participate in these types of programmes are by their nature more globally minded than their peers. For them, participation in an international service programme may consolidate their thoughts and behaviour. It is hypothesized that this form of IET has the potential to result in the highest levels of global learning in learners.

International academic competitions

The opportunity to participate in international subject-specific academic competitions, sometimes referred to as "Olympiads", is offered by some schools. These types of activities are usually reserved for the most academically-minded learners. Whether there is a direct correlation between high academic achievement and high global mindedness has not been established.

Youth leadership summits

Like international Olympiads, participation in youth leadership summits is usually reserved for high achieving learners. Leadership summits provide a platform for learners to meet in order to discuss global issues. International exclusive school networks such as *Round Square*, the *Global Alliance of Leading-Edge Schools* (GALES), and the *World Association of Leading-Edge Schools* (WALES), all arrange leadership summits for the children of their member schools. Owing to the explicit global focus of these summits, it is anticipated that learners who participate in them will demonstrate high levels of global learning.

A wide range of international tourism opportunities are available to learners enrolled in exclusive schools. They cater for a diversity of interests, from sports and cultural tours to service projects, academically focussed tours and leadership programmes. Not all may be considered overtly educational; however, if the teacher facilitators of these programmes

encourage engagement with the different cultures at the destinations in which the tours are based, then opportunities for global learning may be created.

2.8 RESEARCH IN SCHOOL-BASED EDUCATIONAL TOURISM

This chapter ends with a review of the literature pertaining to school-based educational tourism. Despite considerable growth and diversification in high school educational tourism, the subject is under-researched in terms of its scope and specific nature (Campbell-Price, 2014; Ritchie, 2003; Ritchie & Coughlan, 2004; Stone & Petrick, 2013). There seems to be consensus that the schools market is diverse (Dale *et al,* 2012; Ritchie & Coughlan, 2004), and that it has the potential to contribute significantly to off-season visitations (Campbell-Price, 2014; Ritchie, 2003; Ritchie & Coughlan, 2004). Furthermore, positive experiences can increase the profile of destinations and promote repeat visits by participants and their families (Ritchie, 2003; Ritchie & Coughlan, 2004). Like international education, schools' tourism has also been shown to contribute to local economies. For example, in 2010, school trips to Canberra, the capital city of Australia, had an economic impact of Australian $100 million (Keating, Inbakaran & Dale, in Dale *et al,* 2012:806).

In an attempt to understand the size and interests of the schools' tourism market in Europe, the European Union's *COSME* (Competitiveness of Enterprises and Small and Medium-sized Enterprises) programme, in conjunction with *WYSETC* (the World Youth and Student Educational Travel Confederation), is currently undertaking research for the *EUMillenialsTOUR* project with the ultimate objective of developing an "immersive learning / creative (transnational) trip addressed to the edu /school-trip tourism market" (EU, 2016:1; WYSETC, 2016b). The *EUMillenialsTOUR* project is a collaboration of 20 European nations (EU, 2016).

Apart from the articles mentioned, there is a dearth of research in school-based educational tourism. Poria and Timothy (2014) attribute the virtual absence of research on children's tourism to the need for specialist expertise in education and child psychology or development theories; the difficulties of acquiring parent's and ethical committees' permission to work with children, and the fact that because educational tourism is not a

mainstream component of tourism research, scholars may not get cited which could impact negatively on their career paths (Poria & Timothy, 2014:94). The authors note that in an examination of the abstracts from the *Annals of Tourism Research* since 1995, only eight studies included the word "children" and only one of those was a quantitative study that used primary data collected directly from child tourists (Poria & Timothy, 2014:93). Similarly, analysis in preparation for this thesis of Stone and Petrick's (Stone & Petrick, 2013) review of 15 studies on the benefits accrued from travel experiences demonstrates that not one had children as the study population.

This thesis is motivated by the paucity of research that has been undertaken in school-based educational tourism. By collecting and analysing primary data obtained directly from South African high school learners, this thesis contributes to theory and assesses the impact, if any, that international educational tourism has on the development of global learning.

2.9 SUMMARY

The shared history and the similarities and differences between educational tourism and international education have been discussed and are summarised in Table 2.3. Educational tourism can be incorporated into all stages of life, up to and including life-long learning undertaken by senior citizens. The subject however is under-represented in the literature, particularly when children are the focus of study. In contrast, international education is extensively researched but is almost entirely considered by scholars to be a higher-education phenomenon.

Since a primary intention of this thesis is to develop the theory of international educational tourism through the proposition of a conceptual model, this research concentrates on the overlap between educational tourism and international education, specifically the international tourism associated with high school education.

Table 2.3: Review of features of educational tourism and international education

	Educational tourism (ET)	International education (IE)	Comment
Origins	*The Grand Tour*	*Academic pilgrims*	Different terms but shared origins in the mid-17th C.
Educational level applied	From pre-primary school to life-long learning	Only tertiary education	Overlap at tertiary level for students studying abroad for one year or less.
Strands	• International or local • Day trips or over-night tours	• IE "at home" – internationalising the curriculum • "Cross-border" IE – international study programmes	ET is not concerned with internationalising the curriculum within schools.
Economic contribution	• Some research on contribution of school trips to local economies	• "Export education" is a multi-billion dollar global industry	ET is very under-researched with regards to its economic impact on economies.

Having laid the theoretical foundation for a model of international educational tourism, the next chapter addresses a primary outcome of both educational tourism and international education, namely global learning. Experiential learning theory, which is employed by practitioners of educational tourism and international education to explain the process by which global learning may occur (Deardorff & Jones, 2012; Paige & VanDe Berg, 2012; Stoner *et al,* 2014; Tarrant *et al,* 2014), is considered.

CHAPTER 3: GLOBAL AND EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter traced the development of educational tourism and international education. The two disciplines share a common history and both describe the process of travelling in order to learn. In this chapter, two further prerequisites for the development of a model of international educational tourism (IET) are suggested, namely the concepts of global learning and experiential learning. Global learning describes a developmental progression of becoming increasingly aware of the interconnectedness of people and the environment that transcends local and national boundaries, and which ultimately results in a change in behaviour to one that is more mindful of those relationships (Tarrant *et al*, 2014). In order to effect a change in the way of thinking and behaving certain skills need to be developed. These skills are referred to in the literature by a variety of terms, including: *inter-cultural, transferable*, *21st century*, or *soft* skills (Deardorff, 2006; Dede, 2009; Lilley, 2014; P21, 2015; UNESCO, 2015a; Wagner, 2008; Zinser, 2012), and purportedly enable people to effectively live and work within diverse cultural contexts. Kolb's theory of experiential learning (Kolb, 1984), can be employed to explain the process by which global learning occurs. A primary hypothesis of this thesis is that global learning occurs as a consequence of the process of IET.

There are two fundamental differences between global learning theory and international education theory. Firstly, international education is essentially a higher education phenomenon, whereas much of the research in global learning focuses on school-level pedagogies. Secondly, international education is motivated by the desire to develop *intercultural* competence amongst students (Deardorff, 2014a), but global education adopts a more holistic approach and considers the development of *global* competencies which are defined in terms of developing social and environmental responsibilities that transcend national boundaries (Tarrant *et al,* 2014). Table 3.1 summarises these key features of the two theories. One does not need to travel to be globally mindful. However,

when one does travel internationally, global learning theory can be applied to describe the process of learning and the anticipated outcomes of that travel.

Table 3.1: Comparison of global learning and international education

	Global learning (GL)	International education (IE)
Educational level	Primary and secondary school	Higher education
Learning process	Experiential learning	Experiential learning
Intended outcomes	Global competence 21st century / soft skills	Intercultural competence Intercultural / transferable skills

This chapter commences with a discussion on the various terms that are used in the literature to describe aspects of global learning. It then reviews the most frequently cited models that inform global learning theory and reviews experiential learning theory as a means of describing the process by which learning may occur. The last decade has seen global learning enter mainstream educational discourse as global citizenship education (GCED), which the next section of the chapter addresses. The chapter concludes with an analysis of the measuring instruments that attempt to quantify global learning in students and learners.

3.2 GLOBAL LEARNING TERMINOLOGY

A problem with developing global learning theory is the diversity of terms in use. Tuomi, Jacott and Lundgren suggest that a starting point would be to establish a standardised set of terminology (Tuomi, Jacott & Lundgren, 2008). The terms: *global mindedness* (DeMello, 2011; Hett, 1993), *global awareness* (Deloach *et al,* 2015; Kurt *et al,* 2013), *global competency* (Vance *et al,* 2011; Zinser, 2012), *world-mindedness* (Béneker *et al,* 2013; Béneker *et al,* 2014; Merryfield *et al,* 2008; Sampson & Smith, 1957; Vassar, 2006), *global capacities* (Choo *et al,* 2012), *global citizenship* (Ban, 2012; Choonghee, 2015; Lilley, 2014; Torres, 2015), and *21st century citizenship* (P21, 2015), are all used in the literature

and tend to refer, in varying extent, to a way of thinking that transcends national boundaries and a way of behaving that takes cognisance of other people and the environment. Collectively, the concepts can be described under the umbrella term: *global education* (Marshall in Hayden, Levy & Thompson, 2015:108).

Assuming that the terms *global* and *world* are interchangeable, this thesis uses the terms *global awareness* and *global mindedness* to describe the anticipated outcomes of IET undertaken by high school children. The rationale for this choice is as follows.

3.2.1 Global awareness

The term *global awareness* is usually associated with the acquisition of *knowledge*. For example, Kedia and Cornwell describe it as having "a generalised knowledge about other countries or regions of the world" (Kedia & Cornwall, 1994 in Deloach *et al,* 2015:4). Tarrant *et al,* define it as an "understanding and appreciation of one's self in the world and of world issues" (Tarrant *et al,* 2014:143). Chieffo and Griffiths attribute four defining categories of global awareness namely:

1. A functional knowledge of world geography and language.
2. Intercultural awareness.
3. Awareness of global interdependencies.
4. Personal growth and development. (Chieffo & Griffiths, 2004:167).

Whilst the first three categories relate to knowledge procurement, the fourth category relies more on personal reflection which is notoriously subject to personal bias and difficult to measure. Students invariably report personal growth as an outcome of their international travels, whereas in reality international educators are concerned that very little global learning occurs on many trips (Deardorff, 2006; Kenway & Fahay, 2014; Vande Berg *et al*, 2012). Evaluating the validity of that concern is a primary objective of this thesis.

Deloach *et al* defined global awareness as "the first step in the process" of becoming globally competent (Deloach *et al*, 2015:4), which acknowledges the progressive and developmental nature of global learning.

3.2.2 Global mindedness

This thesis proposes that *global mindedness* is a state of *thinking* that exists between *global awareness* and *global competence.* Béneker *et al* describe global mindedness as: "a value orientation concerning the global world in the sense of favouring a world view over a national view and of feeling connected to and responsible for the world community." (Béneker *et al,* 2014:9). To which can be added Tarrant *et al's* proposition that global mindedness is associated with a greater sense of social responsibility towards "others…society at large, and for the environment" (Tarrant *et al*, 2014:143).

The Finnish Agency for Mobility (CIMO) provides more clarity regarding the attributes of being globally minded, namely:

1. being open-minded,
2. seeing the bigger picture,
3. being aware of one's own prejudices,
4. being open to new things,
5. having a willingness to interact with different kinds of people, and
6. seeing difference as richness" (CIMO in de Oliveira Andreotti, Biesta & Ahenakew, 2015:252).

Drawing together these definitions, it is thus suggested that being globally minded refers to being knowledgeable about global issues and one's role within a global context, as well as possessing a way of *thinking* that reflects an acknowledgment of social and environmental interdependencies and responsibilities that extends beyond personal and national boundaries.

3.2.3 Global competence

Global competence implies an ability to function within culturally diverse situations (Deardorff, 2014a) and to behave in a manner that "is motivated by social (and environmental) responsibility (Tarrant *et al*, 2014:144). Being globally competent thus requires *intercultural communication skills* as well as knowledge of different cultures, societies and environments. Deardorff defines intercultural competence as the ability to communicate and behave both *effectively* and *appropriately* in intercultural interactions (Deardorff, 2014:2). The *American Council on International Intercultural Education* (IIE) describe a globally competent student as one who "is aware of diversity, commonalities and interdependences…understands the non-universality of culture, religion, and values… (and) accepts responsibility for *global citizenship*" (IIE in Zinser, 2012:65).

Despite using the term *global competence*, neither Deardorff nor IIE make reference to the environmental component of the concept, reflecting the bias of international educators. Like Tarrant *et al* (2014), global educator Lilley provides a more holistic definition of what it means to be globally competent, stating it refers to possessing "a disposition for critical and ethical thinking… and recognises common humanity and the need for environmental sustainability" (Lilley, 2014:8).

3.2.4 Global citizenship

Being globally competent infers possessing attributes that enable one to function effectively and mindfully within diverse cultural environments. The notion of global citizenship moves the concept of global competence further by assuming a universal ideal to which all people and societies aspire. According to Israel, a global citizen is "someone who identifies with being part of an emerging world community and whose actions contribute to building this community's values and practices" (Israel, 2013:1). The fundamental problem with this is the lack of consensus regarding what is the "emerging world community". UNESCO's *Education for All* global monitoring report encapsulates the paradox of modern society:

> "While technological development contributes to greater interconnectedness and offers new avenues for exchange, cooperation and solidarity, we also see an increase in cultural and religious intolerance, identification-based political mobilization and conflict" (UNESCO, 2015a:9).

In recognition of these global tensions, UN Secretary-General, Ban, launched the *Global Education First Initiative* (GEFI) in which fostering global citizenship was identified as one of the three pillars of the programme (Ban, 2012). Subsequently, GCED was specified as a means to ensuring the goals of the UN's *2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development* (UNESCO, 2015b). Signatories at the UN Summit pledged to: "foster intercultural understanding, tolerance, mutual respect and an ethic of global citizenship and shared responsibility" (UNESCO, 2015b:10: point 36).

Sustainable Development Goal # 4 of the *2030 Agenda* states: "by 2030, all learners (should) acquire the *knowledge* and *skills* needed to promote sustainable development … through education for … sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship and appreciation of cultural diversity" (UNESCO, 2015b:17).

Proponents of global citizenship theory tend to equate nationalism with conservative perspectives and globalism with a liberal perspective (Béneker *et al*, 2013; Béneker *et al*, 2014). Notions of global citizenship arose from the Western perception of an increasingly interconnected global society resulting from the rapid expansion of mass transport and information and communication technology (ICT). The problem however is that not all regions of the world benefit equally from these. Many people in Africa and Asia do not have access to the World Wide Web, nor the means to travel locally let alone internationally. Furthermore, the current border closures of numerous European countries in response to the refugee crisis suggests that unlimited access to Google™ and international travel do not necessarily equate with a desire to help those less fortunate from other cultures. Woolf suggests that the concept of global citizenship actually entrenches social divisions between the globally empowered elite and the masses of society who cannot afford such a privilege (Woolf, 2010:51). The concept of global

citizenship has been criticized for being idealistic (Ambrose, 2008), unrealistic and unobtainable (Woolf, 2010).

Despite these criticisms, the fundamental underpinning of global citizenship, namely that it refers to "a disposition for critical and ethical thinking… and recognises common humanity and the need for environmental sustainability" (Lilley, 2014:8), has attracted considerable support in the last few years. A number of authors suggest that global citizenship be considered as an additional "layer of responsibility" (Israel, 2013:2) and does not replace other national, cultural or social identities (Gibson, Remmington & Landwehr-Brown, 2008; Merryfield *et al,* 2008; Torres, 2015). Toumi *et al* refer to "concentric loyalties" of responsibility radiating from the self and family to humankind (Toumi *et al,* 2008:5).

If Tarrant *et al's* definition of global citizenship as a "higher order outcome" of international educational travel (Tarrant *et al,* 2014:143) is indeed accurate, the results of this thesis should reflect higher levels of global learning for those learners who have travelled internationally compared with their non-travelled peers. While not intending to detract from the underpinning assumptions of global citizenship articulated in the previous paragraph, this thesis recognises global inequalities and the lack of a universal social ideal and consequently employs the term *global competencies* rather than *global citizenship.*

3.3 THE PROGRESSION OF GLOBAL LEARNING

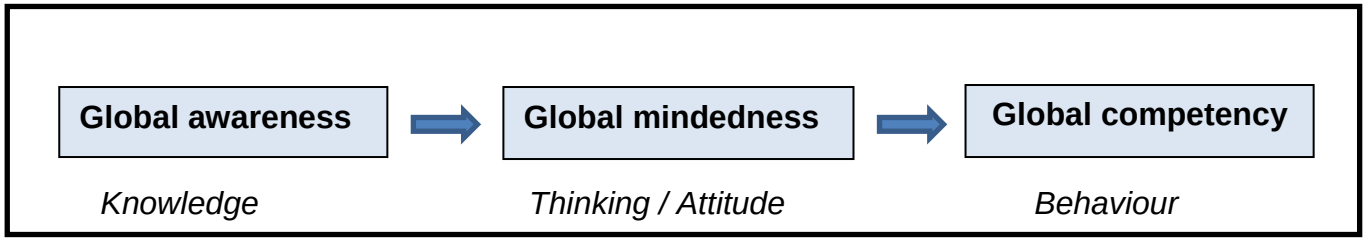
Global learning tends to follow a progression:

1. The accumulation of *knowledge* about social and environmental interdependencies and the recognition of one's membership of various communities that extend from family and local, to national and global.
2. The development of a sense of interconnectedness and responsibility towards societies and the environment that transcends the personal or local and moves towards the global. In other words, a change in the way of *thinking* that reflects these feelings.

3. A change in *behaviour* that is more participatory and justice-orientated (Tarrant *et al,* 2014).

It is suggested that step 1 describes *global awareness* and step 2 demonstrates the progression to *global mindedness*. However, being globally minded does not necessarily translate into the desire to act on one's convictions. The attainment of step 3 signifies the achievement of at least some degree of global competency. The relationship between the three concepts is depicted in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1: The progression of global learning



The contention that global learning follows a progression is not shared by all scholars. De Oliveira Andreotti *et al* (2015) for example, argue that not all contacts with other cultures are positive and thus cultural interaction does not always lead to positive development of global mindedness (De Oliveira Andreotti *et al*, 2015:254). De Oliveira Andreotti *et al* (2015) note that tourism can actually encourage ethnocentrism, a view which is supported by the research on volunteer tourism of Lyons *et al* (2012:362), and study abroad by Woolf (2006). De Oliveira Andreotti *et al* (2015:254), argue that individuals may possess all three attributes of global learning simultaneously and that the extent of the attributes may vary within different socio-political contexts and at different times. Current global events such as BREXIT and the European refugee crisis lend credence to the proposition that interaction with other cultures does not always encourage positive development towards global competency. The progression model has merit however, in that it clarifies and links three of the key terms associated with global learning: *global awareness, global mindedness* and *global competence*. The next part of this chapter considers the models that inform

global learning theory and the associated attributes and skills that facilitate global learning and which develop as a consequence of that learning.

3.4 GLOBAL LEARNING THEORY

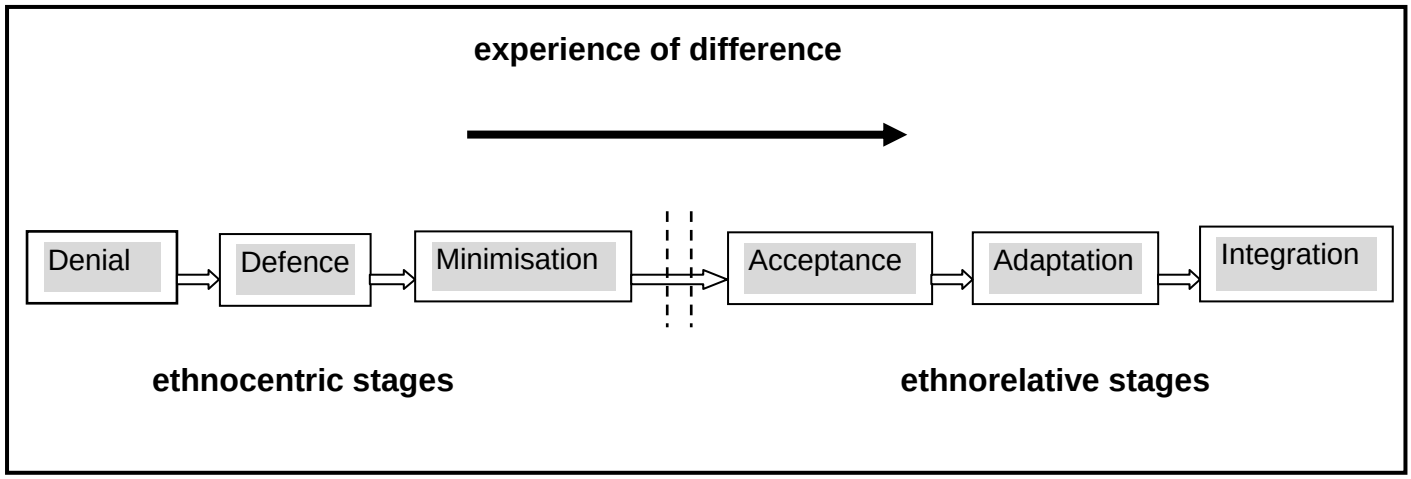
Although the intercultural competence models belong in international education theory, they identify the key features of the progression of learning that allegedly occurs as one moves from an ethnocentric to an ethnorelative worldview when cultural difference is encountered. As such, they can be adopted to explain global learning. This adoption is also necessitated because the global learning literature tends to focus on the attributes of global learning, rather than the process of learning. An exception to the latter is Lilley (2014). Her model is presented after the intercultural competence models of Bennett (1986) and Deardorff (2006).

3.4.1 Intercultural competence models

Bennett's stage model of intercultural competence

The underpinning assumption of Bennett's (1986) model of intercultural competence is that international educational travel and its concomitant exposure to different cultures, affects an increase in intercultural competence, and that levels of intercultural competence exist on a continuum (Deloach *et al,* 2015). Bennett's developmental model describes six stages that one allegedly passes through in the process of becoming inter-culturally competent. In essence, he proposes that as one's experience of cultural difference becomes more complex, one progresses from a mono-cultural, ethnocentric worldview to one that is more complex, sophisticated, multicultural and informed by an ethnorelative perspective (Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009:21). Figure 3.2 depicts this process.

Figure 3.2: Bennett's (1986) stage model of intercultural competence



(Based on: Bennett,1986:182)

Employing Spitzberg and Changnon's (2009) description of Bennett's model, the stages can be described as:

1. *Denial* – only one's own culture is legitimate.
2. *Defence* – recognition of other cultures, but possessing an "us versus them" perspective.
3. *Minimization* – incorporating some components of another cultural into one's own culture, but considering them as essentially extensions of one's own culture.
4. *Acceptance* – recognizing that one's own culture is one of many in the world.
5. *Adaptation* – changing one's behaviour according to the appropriate standards in another culture.
6. *Integration* – constructing one's identity to reflect the overlapping of various cultures.

Bennett's model provides a clear framework by which a person's intercultural developmental level can be determined. However, it does not specify the specific skills and attitudes required in order to progress from a mono-cultural worldview to a more global one. The next models address this limitation.

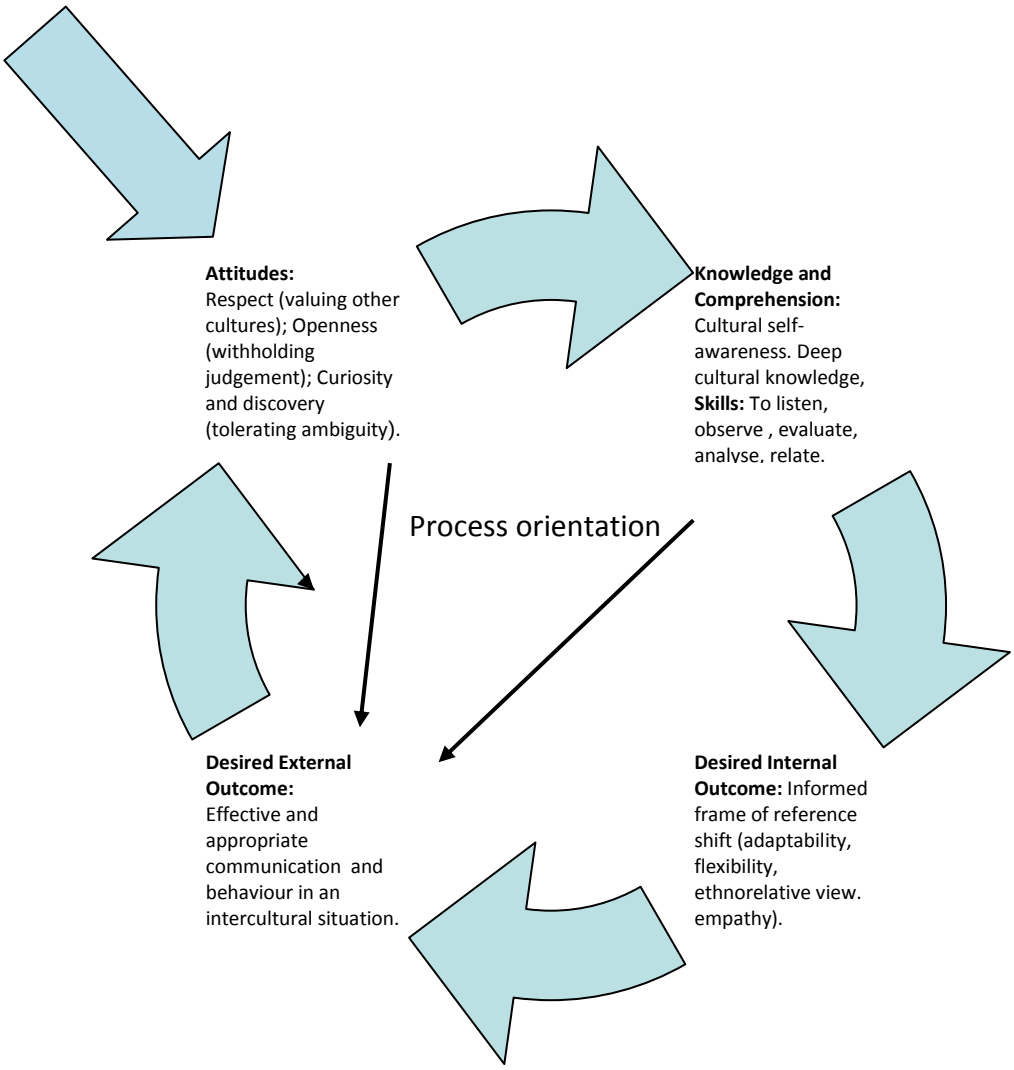
Deardorff's intercultural competence model

Recognising that the development of intercultural competence is an on-going process and that no one can ever be totally inter-culturally competent, Deardorff proposes a cyclical model of intercultural competence (see Figure 3.3). Her model comprises five elements: *attitudes, knowledge and comprehension, skills* and *internal* and *external outcomes*, which she explains as follows:

1. *Attitudes* – the prerequisites for learning. Including: respect (valuing other cultures), openness (withholding judgement), curiosity and discovery (tolerating ambiguity).
2. *Knowledge and comprehension* – including cultural self-awareness, deep cultural knowledge and sociolinguistic awareness.
3. *Skills* – to listen, observe and evaluate; to analyse, interpret and relate.
4. *Desired internal outcome* – an informed frame of reference shift, incorporating: adaptability, flexibility, ethnorelative view and empathy.
5. *Desired external outcome* – effective and appropriate communication and behaviour in an intercultural situation. (Deardorff, 2006:254).

Deardorff's model overlaps substantially with global learning concepts. Her *knowledge and comprehension* element is equivalent to *global awareness.* Similarly, the *desired internal outcome* and the *desired external outcome* relate to *global mindedness* (a change in the way of thinking) and *global competence* (a change in behaviour) respectively. The conceptualised attitudinal requirement for the start of her model, namely possessing the desire to learn, is supported by the educational tourism research of Pitman in Australia (Pitman *et al,* 2010) and also relates to the "soft" skills of global learning that will be discussed later in this chapter. Similarly, her *skills* element describes many of the transferable skills developed through global learning.

Figure 3.3: Deardorff's model of intercultural competence



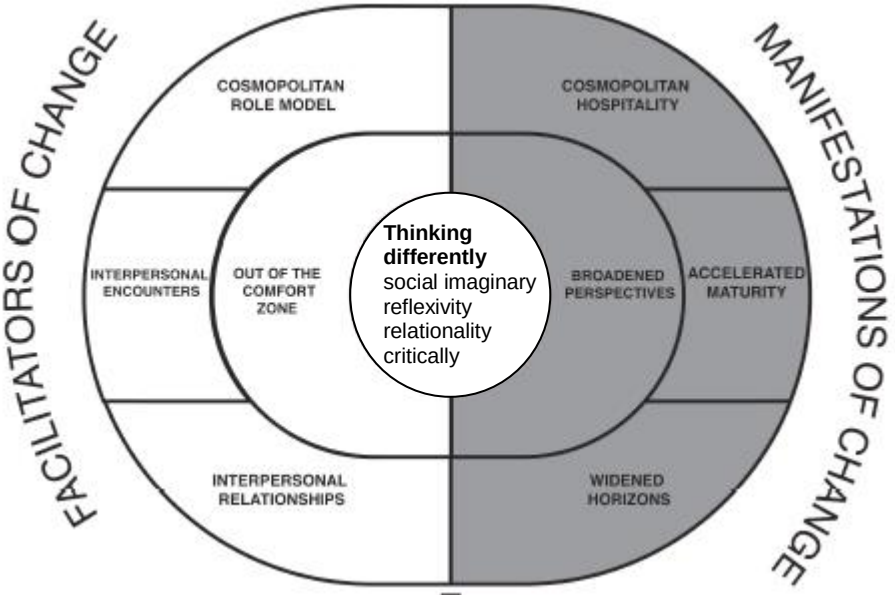
(Based on: Deardorff, 2006:256)

3.4.2 Lilley's process model for global learning

According to Lilley (2014) the ability to think differently is the prerequisite for effecting growth in global learning. She proposed that for global learning to occur, learners need to be cognisant of their social constructs, to reflect on how they construct meaning and to question those assumptions, and need to be encouraged to view things from another's perspective (Lilley, 2014). Once learners are open to the possibility of other viewpoints,

they need to leave their comfort zone in order to encounter facilitators of change. The manifestations of change, (that is growth in global competencies), are: broadened perspectives, accelerated maturity, widened horizons and cosmopolitan hospitality. The latter refers to possessing "empathy and kindness to others" (Lilley, 2014:5). Figure 3.4 depicts this.

Figure 3.4: Lilley's process model for global (citizen) learning



(Source: Lilley, 2014:6)

Lilley's "manifestations of change" in her model represent the "soft" or "transferable" *skills* associated with global learning. When applied to global learning theory, the term *transferable skills* refer to skills which can be applied in any cross-cultural situation and are not limited to the culture in which they were acquired (Bennett, 2010). These skills are considered later in the chapter.

3.4.3 Merryfield, Lo, Po and Kasai's elements of a global education

Based on research in schools in Hong Kong, Japan and the United States, Merryfield, Lo, Po and Kasai describe five elements, or attributes, that they consider are essential to developing world-mindedness in learners. Their elements relate to the knowledge, skills and attitudes or dispositions that they consider lead to the development of global citizenship (Merryfield *et al,* 2008:16). Their five elements (summarised) are:

1. *Knowledge of global interconnectedness* – of people, issues and events.
2. *Inquiry into global issues* – that are significant challenges, cannot be understood from a purely local or national perspective and have no apparent immediate solutions nor a single "correct" solution.
3. *Skills in perspective consciousness* **–** recognition that one's world view may differ from that of other peoples' and that one's world view will influence perceptions and interpretations of events.
4. *Open-mindedness and recognition of bias, stereotypes and exotica* - development of these "habits of the mind" to enable an understanding of the political and social use of stereotypes to demean others.
5. *Cross-cultural experience and intercultural competence* – to enable effective participation in multi-cultural contexts. (Merryfield *et al*, 2008).

Points 1 and 2 are equivalent to *global awareness* and points 3 and 4 represent *global mindedness.* The explicit requirement for some form of inter-cultural experience (point 5) to facilitate the development of global mindedness highlights the importance of experiential learning to facilitate the process.

Merryfield *et al* (2008) identify ethnocentrism and xenophobia as inhibitors of global learning and lack of interest and ignorance as inhibitors for action (Merryfield *et al*, 2008:7). In other words, when those biases or dispositions are present, one cannot progress from global awareness to global mindedness.

3.4.4 Global learning attributes and skills

With the exception of Bennett (1986), the models discussed all refer to attitudes, or ways of thinking, which facilitate global learning, such as open-mindedness, respect and curiosity. Additionally, personal attributes of adaptability, empathy, kindness and a sense of social and environmental responsibility develop as a consequence of global learning (Deardorff, 2006; Lilley, 2014; Merryfield *et al,* 2008; Tarrant *et al,* 2010). Collectively these ways of thinking may be referred to as *soft skills*.

UNESCO's (2015a) *Education For All* global monitoring report identifies three other groups of skills necessary to facilitate global learning:

1. *Foundation skills*: literacy and numeracy.
2. *Technical and vocational specific skills*.
3. *Transferable skills*: problem analysis, effective communication, creativity, leadership and entrepreneurial skills. (UNESCO, 2015a:40).

Transferable skills are so named owing to their ability to be used across different work environments and social settings. They are also referred to in the literature as *non-cognitive skills* and *21st century skills (*Dede, 2009; Zinser, 2012). While closely aligned, this thesis suggests that *soft skills* are not synonymous with *transferable skills.* For example, one may have excellent analytical or leadership skills without necessarily being kind or empathetic. With specific reference to school-based GCED, the USA based *Partnership for 21st Century Skills* (P21, 2015) proposes four 21st century skills, namely: critical thinking, collaboration, communication and creativity. To which civic awareness and cross-cultural competencies may be added. Toumi *et al* (2008) provide a comprehensive list of the key concepts, skills and attributes that they identify as fundamental to global learning. The Table is included as Appendix A.

Lilley's global citizen "identikit"

Combining the personal attributes, or soft skills, with transferable skills which encourage global learning, Lilley (2014) has developed an "identikit" of the characteristics of a global citizen that encompasses the following:

1. Ability to leave comfort zone.
2. Thinks differently.
3. Engages beyond immediate circle of peers, family and friends.
4. Shows a mature attitude and initiative.
5. Considers self, life, others and career, and the world beyond narrow expectations.

With regards to thinking differently, Lilley (2014) describes a global citizen as someone who "uses moral and ethical reasoning to: question assumptions, imagine other perspectives and possibilities, shows awareness of self and others, makes the interconnections of knowledge across complex local /global constructs, and recognises common humanity and the need for environmental sustainability" (Lilley, 2014:8).

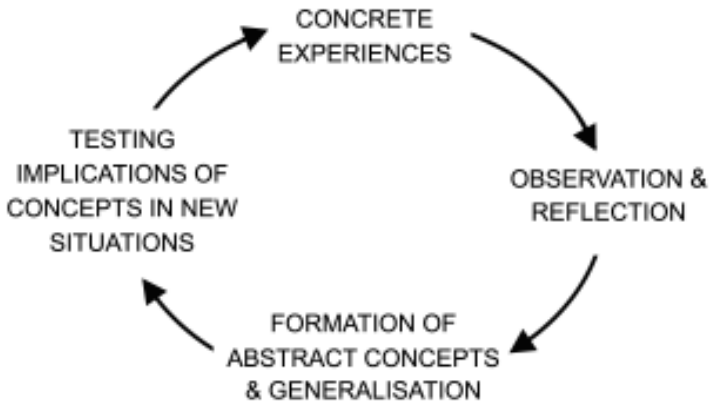
The preceding section describes aspects of global learning theory that may be integrated into educational tourism experiences to facilitate global learning. The next part of this chapter reviews experiential learning theory which informs the manner in which the process of global learning occurs.

3.5 EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING THEORY

Experiential learning theory is referred to extensively in the literature to explain the process of learning during international education (Tarrant *et al, 2014;* Vande Berg *et al*, 2012), global learning (DeMello, 2011; Itin, 1999; Merryfield *et al,* 2008) and educational tourism (Stoner *et al,* 2014; Vance *et al,* 2011; Van 'T Klooster, 2014). While Kurt Hahn is considered by some as the founder of experiential education (Hanford, 2015), Kolb's (1984) model is the most often cited and is the seminal reference for experiential learning theory. Kolb proposes that "learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience" (Kolb, 1984:38). His model connects four styles of

learning that together explain the process of experiential learning. Different people may favour different styles and the learning cycle can be entered at any point, but in order for learning to occur all four stages have to be passed through (see Figure 3.5).

Figure 3.5: Kolb's model of experiential learning



(Based on: Kolb, 1984:21)

Using *concrete experience* as the starting point for the experiential learning cycle, Kolb's stages of learning can be explained as follows:

1. *Concrete experience* – encountering a new, that is different, situation from that which is familiar.
2. *Observation and reflection* – watching and reflecting about the new experience and considering any inconsistencies between the experience and prior knowledge of the situation.
3. *Formation of abstract concepts and generalisations* – development of a new idea or modification or of an existing concept.
4. *Testing implications of concepts in new situation* – application through active experimentation.

When applied to international educational tourism, experiential learning theory provides a simple framework around which experiences can be developed to ensure that global learning occurs. The effectiveness of experiential education in transforming experiences into learning has been demonstrated by Paige and Vande Berg (2012) who found that the most predictive measure of intercultural development is "guided reflection on the students' cultural experience" (Paige & Vande Berg, 2012:37). Thus facilitation of the learning experience to ensure reflection about the experience may be a key requirement for effective global learning during international educational tourism.

3.6 QUANTIFYING GLOBAL LEARNING

The previous models describe the attributes and process of global learning and some of the intended outcomes; however, in order to validate them and thus demonstrate that global learning is indeed occurring during international educational tourism, some form of measuring instrument is required. Numerous have been developed, but in line with the research of Vassar (Vassar, 2006), the following three are presented owing to their construct validity and reliability.

3.6.1 Sampson and Smith's *world-mindedness scale*

In their influential work, Sampson and Smith (1957) differentiated between *international-mindedness* and *world-mindedness.* The former being defined as "an interest in or *knowledge* about world affairs", whilst the latter concept describes "purely a *value* orientation, or frame of reference" (Sampson & Smith, 1957:99). According to Sampson and Smith (1957), a *world-minded* person would have *mankind* as their primary reference and not their national identity. Sampson and Smith developed a 32 item *world-mindedness scale* that requires respondents to rank each item (a broad statement) on a 6-point Likert-scale, from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*. The statements relate to general issues associated with what they identified as eight dimensions of world-mindedness, namely: economics, education, government, immigration, patriotism, race, religion and war. Examples of some of the statements are:

1. *All prices for exported food and manufactured goods should be set by an international trade committee.* (Item 4, dimension: economics).
2. *Immigration should be controlled by an international organisation rather than by each country on its own.* (Item 10, dimension: immigration).
3. *It would be better to be a citizen of the world than of any particular country*. (Item 13, dimension: patriotism).
4. *It would be dangerous for us to guarantee by international agreement that every person in the world should have complete religious freedom. (*Item 25, dimension: religion) (Sampson & Smith, 1957).

Sampson and Smith's (1957) scale has been extensively applied and validated by other researchers (Béneker *et al,* 2013:324; Vassar, 2006). A limitation of the world-mindedness scale however, is that it tends to force polarised viewpoints. Furthermore, Vassar contests that owing to its age, some issues that were pertinent in 1950s America may not necessarily be applicable today and could even be construed as racist (Vassar, 2006:8). For example:

> "*Race prejudice may be a good thing for us because it keeps many undesirable foreigners from coming into the country*". (Item 6, dimension: race) (Sampson & Smith, 1957).

Interestingly, Vassar's criticism may be ill founded when one considers current responses to the refugee crisis in Europe, or the racism and xenophobia in South Africa.

Another limitation of Sampson and Smith's (1957) scale for contemporary application is its total lack of a global environmental dimension.

Sampson and Smith's (1957) concept of *international-mindedness* relates to a person's *knowledge* about global issues and their *world-mindedness scale* provided a tool for attempting to quantify the *values*, or way of *thinking,* that respondents held regarding other cultures and nations. By the mid-1960s, a third component of global learning entered international education discourse, namely the personal *skills* needed to function in a culturally diverse environment. For example, the characteristics needed to be a competent

Peace Corps volunteer on foreign assignment included: "self-confidence, commitment, energy, responsibility, autonomy, flexibility, and hopefully, realism" (Smith in Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009:8). The next global learning assessment instrument integrates some of these *soft skills* into the survey items.

3.6.2 Hett's global-mindedness scale

Like the *world-mindedness scale*, Hett's (1993) *global-mindedness scale* also employs a Likert ranking and includes 30 items. Her items are based on five "relevant dimensions of global-mindedness", namely: responsibility, cultural pluralism, efficacy, global-centralism and interconnectedness (Béneker *et al,* 2013:324). An explanation of these dimensions is provided in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Hett's proposed dimensions of the global-mindedness scale

Dimension	Definition
Responsibility	A deep personal concern, or moral responsibility, for people around the world with a desire to improve inequitable conditions.
Cultural pluralism	An appreciation for cultural diversity with a belief that each individual contributes some value to the world.
Efficacy	A belief that an individual's actions can make a difference to the world.
Global-centralism	A mode of thinking that considers the greater good of the world community rather than the benefit of one's own country.
Interconnectedness	An appreciation for and an awareness of the way in which all people from all nations are connected.

(Source: Vassar, 2006:39)

According to Béneker *et al* (2013), many of Hett's (1993) instrument's items trigger a more personal, reflective or emotional response than the issue-based items formulated by Sampson and Smith (1957), (Béneker *et al,* 2013:324). However, like the *world-mindedness scale,* Hett's (1993) *global-mindedness scale* also is biased towards axiomatic positions which are considered politically correct or "good" (Béneker *et al,* 2013:324) and which thus bely a simplistic and Westernised perspective of complex global

issues. Furthermore, the concept of cultural pluralism is underpinned by a cultural relativist philosophy and as such is idealistic. As Ambrose argues, some cultures or groups within society "establish inferior or superior contexts for human development" (Ambrose, 2008:58), a notion that is supported by De Oliveira Andreotti *et al* (2015) and Woolf (2010). For example, it is difficult to find the value that the South African apartheid government added, or ISIS (*Islamic State of Iraq and Syria*) and Boko Harem add to the global community.

3.6.3 Béneker, Tani, Uphues and van der Vaart's *integrated world-mindedness scale*

Recognising that opinions about complex global problems occur across the left-right political spectrum, Béneker *et al* (2013) and Béneker *et al* (2014), combined elements of the *world-mindedness scale (WMS)* and the *global-mindedness scale (GMS)* to develop their own *world-mindedness scale.* In this thesis, their scale is referred to as the *integrated world-mindedness scale (IWMS)* to differentiate it from Sampson and Smith's (1957) original one.

The rationale for using items from the two existing scales was that both scales and all the individual items had been validated in previous studies (Béneker *et al,* 2014:15). Combining 10 items from the *WMS* and 10 from the *GMS,* the authors formulated four categories, each comprising five statements that in their opinion enabled the assessment of *world-mindedness.* As their research was specifically interested in comparing geography curricula as tools for developing world-mindedness, their categories were informed by a geographical world view (Béneker *et al,* 2014:15). Their categories were:

1. Patriotism and human rights
2. Economy and migration
3. Education and learning
4. Culture and attitudes to others (Béneker *et al,* 2014:16).

Using a 6-point Likert response scale, *world-mindedness scores* were calculated ranging from 20 (20 x 1: least world-minded) to 120 (20 x 6: most world-minded). Their questionnaire also enabled critical analysis of each of the individual items and categories.

The *IWMS* has been used in cross-sectional studies for a comparative analysis of world-mindedness in 16-year old learners in schools in the Netherlands, Finland and Germany (Béneker *et al,* 2013), and also to assess the effectiveness of two different geography curricular on developing world-mindedness amongst high school learners in the Netherlands (Béneker *et al,* 2014). Its potential as an instrument for assessing global mindedness following international educational tourism is considered further in Chapter Six.

3.7 THE NEED FOR GLOBAL LEARNING

The pressing need to integrate global learning into education and educational tourism products is highlighted by the recently published results of the first global *Humanitarian Index* (Aurora Prize, 2016). Between March and April 2016, 4600 online interviews were conducted with people in six countries: the USA, UK, France, Germany, Lebanon and Iran to investigate "public attitudes regarding responsibility and effectiveness of humanitarian intervention as well as motivators to intervene on behalf of others" (Aurora Prize, 2016:3). In other words, the survey considers the values and attitudes people have regarding global issues. Terrorism, followed by hunger and forced migration (the refugee crisis) were identified as the biggest global issues currently facing humankind (see Table 3.3).

One of the biggest concerns emanating from the survey is what the authors term the "compassion gap" (Aurora Prize, 2016:15). The study indicates a major discrepancy between what people said they know and feel compared with what they were prepared to do. When asked whether they would *"help Syrian refuges if they could*", less than half said they would even though two thirds of the respondents agreed that the refugees required help (Aurora Prize, 2016:16). Furthermore, less than one third believed that they could make any difference in solving the global refugee crisis (Aurora Prize, 2016:15).

Table 3.3: Summary of the most pressing global humanitarian challenges facing humanity

Collated from responses to the question: *"Based on what you know, which of the following are the most pressing global humanitarian challenges facing humanity right now?"*

(N=4600)

Challenge	%
Terrorism	67
Hunger	56
Forced migration	55
Access to clean water	49
Climate change	30
Protection of children	23

(Source: Aurora Prize, 2016:8)

None of the humanitarian challenges identified above are going to abate unless there is a fundamental shift in the way people think and behave. The need for implementing global learning has never been stronger. Although written before GCED entered mainstream discourse and despite the fact that Woolf is highly critical of the concept of global citizenship (Woolf, 2010), his description of the role of educators of learners in the 21st century is very fitting, namely:

> "Our obligation is to the young so that they might simultaneously look outward across boundaries and inward to the hardest frontier of all to cross: to travel from a sense of self toward a sense of empathy with the 'other'." (Woolf, 2002:14).

3.8 SUMMARY

Global learning theory can be used to describe how knowledge, ways of thinking and behaving may be developed and / or modified to reflect a greater cognisance of social and

environmental issues and one's responsibilities regarding those issues that transcend the local. It is suggested that by encouraging global learning in the process of international educational tourism, learners can be encouraged to progress from a state of global awareness to global competence. Drawing on personal, or soft, skills enhances global learning and the development of transferable skills is an outcome of the process of global learning. The possession of soft and transferable skills suggests some degree of global competence.

Experiential learning theory describes the four stages of learning that this thesis suggests are necessary for effective global learning to occur. The *integrated world-mindedness scale* has been extensively tested and validated and used with European high school learners. As such, it may be a suitable instrument for quantifying global learning in South African high school learners and for assessing the relationship between global learning and international educational tourism, which are both primary objectives of the thesis.

The next chapter draws together the theories of educational tourism and international education that were analysed in the previous chapter, with global learning and experiential learning theories that were discussed in this chapter, in order to develop a conceptual model of international educational tourism.

CHAPTER 4: RECONCEPTUALISING EDUCATIONAL TOURISM THEORY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Educational tourism is ill defined and under-researched. Beyond travelling motivated by the desire to learn, little consensus exists with regards to what actually constitutes this sector of the tourism industry. This thesis proposes that the fundamental reason for the fragmentation in the literature is because of the preoccupation with attempting to define educational tourism in terms of the product or niche sector. In other words, by reconceptualising educational tourism as an experiential process, and by recognising that different sectors of the market will have different educational needs and capabilities, practitioners will be able to develop effective and enjoyable educational tourism experiences.

Drawing together the theories and models presented in the previous two chapters, this chapter aims to develop educational tourism theory. It commences by suggesting a typology of educational tourism based on tourist life-stages. It is proposed that dividing the sector into differentiated life-stage segments will enable the identification of markets and development of related products, services and experiences. Underpinned by experiential learning theory, a process model of educational tourism is then developed. By clearly defining measurable outcomes of educational tourism, the process can be evaluated and modified to affect effective learning. Then, and in line with the focus of this thesis, aspects of global learning theory are incorporated into the conceptual model in order to describe and analyse the process of international educational tourism. The chapter ends with a review of the unique characteristics that define educational tourism.

4.2 AN EDUCATIONAL TOURISM TYPOLOGY

Although she was referring to international education, Knight's (2012:29) statement that "the challenging part of developing a definition is the need for it to be generic enough to

apply to many different countries, cultures and education systems," applies equally to the development of a definition of educational tourism. In order to propose a typology of educational tourism that can be reliably applied in different contexts, it needs to be as simple and objective as possible. Using motivational factors to define segments of the educational tourism sector, as Ritchie (2003) does, is problematic. Apart from the fact that self-identification of motivating factors is subjective (Scarinci & Pearce, 2012; Woolf, 2010), individuals within a single tour group may possess a range of motivations for participating in the same tourism activity. For this reason it is proposed that developers of educational tourism experiences should rather use a more definable characteristic such as life-stage. Categorising tourists according to their life-stage (which is generally equivalent to their learning capabilities) is particularly significant for educational tourism. The educational needs and abilities of a university student for example, are very different from those of a primary school child, and so the educational tourism experience should cater for this.

Educational tourism may be self-guided or facilitated by an expert tour guide. Research in educational tourism (Pitman *et al,* 2010) and international education (Paige & Vande Berg, 2012), has demonstrated that guided reflection on an educational experience is the most effective means of facilitating learning. Facilitation is also often cited as a key requirement for the development of global learning (DeMello, 2011; Merryfield *et al,* 2008). Facilitated learning can be employed in both observational and experientially-based activities. The following example demonstrates the difference among the three categories. A self-guided tourist driving through *Umlazi* township is unlikely to learn very much about the local community. In fact it has been suggested that this form of tourism can actually reinforce stereotypes (Lyons *et al,* 2012). By contrast, a person participating in a "township tour" led by a resident tour guide would certainly learn more, although the experience could well be constructed to reflect a certain narrative of township life. This activity could be described as a facilitated observational one. Should the tourist choose to participate in a homestay and live with the *Umlazi* tour guide, then he or she might experience a more authentic township culture as facilitated by the host, hence a "facilitated experiential" experience.

Acknowledging that educational tourism activities may include self-guided and facilitated learning processes, the following typology for educational tourism is proposed and presented in Figure 4.1. The life-stage: *student* has been deliberately used rather than the broader term *youth* in line with the fact that educational tourism is defined by the process of learning. Student educational tourism is thus a sub-segment of youth tourism. A *learner* is a child of primary or secondary school age. There is no segment for learners or pre-school children undertaking self-guided tourism, since children's travel experiences are normally facilitated by an adult, either a parent or teacher.

Figure 4.1: A learning process driven typology for educational tourism

Extent of learning →

Tourist life-stage	**Dominant learning process**		
	Self-guided	Facilitated: observational	Facilitated: experiential
Senior			
Adult			
Student			
Learner			
Pre-school child			

The typology is a simple representation of segments of educational tourism based upon the life-stage of tourists and the primary process by which they learn. Activities may span across numerous rows or columns. The primary function of the proposed typology is to act as a tool for identifying potential markets and developing educational tourism products, services and experiences. By locating first the life-stage of the tourists, then the required learning process on the grid, activities can be developed that are learning-stage appropriate. Activities which are experientially based and facilitated by an expert guide will result in the most learning. Similarly, given the modern trend for hybrid tourism (Richards, 2011:27), other tourism sectors such as agri-tourism or heritage tourism could develop an educational component for their market, thus diversifying and adding value to the tourism experience.

4.3 TOWARDS THE DEVELOPMENT OF A PROCESS MODEL OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL TOURISM

Prior to proposing a model for international educational tourism, a process model of educational tourism will be developed.

4.3.1 Process model of educational tourism

Drawing from existing theories of educational tourism, international education, experiential learning and global learning, the following *defining characteristics* of educational tourism are proposed:

1. It involves the process of travelling in order to learn (Árnason, 2010; Campbell-Price, 2014; Cuba Canada, 2009; Pitman *et al,* 2010; Richards, 2011; Ritchie, 2003; Stoner *et al,* 2014).
2. Global learning is one form of learning that may occur during travel. Other forms include learning which is focused on academic, technical, vocational or professional development (UNESCO, 2015a).
3. For effective learning to occur, the learner must want to learn (Paige & Vande Berg, 2012; Pitman *et al,* 2010).
4. Educational tourism can appeal to all life-stages (Ritchie, 2003).
5. The educational tourism product can range from formal, academic credit-bearing courses (Árnason, 2010; Knight, 2004), to informal creative or self-development experiences (Richards, 2011).

In addition, the following factors *enhance* the learning experience:

1. Facilitation of the learning experience improves learning (Paige & Vande Berg, 2012; Pitman *et al,* 2010).
2. When learning is perceived as a negotiated process between the teacher and the learner, and the educator (or expert tour guide) is able to structure the experience

to a level that is educationally appropriate for the learner (educational tourist) (Árnason, 2010; Deardorff & Jones, 2012; Pitman *et al,* 2010; Richards, 2011).

3. When experiential education informs the learning experience, it provides an ideal pedagogy for promoting learning within the tourism environment (Hahn, 1965; Merryfield *et al,* 2008; Pitman *et al,* 2010; Stoner *et al,* 2014; Tarrant *et al,* 2014; Vance *et al,* 2011; Van 'T Klooster, 2014).

Using these features, a process model of educational tourism is proposed and presented in Figure 4.2 Discussion of the salient features of the model follows.

Experiential learning

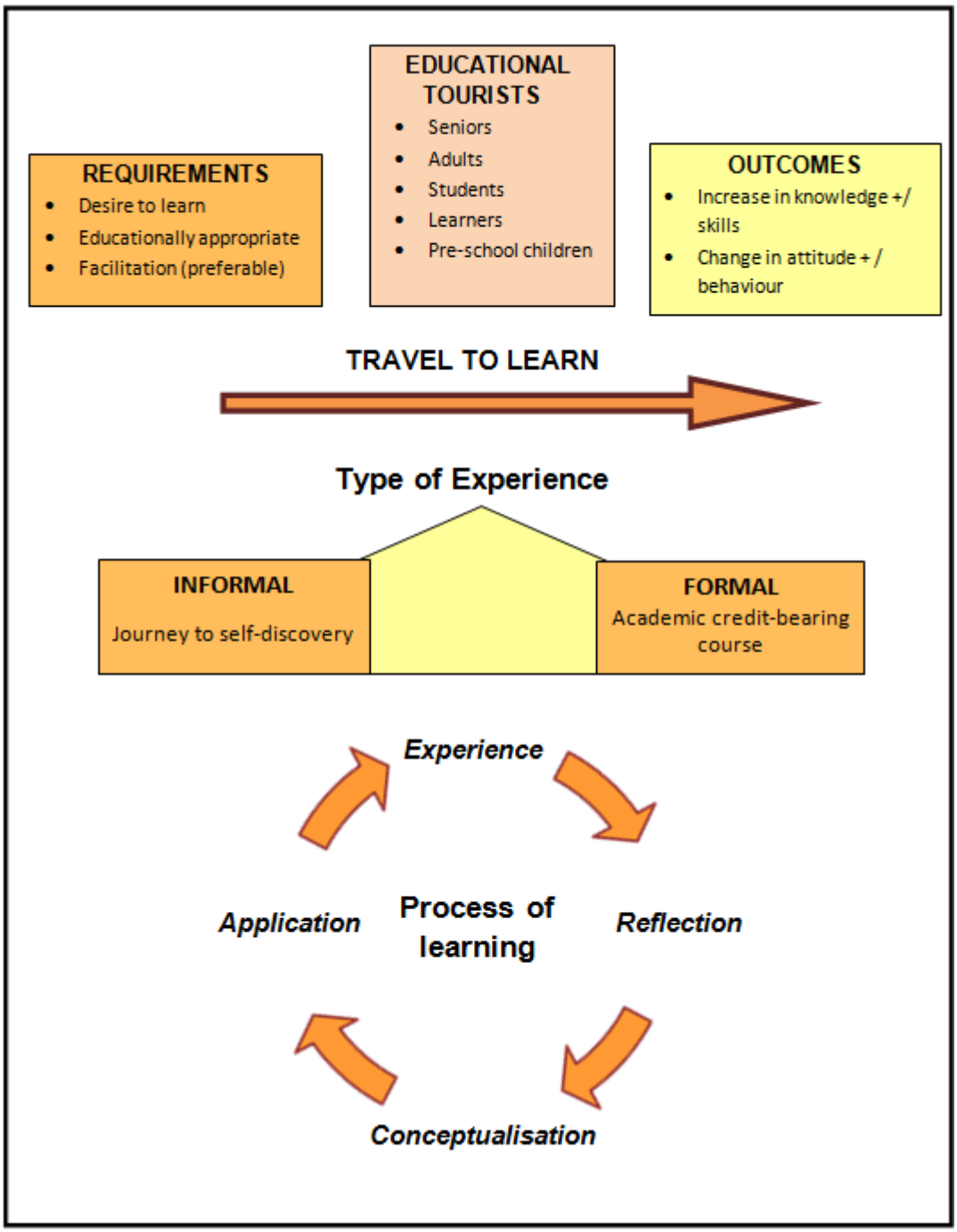
The process model proposes that all educational tourism activities or experiences be underpinned by the process of experiential learning. In this model, tourists arrive with preconceived ideas about a particular situation which they want to investigate at the destination to which they have travelled (the *application* component of the model) and depart the destination having tested those ideas. For example, discerning viticulture tourists may hold the perception that chardonnay wine cultivars in a particular region of the Western Cape are particularly good. They then travel to Franschhoek and embark on a wine tasting tour of a number of vineyards (the *experience* component of the model). During their tour, and assisted by the local sommelier (the facilitator), they compare the palates of the various chardonnay wines they taste (*reflection*) and in doing so, they either confirm their starting assumption, or decide that perhaps they should re-evaluate their initial assumption (*conceptualisation*) and head for Darling. It must be noted that *reflection* can occur *in situ* or after the event. Either way, the tourists' knowledge of the Western Cape wines has increased and so the process of learning has occurred.

Learning outcomes

Outcomes are regularly used in education models. They refer to achievable and hence measurable results. It is recommended that when developing an educational tourism product, outcomes of the experiences that are learning-stage appropriate, are clearly elucidated. Learning outcomes can be written in three categories:

- *Cognitive outcomes* – measure what is to be learnt (knowledge acquired).
- *Affective outcomes* – measure attitudes, or ways of thinking, that may change.
- *Behavioural outcomes* – measure skills that will be developed.

Figure 4.2: Process model of educational tourism



For example, when developing an educational tourism experience for high school learners participating in a 5-day wilderness trail in the *Kruger National Park,* the learning outcomes could be defined as:

- *Cognitive* – learners will be able to demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between large herbivores and their feeding preferences.
- *Affective* – learners will appreciate the inter-relationships between animals and their environment and the damaging consequences of upsetting that balance.
- *Behavioural* – learners will be able to identify different animals' spoor and deduce from that evidence the approximate time the animals made them.

Using this process approach, educational tourism can be defined as:

> *travel during which the process of learning can be demonstrated to have occurred according to a set of predefined outcomes.*

By reconceptualising educational tourism as a *process* with clearly defined and measurable outcomes, rather than by the content or subject matter of the tourism product, a much clearer framework is provided upon which educational tourism experiences can be developed. A process approach also demonstrates the possibility of incorporating educational tourism experiences into many different sectors of the tourism industry.

4.3.2 International educational tourism as experiential process

When an educational tourism experience is located within an international, or intercultural, context, then there is the potential for global learning. Adding to the educational tourism model presented in the previous section, the following two additional defining characteristics of international educational tourism need to be considered:

1. In order for global learning to occur, some form of cultural difference needs to be encountered (Bennett, 1986; Deardorff, 2006; Van 'T Klooster, 2014).

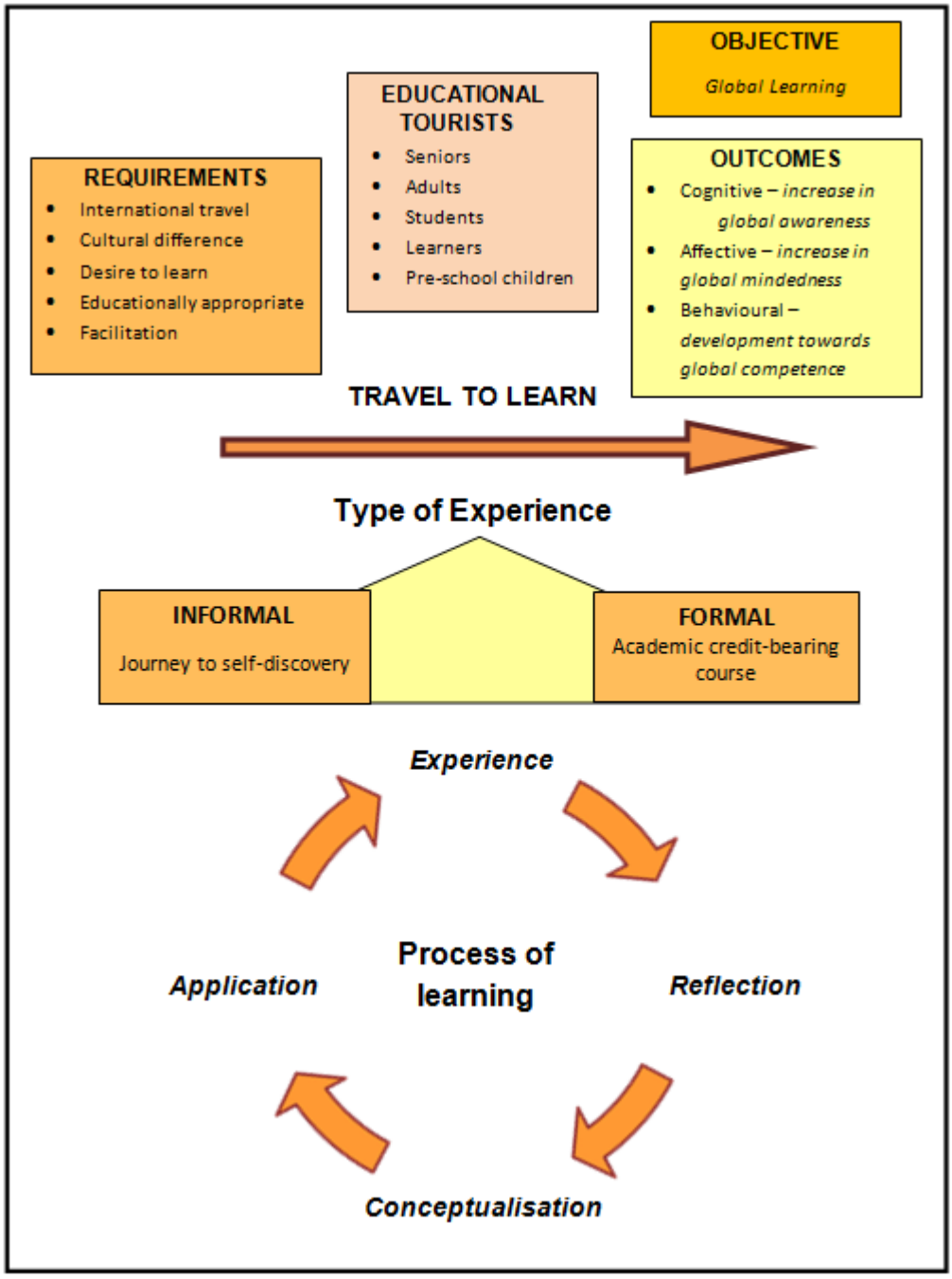
2. Global learning involves the acquisition or development of knowledge and/or skills, which in turn may influence attitudes and behaviour towards other cultures (Deardorff & Jones, 2012; DeMello, 2011; Merryfield *et al,* 2008; Tarrant, 2014).

Global learning is included as an objective of the international educational tourism model. The term *objective* is specifically used as it refers to intended, or hoped for, results (Woolf, 2010). *Outcomes* in contrast, are achievable and hence measurable consequences of a phenomenon. Owing to the tenuous nature of many of the defining characteristics of global learning, for example: to have “broadened perspectives” and “accelerated maturity” (Lilley, 2014:5), global learning is best included as an objective in the model of international educational tourism. However, within that objective, quantifiable cognitive, affective and behavioural outcomes can be listed.

Modifications to the educational tourism process model to reflect an international tourism component are depicted in Figure 4.3. Note that in this model of IET as an experiential process, international travel is a requirement. However, the model could equally be employed to depict global learning within an inter-cultural environment. Related to this, a key feature of the IET model is the necessity of encountering cultural difference in order to stimulate global learning. Definable and hence measurable outcomes of the process are phrased in terms of the three stages of the global learning progression model (refer back to Figure 3.1).

Having proposed a typology and model of IET, the next section of this chapter addresses how to assess the outcomes of IET within the high school learner segment. It is suggested that by identifying learning outcomes that are age-appropriate, valuable educational tourism experiences can be developed.

Figure 4.3: Model of the experiential process of international educational tourism



4.4 GLOBAL LEARNING OUTCOMES OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL TOURISM

A primary hypothesis of this thesis is that global learning occurs as a consequence of international educational tourism. In order to assess whether this is indeed occurring, a set of quantifiable outcomes needs to be developed. By combining the theoretical stages of the global learning progression model discussed in the previous chapter, with the categories of assessment outcomes regularly used in education, the following cognitive, behavioural and affective outcomes of IET are proposed.

4.4.1 Cognitive outcomes of international educational tourism

Increase in subject-specific knowledge

International educational tourism may result in two types of knowledge being acquired. Travel for a specific purpose, for example during a thematic study tour to the Galapagos Islands or to observe lean manufacturing in Japanese factories, will result in increased technical or subject-specific knowledge. Increased knowledge can easily be determined using regular subject-specific assessments. Of more relevance to this study is the second type of cognitive outcome.

Increase in global awareness

UNESCO's *2030 Agenda for sustainable development* (2015b) provides a sound basis for identifying knowledge areas associated with global learning. Sustainable development goal 4.7 lists those knowledge areas as:

- social justice;
- environmental stewardship;
- human rights;
- gender equality;
- a culture of peace and non-violence, and
- cultural diversity or intercultural understanding (UNESCO, 2015b:17).

This thesis proposes that any assessment tool of global learning resulting from IET should incorporate these six knowledge areas.

4.4.2 Affective outcomes of international educational tourism

Demonstrating changes in a person's values or thinking is not easy. Furthermore, ascribing causality is even more problematic: has a person become more tolerant, for example, as a consequence of visiting another culture, or is it because they inherently are more tolerant that they chose to visit another culture? Bénekar *et al* (2014), Lilley (2014), Merryfield *et al* (2008), and Toumi *et al* (2008), suggest that values characteristic of a globally competent person include: openness, tolerance, respect and a sense of responsibility towards self, others and the environment.

Educational tourism products and experiences should be designed with cognisance of the potential affective outcomes. Negative concerns around authenticity, the perpetuation of cultural stereotypes and the commodification of cultures usually arise as a result of not considering the affective aspects of an experience.

4.4.3 Behavioural outcomes of international educational tourism

Combining the transferable and soft skills proposed by the *Partnership for 21st Century Skills* (P21, 2015), UNESCO (2015a), Lilley (2014) and Tarrant (2010), with some of the outcomes suggested by the intercultural competence models of Bennett (1986) and Deardorff (2006), a list of potentially measurable skills that may be associated with IET can be developed. It is important to note that since behavioural outcomes refer to *skills*, which both facilitate global learning and develop as a consequence of global learning, behavioural outcomes can be applied to all stages of the progression model.

Behavioural outcomes of IET include the ability to:

- think critically and solve problems;
- be creative and "think outside the box";

- demonstrate cosmopolitan hospitality, that is to show empathy and kindness towards others;
- collaborate, or work with people from different backgrounds or cultures;
- communicate effectively and appropriately, and
- modify one's own behaviour to demonstrate environmental and/or social justice awareness.

When developing IET experiences, incorporating some of these behavioural outcomes into the activities should encourage the development of global mindedness.

4.4.4 Matrix for identifying global learning outcomes

It is proposed that global learning outcomes which are learning-stage appropriate be integrated into IET. It is unlikely that all knowledge areas and skills will be contained in a single tour, but by using the matrix provided in Figure 4.4, value can be added to IET experiences. The matrix can also be used as a tool for identifying and developing potential educational products in other sectors of the tourism industry.

For example, on a school tour to Victoria Falls, learners could be encouraged to think critically about the impact of adventure tourism on the environment and work collaboratively with local Zimbabweans on an assigned task. In the process they would develop their intercultural understanding and awareness of gender issues in the area. By defining a set of cognitive and behavioural objectives before the school tour, the teachers and tour guides would be able to demonstrate that learning had occurred during the process of international educational tourism.

Figure 4.4: Checklist matrix for outcomes of international educational tourism

	Global knowledge areas						
Global skills	*Use the cells to develop products, activities and experiences that combine global skills development within particular global knowledge areas.*	Social justice	Environmental stewardship	Human rights	Gender equality	Peace & non-violence	Intercultural understanding
	Critical thinking						
	Collaboration						
	Effective communication						
	Creativity						
	Cosmopolitan hospitality						
	Behavioural modification						

4.5 UNIQUE CHARACTERISTICS OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL TOURISM

In developing a model of international educational tourism and reflecting on the substance of the previous chapters, a number of characteristics which distinguish international educational tourism and educational tourism in general, from other forms of tourism, have become apparent. They are:

1. Educational tourism is best described as a process rather than being defined according to any particular subject matter.
2. As such, educational tourism can be incorporated into any sector of tourism.
3. Unlike many sectors of tourism, effective educational tourism may start prior to arrival at the destination, and continue after departure from the destination. This is owing to the nature of the experiential learning process.

4. Some educational tourism destinations are not dependent on educational tourists for their existence. For example, learner exchanges and study abroad are two common forms of educational tourism, but the schools or universities to which the learner or student tourists go, do not derive the majority of their income from the educational tourists.
5. Many international university students undertake their entire studies in another country but return home on completion of their qualifications. Their behaviour is characteristic of international educational tourists, but they spend more than a year at their study destination. For this reason, it is recommended that the usual time parameter employed in tourism studies of a maximum of one year away from home (UNWTO, 2010) be disregarded when discussing international educational tourism, a notion which is also alluded to by Ritchie (2003:17).

4.6 SUMMARY

Drawing together the theories of educational tourism, international education, global learning and experiential learning, this chapter has developed an alternative model of educational tourism to the one proposed by Ritchie (2003). Specifically, this model conceptualises educational tourism as a process rather than a segment of the industry and in doing so highlights the potential for integrating educational tourism into many different forms of tourism. Key requirements for successful educational tourism include the need for facilitation of the process and the desire on the part of educational tourists to want to learn.

When international travel is added to the educational tourism model, the need to experience cultural difference is a further requirement if global learning is to occur. Global learning is conceptualised as an objective of IET, which can be quantified in terms of cognitive, affective and behavioural outcomes of the process.

Components of the process model of IET will be empirically tested later in this thesis. The next chapter investigates the types of IET that are offered to children in South Africa's exclusive schools and contextualises the study by describing the origins and characteristics of those schools.

CHAPTER 5: SOUTH AFRICA'S EXCLUSIVE SCHOOLS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

International tourism is an expensive pursuit. If one considers that 87.14% of South Africa's state schools do not charge any school fees owing to them being located in economically weak communities (Ndebele, 2016:461); that 24.5% of the economically active population is unemployed (Stats SA, 2016a), and that of those working in the formal, non-agricultural, sector, the gross average monthly earning is R17 517 (Stats SA, 2016b), it becomes apparent that international tourism is unobtainable for most South Africans.

The focus of this thesis is to examine the relationship between international educational tourism and global learning in high school children, consequently this chapter contextualises education within South Africa in order to explain the criteria by which schools were selected for inclusion in this study. It will be demonstrated that only the most expensive schools in the country offer international educational tourism opportunities to their learners.

5.2 THE DUALISTIC NATURE OF SOUTH AFRICA'S SCHOOLS

In reference to the huge discrepancies that exist in terms of the quality of education provided by most state versus independent schools, the South African education system is often referred to as being dualistic (Bloch, 2009; Motshekga, 2016b; Spaull, 2012). State schools comprise the vast majority of educational institutions and are characterized, according to the Minister of Basic Education, by a deprivation of resources, ineptitude on the part of many teachers and a lack of consequences for misdemeanours of educational managers (Motshekga, 2016b). Many state schools are still grappling with the legacy of apartheid. In the *Institute of Race Relations'* 2015 census, 66.95% of all state schools had only pit or "ventilation improved pit" latrines, while almost 1% (223 schools) had no form of toilet (Ndebele, 2016:477). The same report states that over half the schools (12 081

schools) rely on mobile tankers, rain water or have an 'unreliable' source of water (Ndebele, 2016:478). Only 17% have a stocked library; 18.3% have a laboratory, and 42.2% (9 966 schools) have no sporting facilities (Ndebele, 2016:483).

The *World Economic Forum's: Global Competitive Report: 2015-2016*, ranks the quality of South Africa's education system at 138 out of 140 countries, whilst the quality of Mathematics and Science education is the very lowest at 140/140 (Schwab, 2015).

Within the public school system are small "high performing pockets of excellence" (Motshekga,2016b:2), that invariably are represented by the formerly whites-only state schools which are often termed "former Model-C schools" in reference to their ability to charge school fees and involve parents in their governance structure. Some of these schools, as will be discussed further, may be considered as being exclusive.

Comprising only 6% (1 681 schools) of all South African primary and secondary schools, and educating a mere 4% of the learners, are the independent schools (Ndebele, 2016). Almost three-quarters (73%) of these schools have been established since 2000 in response to the abysmal conditions in state schools and many of the schools are not-for-profit, low- to medium-fee schools which receive subsidies from the government (Kane-Berman, 2014; Ndebele, 2016). State subsidies range up to 60% of the provincial average estimated expenditure per learner (PAEPL) on condition that the school does not charge school fees that are greater than 2.5 times the PAEPL (ISASA, 2016a). Many of these independent schools occur in townships and poorer communities (Kane-Berman, 2014).

The scope of this thesis is limited to independent schools that are autonomous from the state in terms of funding and governance. In general, these schools are characterized by sound teaching practices and superior facilities compared with their state equivalents. At the apex of this group are schools that charge annual tuition fees up to five and a half times those of an average first year South African university BA degree. (2016 fees for first year BA students at the universities of Cape Town, Free State and Pretoria are respectively: R21 500 (UCT, 2016), R26 015 (UFS, 2016) and R30 560 (UP), while tuition fees at the exclusive schools range between R90 000 to R145 500 (see Table 5.8 later in

this chapter). Often seeped in the old British public school tradition, these exclusive schools compete with the best internationally, possessing excellent academic, sporting and cultural facilities, and offering a range of international travel opportunities in the form of exchanges, youth leadership summits, cultural and special interest trips, academic Olympiads and international sports tours. It is this group of exclusive South African independent schools, together with their state counterparts, that this chapter addresses.

5.2.1 Data collection

Unless otherwise acknowledged, all the information in this chapter was acquired through analysis of the schools' websites during the period October 2015 to March 2016. Where necessary, schools were telephoned for clarity on an issue. Lists of the schools' website addresses are recorded in Appendix B (state schools) and Appendix C (independent schools).

When provided, the foundation date of a school is given as the date in which the high school first came into existence. For example, in the compilation of this thesis, the oldest school in the country was found to be *Hoërskool Durbanvile* in the Western Cape, which can trace its origins back to a primary school that was established on the farm *Pampoenkraal* in 1827. However, the high school was only founded in 1945 and so *Hoërskool Durbanville* is acknowledged to have been founded on that date. Where a high school existed as a co-educational institution prior to splitting into two separate gender schools, as for example was the case of a number of schools administered by the *Natal Department of Education* in the 1950s and 1960s, the earlier co-educational founding date is adopted.

5.3 A BRIEF HISTORY OF SOUTH AFRICA'S EXCLUSIVE SCHOOLS

5.3.1 British occupation of the Cape

Although there are records of early formal schools in the Cape dating from 1658 with the occupation by the *Dutch East India Company* (Hofmeyer, 1982; Ramerini, n.d.; SAHO, 2012), and the establishment of numerous Christian mission schools ministering essentially to the indigenous African populations throughout the 17th and 18th centuries (Elphick, 1997; Gerstner, 1997; Hofmeyer, 1982), the origin of South Africa's exclusive schools commences with the British occupation of 1806. Under the governorship of Lord Charles Somerset, English was declared the only official language and medium of instruction in government schools. The settlers of Dutch origin opposed the ruling on religious and cultural grounds, resulting in Somerset making provision for the establishment of independent schools (Ludlow, 2015:112). The first legislation defining independent schools in South Africa thus dates back to 1822.

Somerset established the *South African College High School* (SACS) in Cape Town in 1829, making it the oldest state school in the country (SACS, 2016). In 1839, Sir John Herschel, John Fairbairn and Colonial Secretary John Bell introduced the *Established System of Education* (Ludlow, 2015), otherwise referred to as the *Herschel System* (Hofmeyer, 1982), which was modelled on the English *Public School System* and focused on developing a rational, scientific form of knowledge (Ludlow, 2015:106). Over the next 25 years, under strong influence from the Anglican Church, 12 of the country's top English-medium, boys-only schools were established (see Table 5.1).

With the 1822 provision for the establishment of independent schools, followed by the 1857 *Bill for Promoting Education* favouring the expansion of Anglican schools (Ludlow, 2015), the Dutch Reformed Church (DRC) reacted by developing a number of schools for Dutch-speaking children. The Rev Dr G.W.A. Van der Lingen established the first *vrije Christelijke scholen* (free Christian schools), which later became the *Paarl Gimnasium*. Driven by local communities and the DRC, a number of other *vrije Christelijke scholen*

followed (see Table 5.2). Van der Lingen's curriculum was based on *Christelijke Nasionaal Onderwijs* (Christian National Education), that he had been exposed to in Holland (Hofmeyer, 1982:6) and that would later form the basis of the Apartheid government's educational policies.

Table 5.1: Founding dates of the first English-medium boys' schools in South Africa

Date	School (modern name)	Location	Province (modern)
1829	South African College High School	Cape Town	Western Cape
1839	Grey High School	Port Elizabeth	Eastern Cape
1841	Wynberg Boys' High School	Cape Town	Western Cape
1848	St George's Grammar School	Cape Town	Western Cape
1849	Bishops Diocesan College	Cape Town	Western Cape
1855	Hilton College	Hilton	KwaZulu Natal
	St Andrew's College	Grahamstown	Eastern Cape
	Grey's College/ *Grey Kollege*	Bloemfontein	Free State
1858	Queen's College	Queenstown	Eastern Cape
1861	Dale College	King William's Town	Eastern Cape
1863	St Andew's School	Bloemfontein	Eastern Cape
	Maritzburg College	Pietermaritzburg	KwaZulu Natal

(Source: School websites survey, 2015-2016)

Table 5.2: Founding dates of the first Dutch-medium schools in South Africa

Date	School (modern name)	Location	Province (modern)	Boy/girl/ co-ed	Medium of instruction today
1858	*Paarl Gimnasium*	Paarl	W. Cape	Boys	Afrikaans
1866	*Paul Roos Gimnasium*	Stellenbosch	W. Cape	Boys	Afrikaans/English
1868	Paarl Boy's High School	Paarl	W. Cape	Boys	Afrikaans/English
1875	Eunice High School	Bloemfontein	Free State	Girls	English
	Hoër Meisieskool Bloemhof	Stellenbosch	W. Cape	Girls	Afrikaans
1876	Paarl Girls' High School	Paarl	W. Cape	Girls	Afrikaans/English

(Source: School websites survey, 2015-2016)

Between 1860 and 1890, the number of independent schools in the Cape expanded to over 100 (Hofmeyer, 1982:7). However, at the end of the 19th century, the government cut off its subsidies to the *vrije Christelijke scholen* resulting in many of them closing (Hofmeyer, 1982). Most of those that remained open became assimilated into the state system over the next 20 years. For example, *Paarl Gimnasium* became a state school in 1920.

Although the Anglican and Dutch Reformed churches were responsible for the establishment of many of the schools that were to become today's exclusive schools , a number of other schools arose independently of them. In the Cape, two notable girls' schools were founded in 1860. *La Rochelle Girls' High School* (also known today as *Hoër Meisieskool, Paarl*), was the first school in the Colony where girls were taught in English. In the neighbouring town of Stellenbosch, *Rhenish Girls' High School* was established by Rev P.D. Lückhoff, who was Head of the local Rhenish Mission Church. The German Evangelical Lutheran Mission founded the first co-educational school in the country in 1856 with the *Deutsche Schule, Hermannsburg* in Natal. German farmers were also responsible for the establishment of a co-educational school in Westville in Natal in 1861, which ultimately split into two of the country's top state schools: *Westville Boys'* and *Westville Girls'* high schools in 1964.

The 19th century was dominated by the establishment of schools for boys, particularly amongst the English-speaking communities. On the "Frontier", in what is now referred to as the Eastern Cape province, Pastor Heinrich Muller, a German settler, founded *Selborne College* in East London in 1872. In 1894, another boys-only school, the Methodist run *Salem Academy* that had started in the 1830s in Albany, was moved to Grahamstown and renamed *Kingswood College*. In Natal, *Durban High School* (for boys) opened as a state school in 1866. In Pietermaritzburg, two elite schools for boys arose in the 1860s: *Maritzburg College* in 1863, also a state school, followed by *St Charles College* in 1875 that was started by the Catholic Bishop of Natal, Bishop Charles Jolivet. Michaelhouse also had its origins in Pietermaritzburg, being founded by Anglican priest Canon James in 1896, before moving to Balgowan in 1901.

When girls' schools were established, they invariably had as a primary outcome the creation of "young ladies" and classes tended to focus on the necessary attributes thereof. Women teachers, like their British and American counterparts, had to be unmarried. Furthermore, teachers employed in a Cape government school (which included the colony of Natal), had to pass the Scottish *Chambers Educational Course* for teachers (Ludlow, 2015). There are numerous records of young women teachers sailing out from Britain to teach, only to marry (often the school's rector) within a year and thus were obliged to end their careers (see for example: *Eunice High School, St Mary's, Waverley* and *Victoria Girls' High School*). Although exact dates for South Africa could not be found, it was not until the 1930s in the USA (PBS, n.d.) and 1940s in the UK (BBC, 2011; Padmanabhan, 2000), that the unmarried requirement of women teachers was finally abandoned. Table 5.3 records the first English-medium schools for girls that were established in South Africa.

Table 5.3: The first English-medium schools for girls in South Africa

Date	School (modern name)	Location	Province (modern)
1860	La Rochelle Girls' High School	Paarl	Western Cape
1871	St Cyprian's School	Cape Town	Western Cape
1874	The Diocesan School for Girls	Grahamstown	Eastern Cape
	Collegiate Girls' High School	Port Elizabeth	Eastern Cape
1877	Durban Girls' College	Durban	KwaZulu Natal
	St Anne's Diocesan College	Hilton	KwaZulu Natal
1878	The Wykeham Collegiate	Pietermaritzburg	KwaZulu Natal
1879	St Mary's Diocesan School for Girls	Johannesburg	Gauteng
1882	Durban Girls' High School	Durban	KwaZulu Natal
1887	St John's Diocesan School for Girls	Pietermaritzburg	KwaZulu Natal

(Source: School websites survey, 2015-2016)

In parallel to the schools that catered essentially for the children of European settlers, ran an extensive network of mission schools focused primarily on converting the indigenous African children. When government subsidies were withdrawn near the end of the 19th century, most of them closed (Hofmeyer, 1982). Two in KwaZulu Natal, however, to this day remain centres of excellence for black children from disadvantaged backgrounds,

namely: *Inanda Seminary*, founded in 1869 as a boarding school for black girls, by American Congregationalist missionaries, and *St Francis College* at Mariannhill, built by Abbot Pfanner and Trappist monks of the Catholic Church in 1882, as a boarding school for black boys. Girls were accommodated at *St Francis College* in 1884.

5.3.2 The discovery of gold on the Witwatersrand

Prior to the discovery of gold in 1886 on the Witwatersrand, most of the schools that would later become the exclusive schools of today had been founded along the coastal regions of the Western Cape, East Cape and KwaZulu Natal. With the discovery of gold however, the demand for schools for the children of the European settlers rapidly increased in the interior of the country. Between 1888 and the end of the First World War, 12 new schools that would become exclusive establishments had been constructed on the Witwatersrand in present day Gauteng province (see Table 5.4).

Table 5.4: Origins of the first exclusive schools in Gauteng

Date	School (modern name)	Location	Boy/girl/co-ed
1888	St Mary's	Waverley	Girls
1890	*Deutsche Internationale Schule*	Johannesburg	Co-ed
1898	St John's College	Houghton	Boys
1899	*Deutsche Schule Pretoria*	Pretoria	Co-ed
1902	King Edward VII School	Houghton	Boys
	Pretoria High School for Girls	Pretoria	Girls
	St Andrew's School for Girls	Johannesburg	Girls
1903	Roedean School (SA)	Johannesburg	Girls
1907	Redhill High School	Johannesburg	Co-ed
1911	St Martin's School	Rosettenville	Originally boys, re-opened in 1958 as co-ed
1920	*Afrikaans Hoër Meisieskool / Afrikaans Hoër Seunskool*	Pretoria	Originally co-ed, split into separate boys and girls schools in 1930
	Parktown Boys' High School	Johannesburg	Boys

(Source: School websites survey, 2015-2016)

The construction of new schools was not restricted to the Witwatersrand. Elsewhere the increasing European population resulted in the construction of more schools to accommodate the children of the settlers. In Grahamstown, *Victoria Girls' High School* was established by Miss Bertha Mingay in 1892. In Cape Town, *Rustenberg Girls' High School* (1894); *Rondebosch Boys' High School* (1897) and *Herschel Girls' School* (1922), added to the growing number of top schools in the region. In Bloemfontein, *C & N Meisieskool Oranje* was conceptualized by former President of the Independent Orange Free State, President M. Steyn and funded by European supporters of the Boers, particularly Queen Wilhemina of the Netherlands. "*Oranje Meisies*" was finally built in 1907, 52 years after its brother school, *Grey Kollege*. In Natal, three more girls' schools were established: *Clarendon School for Girls* (1903), *St Mary's Diocesan School of Girls* in Kloof (1906) and *Pietermaritzburg Girls' High School* (1920). Methodist sugar-cane baron, Sir James Liege Hulett, originally built *Kearsney College* on the KwaZulu Natal north coast near Stanger. However, in the mid-1930s, the independent boys-only school was moved inland to Botha's Hill apparently to avoid malaria on the coast.

5.3.3 The wars period

The South African Wars (1899-1902) essentially ruined the schools in the two Boer Republics (Hofmeyer, 1982), and in 1904, the Director of Education, E.B. Sargant, released the *Sargant Report*, which stipulated that English was to be the medium of instruction in the government schools of all four colonies. Bible History could be taught in Dutch "but for no more than five hours per week" (Hofmeyer, 1982:10). The *Report* also made provision for the "compulsory registration of private schools…their compliance with the regulations of the government as to sanitary conditions, record of attendance of scholars, and the certification of all teachers" (Hofmeyer, 1982:10). Three years later, the Minister of Education, General Jan Smuts, introduced *Act 25 of 1907*, aimed at reconciliation between the Boers and British and which gave more autonomy to the four provinces regarding their choice of language of instruction in state schools (Blumfield, 2008).

With the establishment of the Union of South Africa in 1910, English and Dutch were declared the two official languages and Prime Minister Louis Botha gave autonomy to the four provinces regarding primary and secondary education (Hofmeyer, 1982). The *Joint Matriculation Board* (JMB) was established as a statutory body in 1916 (Blumfield, 2008), in order to regulate the standard of university entrance examinations (what would later become the *Senior Certificate* school-leaving examinations) across the four provinces. In 1925, Afrikaans replaced Dutch as the second official language. Over the next two decades the four provinces established their own *Senior Certificate* examinations, regulated by the JMB. It was during this period, in 1929, that the Anglican independent schools held their first annual *Head of Church Schools* conference (referred to as the *Head Masters Conference*, HMC), at *St Andrew's School* in Bloemfontein (Lee, 2014). From an initial meeting of headmasters from 11 Anglican schools, the organization would eventually become the *Southern African Heads of Independent Schools Association* (SAHISA) with a current membership of nearly 700 independent schools in South Africa, Namibia, Botswana, Swaziland and Angola (ISASA, 2016b).

South Africa's participation in the two World Wars had a significant impact on many of the exclusive schools. The impact was particularly felt by the boys-only schools. Most of those schools have records of past pupils ("Old Boys") and teachers participating in active service, often on opposing sides (see for example: *Hilton College; Kearsney College; Kingswood College; Michaelhouse; Selbourne College* and *St Andrew's College, Grahamstown*). Hundreds of these men lost their lives, but in the establishment of memorials to them at their former schools, strong "Old Boys" networks were forged. Over the decades, these *alumni* have financially supported the development of many of the educational, sporting and cultural facilities that now separate the exclusive schools from the vast majority of South African schools.

5.3.4 National Party rule and the Apartheid years

The *National Party* came to power in 1948 and with it education in South Africa changed dramatically. Whereas under British rule, legislation encouraged the establishment of independent schools for Dutch speaking children, the reverse was now true. The *Instituut*

vir Christelike-Nasionale Onderwys Beleid (the Institute for Christian-National Education Declaration), established the Christian-National principles that had first been mooted by Van der Lingen at *Paarl Gimnasium* in 1858, as the framework for the new curriculum. English-speaking independent schools increasingly felt that their autonomy was under threat and responded by forming the *Natal Private Schools Association* (Lee, 2014). Six other "prominent Anglican schools" (Lee, 2014) developed a similar association. The *National Education Policy Act* of 1967, further threatened the independence of independent but state-aided schools, leading to some members of the HMC suggesting that independent schools relinquish all government grants to prevent them falling under state control (Lee, 2014). In 1974 the *Association of Private Schools of South Africa* (APS) was started to safeguard the rights of independent schools. During this period, the German schools (*Deutsche Schule Pretoria; Deutsche Internationale Schule Kapstadt* and the *Deutsche Internationale Schule Johannesburg*) were non-racial and largely funded by the German government. Similarly, the *American International School of Johannesburg* admitted children of all races and received considerable financial backing from USA-based businesses.

Whilst relatively wealthy independent schools were grappling with issues of autonomy, Dr Hendrik Verwoerd's *Bantu Education Act* of 1953, forced all African mission schools to either become state controlled or have their subsidies withdrawn (Blumfield, 2008). Two years later, it was announced that all state funding to mission schools would end by 1958 (Blumfield, 2008). By 1971, of the over 5 000 independent African schools that had existed in 1953, only 438 remained (Troup in Blumfield, 2008).

The apartheid years were characterized by extensive expansion of facilities in the Afrikaans-speaking state schools for white children. Reference to the websites of these schools describe the development of athletics tracks, swimming pools, tennis courts, rugby fields and stadia, science laboratories and theatres (see for example: *Afrikaans Hoër Meisieskool* and *Afrikaans Hoër Seunskool; Hoërskool D.F. Malan; Hoërskool Duineveld; Hoërskool Durbanville* and *Hoërskool Noordheuwel*). It is likely that the development of these excellently equipped state-supported schools greatly reduced the need for the establishment of independent Afrikaans-medium schools and in the compilation of this

thesis, no evidence of the formation of any independent Afrikaans schools during the *National Party* rule of 1948-1994 was found.

During apartheid, the *Joint Matriculation Board* (JMB) was the only assessment authority to offer examinations to non-racial schools (IEB, 2015). However, when the government started to phase out the JMB's *Senior Certificate Examination* in 1986, a number of principals from the progressive independent schools formed the *Independent Examinations Board* (IEB) in 1988 (Blumfield, 2008; IEB, 2015). Six years later, the first IEB *National Senior Certificate* (NSC) school-leaving examinations were written. Twenty six schools sat the examinations. Of the 1305 candidates who wrote the IEB NSC, 94% passed and 70% of them achieved a *Bachelor's Pass* (BP) which entitled them to South African university entrance (Ndebele, 2016:501). In contrast, only 58% of all the learners who wrote the various government NSC examinations passed and a mere 18% qualified for university entrance (Ndebele, 2016:502).

Twenty one years after the first IEB examinations, the IEB has become the examination of choice for wealthy independent South African schools. Considering that 84.5% of all South African schools do not charge any fees (Ndebele, 2016), the IEB NSC examination fees for 2016 of R5 050 for 7 subjects with an additional R950 for every additional subject written (IEB, 2016) are out of the reach of most learners. The 2015 NSC examination results demonstrate that a learner writing the IEB examination is almost 3.5 times more likely to qualify for university entrance than one writing the *Department of Basic Education's* (DBE) state examination. In 2015, 85.26% of the IEB candidates achieved a *Bachelor's Pass* (Karolia, 2015), compared with only 24.89% of the DBE candidates (Shamase, 2016). That the IEB examinations are a pursuit of the wealthy is further demonstrated by the fact that of the 678 137 full-time Grade 12 learners who wrote their school-leaving examinations in 2015, only 10 212 (1.5%) of them wrote the IEB examinations. Attending an independent school that offers the IEB examinations provides children with a significant advantage in terms of accessing higher education.

5.3.5 Exclusive schooling post-1994

Following the abolishment of apartheid in 1994, the last school-leaving examinations based on race were written in 1995 (Blumfield, 2008) and South African education was restructured with the promulgation of the *National Education Policy Act* and *South African Schools Act* in 1996. By 1999, the existing independent schools associations merged to form the *Independent Schools Association of Southern Africa* (ISASA), with the vision of becoming more "inclusive, diverse, relevant and public-spirited" (Lee, 2014).

In line with international trends associated with the commodification of education (Kenway & Fahey, 2014; Rizvi, 2014; Weis, 2014) and spurred on by indications of a declining state system (Bloch, 2009), the number of independent schools in South Africa proliferated during the 1990s and the first decade of the 2000s. Though not tacitly stated, the desire to maintain exclusivity along class if not racial lines was most likely another driving force for the establishment of numerous independent schools. Seekings and Nattrass (2005) comment how post the transition to democracy, privilege has been "reproduced on the basis of class rather than race," and describe how as increasing numbers of black South Africans move into the elite and middle classes, they become able to pass on their advantages to their children. This phenomenon is also recognised by Singh and Bhana (2015) who describe how "contemporary South Africa has been characterised by a class shift, with a greater tendency of the black affluent classes to send their children to the well-resourced English-medium schools" (Singh & Bhana, 2015:202). By gaining competency in the English language, Hunter (in Singh & Bhana, 2015) observed that black South African children are able to locate themselves within middle-class values. Since negotiations for a democratic South Africa commenced in 1990 at least 22 high schools, that in 2015 charged annual tuition fees of over R54 000, were established (see Table 5.5). With the exceptions of *Clifton College*, which is a boys-only school, and *Leeuwenhof Akademie* that is a parallel-medium school, all the other high schools are co-educational English-medium institutions.

The last 20 years also saw the establishment of chains of independent schools run as businesses. None of these groups are members of ISASA but all of them offer the IEB

examinations. Graeme Crawford built the first *Crawford* school in 1993 and within five years had grown that brand to 21 schools around the country (Crawford, 2016). All schools are co-educational and English is the medium of instruction. The first *Curro* schools were developed in 1998 and by 2016 the business *Curro Holdings* had expanded their operations to 48 schools offering both English- and Afrikaans-medium schools (Curro, 2016). Depending on the location, annual tuition fees range from R40 000 – R65 000 pa (Curro, 2016). In 2000 Graeme Crawford opened his first *Reddam* school: *Reddam Constantia,* in the upmarket suburb of Constantia, Cape Town. By 2010, Crawford had built seven "co-educational, non-denominational, international schools" (Crawford, 2016) in some of the most affluent suburbs and gated communities in South Africa. Annual tuition fees for all the Reddam schools are in excess of R90 000 pa (Reddam, 2016).

Table 5.5: New exclusive South African high schools (school chains excluded)

Date	School	Province
1991	Penryn College	Mpumalanga
1992	Oakhill School	Western Cape
1995	Bridge House	Western Cape
	Creston College	KwaZulu Natal
1996	*Leeuwenhof Akademie*	Gauteng
	School of Merit Private School	Gauteng
1997	Elkanah House	Western Cape
	Somerset College	Western Cape
	Uplands College	Mpumalanga
	Dainfern College	Gauteng
1998	Cornwall Hill College	Gauteng
	St Peter's College	Gauteng
	Ashton College	Gauteng
	School of Merit Private School	Gauteng
	Parklands College	Western Cape
1999	Hout Bay International School	Western Cape
	Grace College	KwaZulu Natal
2000	Beaulieu College	Gauteng
2001	Heron Bridge College	Gauteng
	St George's College	Eastern Cape
2002	Clifton College	KwaZulu Natal
2003	Waterberg Academy	Limpopo

(Source: Data collected off the ISASA and schools' websites, 2015-2016)

Table 5.6 reflects the annual tuition fees for the most expensive state schools in South Africa in 2016. It is interesting to consider that high tuition fees do not necessarily equate with the provision of excellent education. In an independent survey of state schools undertaken in 2013 to establish the "top 25 government schools" in the country (Fairlady, 2013), only five of the schools listed in Table 5.6 were included, namely: *Rondebosch Boys' High School, Rustenberg Girls' High School, Afrikaans Hoër Seunskool, Westerford High school* and *Northlands Girls' High School.* In defining "top", the *Fairlady* survey took into consideration: a 100% NSC pass rate over the previous 5 years, and a selection of criteria incorporating: academics, school facilities, subjects and extra-curricular offerings, student to teacher ratios and finances (Fairlady, 2013:55). See Table 5.7.

Table 5.6: Most expensive state schools in South Africa in 2016

Rank	School	Tuition Fees (SAR)	Boy/Girl/ Co-ed	Province	Founded
1	Rondebosch Boys' High School	41 400	Boys	W. Cape	1897
1	Northwood School	41 400	Boys	KZN	1949
3	Westville Boys' High School	41 000	Boys	KZN	1861
4	Grey High School, Port Elizabeth	40 700	Boys	E.Cape	1839
5	Durban High School	40 500	Boys	KZN	1866
6	Parktown Boys' High School	39 900	Boys	Gauteng	1920
7	King Edward VII School	39 700	Boys	Gauteng	1902
8	SA College High School	37 300	Boys	W. Cape	1829
9	Wynberg Boys' High School	37 100	Boys	W. Cape	1841
10	Rustenberg Girls' High School	36 500	Girls	W. Cape	1894
11	Hyde Park High School	35 700	Co-ed	Gauteng	1957
12	Northcliff High School	34 485	Co-ed	Gauteng	1969
13	Maritzburg College	34 000	Boys	KZN	1863
14	*Afrikaans Hoër Seunskool*	31 760	Boys	Gauteng	1920
15	Westerford High School	31 600	Co-ed	W. Cape	1953
16	Northlands Girls' High School	31 322	Girls	KZN	1949
17	Pretoria Girls' High School	31 300	Girls	Gauteng	1902
18	Selborne College	30 800	Boys	E. Cape	1872
19	Collegiate Girls' High School	30 256	Girls	E. Cape	1874
20	Queens' College	29 000	Boys	E. Cape	1858

(Source: Based on Masondo, 2015, with corroboration from schools' websites)

Of the top 20 most expensive state schools in the country, 15 were founded during the 19th century under British rule. Apart from *Afrikaans Hoër Seunskool,* all are English-medium schools. 12 of the schools established by the British are boys-only schools and three are girls-only. In contrast, three of the five schools established during *National Party* rule are co-ed, with one each being boys-only and girls-only. No expensive state schools have been founded by the post-apartheid ruling political party: the *African National Congress.*

Table 5.7: Top 25 government schools in South Africa in 2013

(Schools ranked alphabetically)

	School	Boy/Girl/ Co-ed	Province	Established
1	*Afrikaanse Hoër Meisieskool*	Girls	Gauteng	1920
2	*Afrikaanse Hoër Seunskool*	Boys	Gauteng	1920
3	Clarendon High School for Girls	Girls	E. Cape	1903
4	*C & N Oranje Meisieskool*	Girls	Free State	1907
5	Danville Park Girls' High School	Girls	KZN	1967
6	*Hoërskool Duineveld*	Co-ed	N. Cape	1954
7	*Hoërskool DF Malan*	Co-ed	W. Cape	1951
8	Durban Girls' High School	Girls	KZN	1882
9	*Hoërskool Durbanville*	Co-ed	W. Cape	1827
10	Eunice High School	Girls	Free State	1875
11	Greenside High School	Co-ed	Gauteng	1961
12	Hillcrest High School	Co-ed	KZN	1976
13	*Hoërskool Hopetown*	Co-ed	N. Cape	1865
14	*Hoër Meisieskool Bloemhof*	Girls	W. Cape	1874
15	*Hoërskool Noordheuwel*	Co-ed	Gauteng	1981
16	*La Rochelle Meisies* / Girls	Girls	W. Cape	1860
17	Northlands Girls' High School	Girls	KZN	1949
18	Paarl Girls' High School / *Hoër Meisieskool Paarl*	Girls	W. Cape	1876
19	Pietermaritzburg Girls' High Sch.	Girls	KZN	1920
20	Rhenish Girls' High School	Girls	W. Cape	1860
21	Rondebosch Boys' High School	Boys	W. Cape	1897
22	Rustenberg High School for Girls	Girls	W. Cape	1894
23	Victoria Girls' High School	Girls	E. Cape	1892
24	Westerford High School	Co-ed	W. Cape	1953
25	Westville Girls' High School	Girls	KZN	1861

(Source: Fairlady, 2013, with additional data sourced from the schools' websites)

Employing the more comprehensive lens of exclusivity used by *Fairlady*, an interesting trend emerges. As in the previous analysis, over two thirds of the top schools were established during the British rule of the country, with just under one third during *National Party* rule (17 versus 8 schools, respectively), but 10 of those are girls-only schools, five are co-ed and only two are boys-only. Furthermore, a total of nine Afrikaans-medium schools and two dual-medium schools are included on the list. In addition, *Eunice High School* was originally established in 1875 as the *Oranje Vrij Staat Dames Instituut* by the Dutch Reformed Church and only changed to an English-medium school much later on. When school fees are not the only criteria for defining exclusivity, it appears that more girls-only and Afrikaans-medium schools may be classified as top schools.

There can be no doubt that South Africa's most expensive independent schools have superior academic, sporting and cultural facilities, offer a wide range of subjects and extra-curricular activities and have low student to teacher ratios. Perusal of any of their websites is testament to this. Whether this translates to more globally minded learners will be addressed in this thesis. Table 5.8 lists the most expensive independent schools in South Africa in 2016.

Like their state counterparts, 15 of the country's most expensive independent schools were established during British rule. But unlike either of the state school ranking systems, there is a fairly even distribution between boys-only and girls-only schools, represented by six and seven schools respectively. Two schools were founded during the apartheid years, *St Stithian's College* and *St Alban's College,* both in Gauteng. The three exclusive schools founded since the first democratic elections are co-educational and Gauteng-based. English is the medium of instruction of all 20 schools.

Table 5.8: Most expensive independent schools in South Africa in 2016

Rank	School	Tuition Fees (SAR)	Boy/Girl/ Co-ed	Province	Founded
1	Hilton College	235 960*	Boys	KZN	1855
2	Michaelhouse	225 000*	Boys	KZN	1896
3	Kearsney College	145 500	Boys	KZN	1921
4	Roedean School for Girls	124 297	Girls	Gauteng	1903
5	St John's College	124 618	Boys	Gauteng	1898
6	St Martin's School	120 900	Co-ed	Gauteng	1911
7	St Stithian's College	117 470	Boys + Girls	Gauteng	1953
8	Bishops Diocesan College	113 440	Boys	W. Cape	1849
9	St Alban's College	112 200	Boys	Gauteng	1963
10	St Andrew's School for Girls	111 110	Girls	Gauteng	1902
11	St Mary's School, Waverley	109 450	Girls	Gauteng	1888
12	Reddam House schools	107 100	Co-ed	WC/Gaut	2000
13	St Mary's DSG, Pretoria	104 100	Girls	Gauteng	1879
14	Beaulieu College	102 680	Co-ed	Gauteng	2000
15	Kingswood College	97 410	Co-ed	E. Cape	1894
16	St Andrew's College	96 960	Boys	E. Cape	1855
17	St Cyprian's School	93 880	Girls	W. Cape	1871
18	Diocesan School for Girls, Grahamstown	93 800	Girls	E. Cape	1874
19	St Mary's DSC, Kloof	92 440	Girls	KZN	1906
20	Heronbridge College	90 040	Co-ed	Gauteng	2001

** Includes boarding.*

(Source: Based on Vorster, 2016, with corroboration from schools' websites)

Summary

In summary, the establishment of exclusive schools in South Africa is associated with the impact of state educational policies under three different regimes. British occupation in the 19th and early 20th centuries favoured the establishment of English-medium schools with a strong Anglican grounding. In response, Dutch-medium independent schools were founded, usually in association with the Dutch Reformed Church. During *National Party*

rule between 1948 and 1994, the policies of apartheid and Christian National Education concentrated on the development of facilities in white Afrikaans-medium and to a slightly lesser extent white English-medium state schools. Owing to the state providing well for the children of the white ruling class, very few exclusive independent schools arose during this time. Those that did were usually politically progressive English-medium schools with a Christian ethos. Following the first democratic elections in 1994, the *African National Congress* focused its education policies on providing for the previously disadvantaged majority of black children. The redirecting of state funds towards schools for black learners, combined with formerly whites-only schools opening their doors to children of all races, resulted in a flurry of expensive independent schools being built across the country. South Africa's education system is as dualistic now as it has ever been, the only difference is that the divide has changed from culture (British / Dutch), to race (white / black) to class. Whether or not class is a disguise for race in these schools will be determined in the course of this study.

5.4 INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL TOURISM OPPORTUNITIES IN SOUTH AFRICA'S EXCLUSIVE SCHOOLS

In line with the global commodification of education and the rapid growth in the number of exclusive schools since the 1990s, many schools have added international educational tourism (IET) opportunities to their curricula in order to remain competitive (Kenway & Fahey, 2014; Rizvi, 2014). To determine whether this is also the case in South Africa, an analysis of IET offerings on the websites of the country's exclusive schools was undertaken. It is important to acknowledge that by restricting the analysis to only content that was reflected on the schools' websites, the results may not be a true indication of the extent of IET in South African schools, as some schools may not have included their IET offerings on their websites. However, since IET usually is associated with positive experiences and as such tends to be actively marketed by schools, it is unlikely that many IET activities would not have been updated onto websites.

5.4.1 International travel opportunities in state schools

A total of 40 state schools comprise the 20 most expensive state schools in 2016 (Table 5.6) and the 25 state schools listed in the *Fairlady Top 25 Schools* ranking (Table 5.7). Five schools appear on both lists. Of those 40 schools, only six cited any form of international travel opportunities on their websites (see Table 5.9).

Two each of the six schools offer international exchanges, cultural tours and sports tours. Cultural tours are limited to the Afrikaans-medium schools and sports tours are undertaken by only the boys' schools. Within these schools, only a few children have the opportunity to participate in any form of international travel. When one also considers that the three boys' schools that offer *IET* are ranked in the top five most expensive state schools in the country, it is apparent that *IET* is not an activity of the vast majority of government schools.

Table 5.9: International travel reported on state schools' websites

	Name of school	Boy/Girl/ Co-ed	IET activities
1	Clarendon High School for Girls	Girls	Annual exchange to 3 UK schools for 3 girls only.
2	Durban High School	Boys	"Regular" international sports tours.
3	Grey High School, Port Elizabeth	Boys	Annual international sports tours + 1 music tour in 2013. Different sport each year.
4	*Hoërskool DF Malan*	Co-ed	Gr.11 cultural tour to London + Paris combined with 2 week Belgium homestay. 13 learners in 2015.
5	*La Rochelle Meisies* / Girls	Girls	Cultural tour to Monaco.
6	Rondebosch Boys' High School	Boys	Annual exchange to 2 USA schools + 1 cricket exchange to UK school.

(Source: Analysis of schools' websites: February-March, 2016)

5.4.2 International travel opportunities in independent schools

In order to establish a sampling frame to review the websites of schools that might offer IET to their learners, a pilot study was undertaken in August 2015 of all the independent high schools in KwaZulu Natal province that are listed on the *ISASA* website. The aim of the pilot study was to identify the annual tuition fee threshold at which IET is offered. Of the 34 schools listed, only nine of them (26.47%) mentioned international exchanges or international travel. Apart from the *Deutsche Schule, Hermannsburg,* all those schools charged tuition fees of over R60 000 per annum (R5 000 per month). Based on this, the sampling frame parameters were set at annual tuition fees of R48 000 pa (R4 000 per month) in order to minimize falsely excluding schools from the survey.

Between February and March 2016, all South African independent schools listed on the *ISASA* website that met the criteria of the sampling frame were analysed for evidence of any mention of international travel (see Appendix C for a complete list of the schools surveyed). In total, 67 websites of independent schools was reviewed. 31 high schools (46.3% of the sample) indicated that they offer IET opportunities to their learners. With the exception of *Stanford Lake College*, all the schools that offer IET had annual tuition fees in 2016 above R54 000 per annum (R4 500 per month). Remarkably, 35% of the country's 20 most expensive independent schools listed in Table 5.8 do not mention any form of international travel on their websites. The number of schools that offer IET per province is recorded in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10: Proportion of independent schools with annual tuition fees over R48 000 that offer international travel activities per province

Province	Number of schools	Number offering IET	Proportion (%)
Eastern Cape	5	5	100
Gauteng	25	12	60
KwaZulu Natal	14	8	57
Limpopo	3	1	33
Mpumalanga	2	0	0
North West	0	0	0
Northern Cape	0	0	0
Western Cape	9	5	56
Totals:	**58**	**31**	**53**

(Source: Analysis of schools' websites: February-March, 2016)

Table 5.11 summarises the major types of international educational travel opportunities that are offered in South African exclusive independent high schools.

Table 5.11: Categories of international travel in South African independent schools

	Category	Number of schools that offer this	Proportion (%) of 31 independent schools that offer IET
1	International exchanges	23	74
2	Cultural or thematic tours	14	45
3	Sports tours	8	26
4	Youth leadership summits	5	16
5	International service projects	5	16

(Source: Analysis of schools' websites: February-March, 2016)

International exchanges: Reciprocal school agreements

International exchanges are available in almost three quarters of all schools that offer international travel. Most international exchanges occur during the Grade 10 year (when learners are between 15-16 years old) and last from four weeks to a term. Table 5.12 lists the countries that have exchange agreements with South African schools.

Given the strong British influence on the establishment of many of the country's exclusive schools, it is not surprising that the highest number of exchange agreements exist with schools from the UK and that countries which share a similar British colonial history, namely Australia, New Zealand and to a lesser extent India, are also ranked highly. Germany's ranking as the third most popular exchange partner may reflect alliances with the Afrikaans (formerly Dutch) schools. The growing interest amongst some learners and their families in pursuing university education in North America, combined with the familiarity of the USA and Canada as a consequence of media exposure, probably account for the relatively high rankings of those two nations. That so few schools arrange exchange programmes with non-Anglophone countries suggests a reluctance to encourage learners to move beyond their cultural comfort zone, or perhaps an ignorance of the process and benefits of international educational tourism. Whether participating in

Table 5.12: Countries that have exchange agreements with South African independent high schools

Rank	Country	Number of SA schools that have an exchange agreement with *at least one* school in the country.
1	UK (England, Scotland, Northern Ireland)	20
2	Australia	14
3	Germany	9
4	USA	7
5	India	6
	New Zealand	6
7	Canada	5
8	Colombia	3
9	Argentina	2
	France	2
	China	2
12	Chile	1
	Spain	1
	Netherlands	1
	Ghana	1

(Source: Analysis of schools' websites: February-March, 2016)

an international exchange programme in a country that has a very different culture and national language encourages the development of global mindedness in high school learners will be explored in this thesis. Only one school, *St Mary's, Waverley,* has an exchange agreement with another African country. The question needs to be asked: why do South Africa's exclusive schools not seek out exchange partnerships with schools in non-Western countries? Are international exchange programmes essentially marketing strategies, whereby schools can boast of sending their learners overseas to other similar exclusive English-speaking schools?

International exchanges: Private providers

In addition to school-to-school exchange partnerships, at least three other organisations manage international exchange programmes in South Africa. *The Chase Educational Foundation* (TCEF) arranges exchange placements for learners in schools in Argentina (TCEF, n.d.). In this survey, only *Michaelhouse* referred to using the organization on their website. *Friends of South Africa* (FSA), co-ordinates exchanges with schools throughout Germany. During their four-week December 2015 programme, 82 South African learners from 54 different schools visited Germany (FSA, 2015). Of the 54 schools, only 11 were independent schools, the rest were state schools. 33 of the participating schools were Afrikaans-medium, one was dual-medium and one was a German school. In addition to the cost of the international airfares, FSA charges a management fee of R5 000 per learner (FSA, 2015). Two schools, namely *Dainfern College* and *Epworth School for Girls,* mentioned sending their learners on *Rotary Youth Exchange* (RYE) programmes. The *RYE-Short-Term Programme* selects learners who are "academically above average, articulate, and demonstrate community leadership skills" (RYE, 2016) to act as South African ambassadors on their 6-8 week international exchange programmes.

Cultural or thematic tours

Cultural or thematic tours are usually led by two or three enthusiastic teachers, occur during school vacation time and have a particular school subject or extra-curricular focus. They are considerably more expensive than exchange programmes, as in addition to airfares, all accommodation and meals, in-country transportation and attraction entry costs have to be covered. Examples of cultural and thematic tours listed on the schools'

websites include: literary and drama tours of the USA (Washington and New York) and England (London); choral and music tours to Europe; French cultural and language immersion trip; life science and geography tour to the Galapagos Islands in Ecuador; natural science and technology tours to the USA, and business studies and economic tours of China.

Only *Durban Girls' College* cited using independent educational tour operators. The school advertises the *Experiment in International Living's: High School Summer Programmes* (World Learning, 2016), and the *Council on International Educational Exchanges: High School Summer Abroad* (CIEE, 2016) programmes. The programmes are open to high school learners who can afford the fees which for July 2016, range from US$4 000 – US$7 500, excluding international airfares and visa costs (CIEE, 2016; World Learning, 2016). To date, no learners have participated in these programmes (Hagspihl, 2016).

Sports tours

Sports tours are usually less expensive than cultural or thematic tours as learners are often either housed at the host school or billeted out to families of the host team members. Unlike most cultural or thematic tours, the nature of sports tours tends to encourage interaction with host nationals. Whether this leads to a greater appreciation of cultural diversity or an increase in global mindedness compared with cultural and thematic tours, will be investigated in this thesis. Table 5.13 depicts countries that host South African schools' sports tours.

In addition to traditional sports' tours, *St Mary's, Waverley* offer a tennis tour to watch Wimbledon and the US Open; and *Epworth School for Girls* has taken their learners on a sea kayaking adventure around Mauritius.

Table 5.13: Destination countries for South African schools' sports teams

	Country	Sports hosted
1	Argentina	Rugby
2	Australia	Cricket, Hockey
3	Belgium	Hockey
4	Brazil	Soccer
5	England	Cricket, Soccer
6	Holland	Hockey
7	Hungary	Water-polo
8	Malaysia	Netball, Hockey, Squash
9	Mozambique	Basketball, Soccer
10	New Zealand	Cricket
11	Serbia	Swimming, Water-polo
12	Singapore	Netball, Hockey, Squash
13	USA	Squash, Tennis
14	Zimbabwe	Cricket

-

(Source: Analysis of schools' websites: February-March, 2016)

Youth leadership summits

Participation in international youth leadership summits is usually limited to the academically top Grade 10 and 11 students and are either organized by schools or private organisations. Summits that are run by schools or consortiums of schools, such as the *Hwa Chong Asia-Pacific Young Leaders' Summit* in Singapore, the *Loudoun International Youth Leadership Summit* in the USA, and the *World Schools' Forum* based in Japan, usually attract considerable sponsorship from local businesses and organisations, so expenses are often limited to the international airfares. *Clifton College* and *Durban Girls' College* send delegations to the first two summits, while *St Alban's College* participates in the Japanese summit.

The *Global Young Leaders Conference* is an educational USA profit-based company that offers "leadership conferences" in the USA, China and Europe (Austria, Czech Republic and Germany) for fees of between US$3 095 – US$4 295 excluding airfares, in July 2016

(Envision EMI, 2016). For an additional US$1 095 - US$1 795 participants can add a week-long "cultural extension". Some schools run their own international leadership programmes, for example *Yeshiva College* annually takes a group of their Grade 10 learners to Israel for a leadership retreat.

International service projects

Five of the independent schools surveyed are members of the *Round Square* association of international schools*: Bridge House, Dainfern College, Stanford Lake College, St Cyprian's* and *St Stithian's Boys' College.* The *Round Square International Service Projects* bring learners from member schools from around the world to work in "international teams in some of the poorest parts of the world" (Round Square, 2016c). Current projects involve building or refurbishing local schools and community centres in Peru, Cambodia, India and South Africa. In 2015, the cost of participating in a two-week service programme was £1 150. Learners wishing to add an extra "leadership" week were charged a total of £1 600. Costs exclude airfares. *Round Square* has been criticized as being elitist and economically inaccessible to most South African learners (Cowling, 2015; De Boer, 2016; Hagspihl, 2016); however, for learners whose parents can afford the costs, the international experiences are well structured and have become substantially more culturally diverse in recent years (Wallace, 2016).

5.5 SUMMARY

School-based international tourism is a luxury available to only a tiny minority of South African learners. With the exception of *Friends of South Africa* which places more state learners than independent school learners in schools in Germany, most international educational tourism opportunities are arranged by the schools and are limited to independent schools that charge a minimum tuition fee of R54 000 pa in 2016.

International exchanges are the most common and least expensive of the types of IET opportunities, however, there are normally only a few places available per school for Grade 10 learners each year. Based on the content of the schools' websites, there is little

evidence to suggest that schools actively engage with the concept of global learning. The fact that the majority of exchange partners are English-speaking schools with similar educational histories and cultures supports this. Furthermore, discussions with exchange coordinators at some of the schools indicate that many schools do not actively facilitate reflection during or after the exchange experience.

School-managed youth leadership summits are generally a similar price to exchanges, but competition for places is even higher, with only the brightest two or three candidates per year being accepted. Leadership summits provide a forum for learners from around the world to engage with each other about global issues, so one would expect that participation would contribute positively to global learning.

Cultural and thematic tours are expensive but provide learners with a facilitated means of learning about a topic in a unique environment. Whether they encourage global learning more than exchanges or international sports tours will be addressed in the analysis of this thesis. An advantage of exchanges and international sports tours, compared with cultural or thematic tours, is that they both entail living with a host family or in a host boarding establishment, which may enhance global learning.

Participation in international service projects in the surveyed schools appears to be limited to only the *Round Square* member schools and to projects in South America and India. They are also expensive. It is hypothesized that active participation in a service project has the greatest potential to develop an awareness of other cultures and to contribute positively to the development of global mindedness.

Having considered the theories of international education, educational tourism, experiential learning and global learning to develop a conceptual model of international educational tourism, and having contextualized international educational tourism within the South African exclusive high school sector, the thesis now develops a global learning survey instrument in order to test the model and to determine whether global learning is indeed occurring as a result of international educational tourism.

CHAPTER 6: RESEARCH DESIGN

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter commences with a statement on the philosophical approach adopted in this thesis followed by a review of the research strategy. An international tourism and global learning survey instrument that is appropriate for use by South African high school learners is developed in order to test the thesis's hypotheses and to assess the conceptual model of international educational tourism that has been proposed. A pilot study identifies areas for refinement of the survey instrument. Following that the sampling strategy and data collection methods are explained. The chapter concludes with a discussion on the ethical considerations specific to undertaking research when children are the key respondents.

6.2 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

A positivist approach is adopted for this thesis. Historically much of the scholarship and research in the fields of international education, global learning and to a lesser extent educational tourism, has employed non-positivist paradigms. Anti-positivists often criticise positivism employing the rhetoric that proponents of the philosophy believe that "all complex human experiences can be quantifiably measured" (Engle, 2012:115). This represents a simplistic notion of the views held by positivist researchers. It is highly unlikely that any scholar of tourism or education, which are both intricately concerned with human behaviour and experiences, would uphold a strictly positivist ontology that all human behaviour can be reduced to a set of measurable factors. Furthermore, it would be difficult for any researcher in education or tourism to uphold the strictly "value-free" prerequisites of pure positivist research (Saunders *et al,* 2012:134) owing to the inter-personal nature of the practice of the two phenomena. However, as an epistemology that focuses on causality and the ability to develop generalisations (Saunders *et al*, 2012:140), adopting a positivist paradigm provides a means of providing empirical evidence to support the rich theoretical suppositions made by non-positivist scholars.

Reiter argues for the inclusion of more positivist research in social studies, stating that "positivist and non-positivist research complement each other" (Reiter, 2014:2). In a review of studies in international relations and gender, Reiter observed a marked increase in positivist studies since 2000. He contended that the benefits of quantitative positivist research include: the ability to "substantiate and provide statistically significant evidence to support phenomena"; the means by which commonly held perceptions can be critiqued, and that it aids in the "identification of new theoretical questions" (Reiter, 2014:11). Data obtained from the large number of people that can be surveyed using a positivist research design, increase the reliability of information collected by non-positivist methodologies such as interviews and ethnographies, which by their nature rely on much smaller sample sizes.

Considering that practitioners and theoreticians of international education are calling for rigorous empirical research to scrutinize the underpinning assumptions of the theory (Sidhau & Dall'Alba, 2012; Tarc *et al,* 2012a; Tarc *et al,* 2012b; Vande Berg *et al,* 2012), and that the main purpose of this thesis is to empirically test the assumption that global learning occurs as a consequence of international educational tourism, the adoption of a positivist paradigm is justified.

6.3 RESEARCH STRATEGY

A quantitative methodology employing a deductive approach is employed in this thesis in order to empirically test the theoretical proposition that international educational tourism facilitates global learning. A survey instrument is developed that employs a combination of exploratory, descriptive and explanatory questions in order to establish the type of IET opportunities that are available to learners in South African exclusive high schools; to develop profiles of learners who participate in such opportunities, and to establish any causal relationships between IET and global learning. The data collected also enables the appraisal and refinement of the conceptual model of international educational tourism that is proposed.

A cross-sectional analysis is employed involving the administration of a single questionnaire to Grade 11 learners at the end of their academic year.
Data collected from the survey instrument is analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics, using the IBM SPSS Statistics (23) software.

An overview of the terminology employed and the hypotheses are provided next.

6.3.1 Terminology

The term *globally minded* is deliberately used in the construction of the research hypotheses. The reason for this is in acknowledgment of the stages of global learning presented in Chapter Three (Figure 3.1) and to test the outcomes of the conceptual model of IET that was proposed in Chapter Four (Figure 4.3). When the term *globally aware* is used, it refers specifically to possessing the cognitive outcomes of IET and hence refers to the acquisition of knowledge. Being *globally minded* refers to the next stage of global learning and reflects the affective outcomes of the process and is represented by a change in attitude or way of thinking towards other cultures and the environment. Owing to the progressive nature of the global learning model, it is assumed that someone who is *globally minded* is also *globally aware.* This assumption is tested in the analysis.

The research hypotheses that were articulated in Chapter One are reproduced here for ease of reference.

6.3.2 Research hypotheses

H_1: Learners who have travelled internationally are more globally minded than those who have not.

H_2: Of those learners who have travelled internationally, those who have participated in an international educational tourism experience are more globally minded than those who have not.

H_3: Some types of IET are better suited to encouraging global learning than others.

6.4 DESIGN OF THE SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Questionnaires are commonly employed in tourism and educational research. They are used by Béneker *et al* (2013), Béneker *et al* (2014) and Hsu and Wang (2010) to assess global mindedness in high school children. Dale *et al* (2012) employ questionnaires to assess constraints on school tourism; while Li, Olsen and Frieze (2013) and Kim (2008) use them to identify motivating factors of student travel. In the field of international education, a number of studies have used questionnaires to establish the impact of study abroad on students (Chieffo & Griffiths, 2004; Deloach *et al,* 2015; DeMello, 2011; Kurt *et al*, 2013; Tarrant *et al,* 2014). Though dated, Sampson and Smith's (1957) *world-mindedness* scale and Hett's (1993) *global-mindedness* scale are two of the most often cited and applied questionnaires employed in international education research.

6.4.1 General design considerations

When designing a questionnaire to be used by South African Grade 11 high school learners, the following criteria were considered:

1. The wording of the questions had to be age appropriate, in other words understandable by a senior high school learner.
2. The questionnaire needed to be able to be completed within half an hour. This time constraint represents the minimum time of a single school period in South Africa.
3. The size of the survey could not exceed four A4 size pages. This was to allow each survey to be printed back-to-back on a single A3 size page, in order to eliminate the possibility of losing any pages during collection of the papers.

6.4.2 Overview of the sections of the survey instrument

In line with the observation of Deardorff who states that "assessment tools must be aligned with stated objectives and selected based on 'fitness of purpose', rather than for reasons of convenience" (Deardorff, 2014b:9), a survey instrument comprising exploratory,

descriptive and explanatory questions was developed. The questionnaire incorporates the following six parts:

1. Learner demographics (questions 1-3).
2. Potentially confounding and moderating variables (questions 4-8).
3. Independent variables describing international travel (questions 9-12).
4. Travel curiosity factor (question 13).
5. Global awareness measure (question 14 and 15)
6. Global learning indicators (question 16). This is sub-divided into three sections:
    - *Facilitation and the pedagogical requirements of global learning* (questions 16.1-16.6).
    - *"Brain-drain"* (questions 16.7-16.8). (These two questions are not indicators of global learning, but were positioned here for convenience of questionnaire design).
    - *Global mindedness scale* (questions 16.9-16.29).

The survey instrument is included as Appendix D. Detailed explanations of the various sections of the questionnaire follow.

6.4.3 Learner demographics

Questions 1 – 3 enable the development of profiles of the learners who participate in the survey. Results of the nominal categories for gender, race, country of birth and home language provide descriptive data on the diversity of the study population. Race is specifically included because of South Africa's racialized past and ongoing racial tensions. For ethical reasons which will be discussed at the end of this chapter, the survey is anonymous.

6.4.4 Potentially confounding and moderating variables

Confounding variables have the potential to influence the relationship between

international educational tourism and global learning and thus need to be identified prior to analysing the data. It is proposed that the studying of a third language or geography for Matric, as well as participating in community service projects and taking an active interest in the news are potentially confounding variables because they all indicate, to various degrees, an interest in other cultures, which in turn might influence the decision to participate in international tourism. In contrast, achieving highly in school-based assessments and gender may be moderating variables since they are more likely to influence the strength of the relationship between international tourism and global mindedness but are unlikely to explain the nature of the relationship between the two variables.

Details of the research that informs each question in this section of the questionnaire are included in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1: Questions that identify potentially confounding and moderating variables
Note: CV – assumed confounding variable; MV – assumed moderating variable

Question	Variable being tested	Informing research
1 MV	**Girls** are more globally minded than boys.	Hett, 1993; Béneker *et al*, 2014.
4 CV	Learners who study a **third language** as a matric subject are more globally minded than those who do not.	self-generated
5 CV	Learners who study **geography** as a matric subject are more globally minded than those who do not.	Béneker *et al*, 2014.
6 MV	Learners who **achieve highly** in school-based academic assessments are more globally minded than those who have low academic Grades.	Adjutant *et al,* 2014; Béneker *et al*, 2013; Béneker *et al*, 2014; Chieffo & Griffiths 2004; Deloach *et al*, 2015.
7 CV	Learners who watch the **news** are more globally minded than those who do not.	Adjutant *et al,* 2014; Holm & Farber, 2002.
8 CV	Learners who participate in outreach or **community service** programmes are more globally minded than those who do not.	Lyons *et al*, 2012; Zinser, 2012.

6.4.5 Independent variables describing international travel

The underpinning assumption of this thesis is that children who have spent time in another country will be more globally minded than those who have not. Responses to the following questions provide an exploration of the international destinations to which learners have lived in or travelled to, as well as a description of the types of international educational tourism opportunities South African learners at exclusive high schools are exposed to (see Table 6.2).

Question 9 aims to identify whether age and school attendance in another country has an influence on global learning. **Questions 10** and **11** provide data that describe the international travel behaviour of learners. It has been suggested that the more culturally different a location is from what a person is familiar with, the more intercultural or global learning will occur (Chieffo & Griffiths, 2004; Gibson *et al*, 2008; McKeown in Tarrant *et al*, 2014; Van 'T Klooster, 2014), a supposition which equates with the concept that learning is facilitated when one moves out of one's "comfort zone" (Lilley, 2014). **Question 10** attempts to address this by determining whether visiting some continents encourages more global learning than others. The aim of **question 11** is to assess whether there is any relationship between the total number of countries visited and global learning.

Testing the hypotheses

Using the responses generated in **question 11**, and by dividing the study population into two categories, namely: learners who have travelled internationally and those who have not, the first hypothesis of the research will be tested against the global learning measures (see sections 6.4.7 and 6.4.8).

Similarly, the results of **question 12** enable the second hypothesis to be tested, namely of those learners who have travelled internationally, those who have participated in IET will be more globally minded than those who have not.

Question12 specifically focuses on different forms of school-based international educational tourism. The purpose of this question is to describe the type of IET that are available to learners and to differentiate between the different types in terms of their ability

Table 6.2: Survey questions related to international travel

9. If you have you ever **ATTENDED SCHOOL** in another country please complete this table.

Country	**Your age when there**	**Approximate time spent at school** (months)

10. How many TIMES have you visited each of the following continents?

		Never	**Once**	**Twice**	**3 times**	**4 times**	**5 or more times**
1	Other African countries						
2	North America						
3	South America						
4	Europe (including UK)						
5	Asia						
6	Australasia (including New Zealand)						

11. In TOTAL, how many **COUNTRIES** have you ever spent more than one day _____

12a) Have you ever travelled **OUTSIDE** South Africa **WITHOUT** your parents? _____

b) If your answer was YES, please complete this table:

	Reason (eg: school exchange, sports or cultural tour, Rotary, etc)	**Country/countries visited**	**Approximate number of weeks**
1			
2			
3			
4			

to facilitate global learning and in doing so, to test the third hypothesis. The results of this part of the analysis will also be corroborated with the results of the schools website survey discussed in the previous chapter, and to test the experiential component of the proposed conceptual model.

6.4.6 Travel curiosity factor

The term *travel curiosity factor* is a construct of this thesis, but is based on the work of the Finnish Agency for Mobility (CIMO, in de Oliveira Andreotti *et al,* 2015), Deardorff and Jones (2012), Lilly (2010) and Pitman *et al* (2012), who all identify curiosity as a prerequisite behavioural trait for successful experiential learning in a different culture. In addition, Lilly (2010:8) identifies the desire to move out of one's *comfort zone* as another characteristic, and Li *et al* (2013:76) use the term *neophilia* to describe "a novelty seeking personality" that is more often present in students who choose to study abroad than those who do not.

To determine whether high school learners who choose to participate in IET also share these characteristics, a travel curiosity factor has been developed. Seven questions related to what learners like to do whilst on holiday were generated and are presented in Table 6.3. Of those questions, **questions 13.2 – 13.5** plus **13.7** are used to calculate a travel curiosity score. It is suggested that **questions 13.1** and **13.6** provide insight into learners' behaviour, but are not necessarily indicative of whether or not a learner will be curious about the culture to which they have travelled. Using a, 5-point Likert-scale, with 1 representing *strongly disagree* and 5 representing *strongly agree,* a score ranging from 5 to 25 is calculated. A score of 5 represents the least curious personality and 25 the most curious. (**Question 13.2** is presented as a reverse statement to encourage careful reading of the questions).

The intention of calculating a travel curiosity factor is to correlate it with the global awareness and global mindedness measures, based on the assumption that learners with higher travel curiosity factors will also be more globally concerned. The desire to learn has been proposed in the conceptual model of IET as one of the requirements for successful

global learning to occur. If it can be demonstrated that learners who score highly in terms of travel curiosity also demonstrate high global learning scores, then this requirement of the conceptual model can be confirmed.

Table 6.3: Questions used to determine a travel curiosity factor

When I'm on holiday I …		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
13.1	like to shop in the international brand stores.					
13.2	prefer to eat food that I am familiar with rather than local food.					
13.3	like to visit places that most tourists DON'T go to.					
13.4	like to visit museums and historical or cultural sites.					
13.5	enjoy talking to local people.					
13.6	enjoy making friends with people from similar backgrounds to me who are also on holiday.					
13.7	try and learn how to greet people in the local language.					

6.4.7 Global awareness measure

In order to test the hypotheses of this thesis, quantitative analyses using inferential statistics are undertaken. To achieve this, three dependent variables are developed:

1. Global awareness (GA) measure.
2. Global mindedness (GM) measure.
3. Global learning (GL) measure – combining the GA and GM scores.

Although global learning theory is underpinned by the assumption that learning occurs as a progression and hence a globally minded person will also be globally aware, this has not been empirically tested. By dividing the dependent variables into a GA and GM measure, that assumption can be tested. Furthermore, using three measures of global learning should enable validation of the constructs and identify the most useful one for inclusion in the conceptual model that has been proposed.

In keeping with the assumption that global awareness refers, in part, to possessing knowledge of global issues, ten questions have been developed. Apart from the first question, all questions refer to events that happened or were ongoing during 2015 and were receiving considerable coverage in the South African media. The questions, together with their answers and explanation for their selection, are recorded in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4: Global awareness questions

	Question ➢ **reason for inclusion**	**Answer**
14.1	*How many countries share a border with South Africa?* ➢ Indicates an awareness of South Africa's geo-political neighbours.	6
14.2	*Who is the current leader of the DA (Democratic Alliance) Party?* ➢ Awareness of local political issues.	Mmusi Maimane
14.3	*Which region of Africa (north, south, east, west, central) has the most Ebola cases?* ➢ Awareness of regional African humanitarian issues.	West
14.4	*In which African country have hundreds of school girls been abducted?* ➢ Awareness of regional African gender and human rights issues. Particularly relevant as the girls are a similar age to the study participants so participants might empathize with them.	Nigeria
14.5	*From which country do MOST of the refugees / migrants in Europe come?* ➢ Awareness of socio-political issues, religious intolerance, human rights.	Syria
14.6	*In which Asian country did earthquakes kill thousands of people this year?* ➢ Awareness of environmental and humanitarian issues.	Nepal
14.7	*Which former Olympic athlete announced they were transgender this year?* ➢ Awareness of gender issues, but also included as a counter to questions 14.3-14.6 which deal with large-scale human suffering.	Caitlyn / Bruce Jenner
14.8	*Which country has the most people online?* ➢ Awareness of global ITC trends.	China
14.9	*On which planet in our solar system has water recently been discovered?* ➢ Awareness of extra-global environmental issues.	Mars
14.10	*In which country were 15 fossilised skeletons of a new species, that is considered to be an ancestor to Humans, discovered this year?* ➢ Awareness of a national palaeological event that has a significant global impact.	South Africa

A correct answer is allocated 1 point and an overall global awareness score of between 0 - 10 is calculated, with 10 being the highest score possible. The global awareness score represents one of the dependent variables that is used in the statistical analysis.

Question 15 is included to obtain a snap-shot of what South African learners consider are the most pressing global problems. The responses are used to compare with the results of the *Humanitarian Index* (Aurura Prize, 2016), discussed in Chapter 3. Specifically, responses are compared with responses to question 16.17: "*Really there is nothing that I can do about the problems of the world",* to determine whether the "compassion gap" identified by the *Humanitarian Index* (Aurura Prize, 2016:15) is also a feature of South African learners.

6.4.8 Factors related to global learning

This section of the survey instrument comprises three parts, all of which require a response on a 5-point Likert-scale, with 1 representing *strongly disagree* and 5 representing *strongly agree.* A 5-point scale was deliberately selected in order to enable respondents to record a neutral stance on an issue. Reverse statements are included to encourage careful reading of each question. When calculating aggregated scores, a response of 1 is assigned 1 point and a response of 5 is assigned 5 points. (Point scores for reverse statements are the opposite of regular statements). An explanation of the three parts of this section of the survey instrument follows.

.Part 1: Facilitation and the pedagogical requirements of global learning

One of the requirements of the conceptual model of IET that has been proposed is the need for facilitation of the global learning process. Asking learners to identify the pedagogical process employed during past IET experiences is difficult. Firstly, learners may not be able to recall whether or not experiences were facilitated, and secondly IET is often not overtly educational. For these reasons, a set of questions were developed that aim to elicit learners' interpretation of the manner in which they are taught within the classroom. It was hypothesised that if it could be demonstrated that learners who are exposed to classroom practices which employ facilitation to encourage critical thinking and

open-mindedness possess higher levels of global mindedness, then the proposition that facilitation be a requirement of effective IET could be confirmed. Table 6.5 records the survey items for this section of the questionnaire.

Table 6.5: Questions identifying the role of facilitation and pedagogical requirements of global learning

	Question	Reason for inclusion
16.1	Our teachers encourage us to ask difficult questions in class.	Teaching encourages critical and creative thinking.
16.2*	Our teachers encourage discussions on sensitive topics like race, religion and politics.	Teaching encourages critical and cross-cultural thinking.
16.3	I feel comfortable expressing my opinions in classroom discussions.	Learning environment encourages communication.
16.4*	When we work in groups, our teachers choose our group members.	Teaching has the potential to encourage cross-cultural communication and collaboration.
16.5	I prefer doing group assignments with people of a similar background to me.	[**Reverse statement**] Learner is open-minded and comfortable with cross-cultural collaboration.
16.6	Our teachers should focus ONLY on topics that will be tested or examined.	[**Reverse statement**] Learner is open-minded and curious about issues outside the curriculum.

***** Questions 16.2 and 16.4 are adapted from Béneker et al (2014). The other questions are self-generated but informed by the work of Lilley (2014); P21 (2015); Tarrant (2010); UNESCO (2015a), and Zinser (2012).

Collectively, the first four questions represent pedagogical practices which facilitate learning. Learners need to be encouraged to question and debate sensitive and complex issues. They need to be in an environment in which they feel comfortable expressing themselves. This latter point extends to feeling comfortable working in groups of learners who are not necessarily their close friends.

Questions 16.5 and **16.6** give an indication of the *open-mindedness* of learners to learning about new ideas. It is hypothesized that very little global learning will occur when learners are close-minded to new experiences. These questions correlate with the *travel*

curiosity factor and relate to a second requirement of the IET model, namely educational tourists need to possess a desire to learn in order for global learning to occur.

Part 2: "Brain-drain"

International travel has been criticized for encouraging "brain-drain" from developing countries (Fahey & Kenway, 2014; Hagspihl, 2015). Furthermore, the exodus of skilled professionals from Africa has been described by former South African president Thabo Mbeki as "frightening" (ENCA, 2015). While an analysis of this complex phenomenon falls outside the scope of this thesis, the following two questions have been developed to determine whether participation in international travel contributes to the desire to study internationally, and/or top leave the country once qualified:

16.7 *I would like to study at an international university;* and
16.8 *I plan on leaving South Africa once I am qualified.*

Regardless of whether or not learners have travelled internationally, the results of **questions 16.7** and **16.8** will provide insight with regards to the opinions of learners in exclusive schools regarding their future prospects in South Africa.

Part 3: Global mindedness scale

Collectively, these questions comprise the major survey instrument of the thesis and represent the dependent variable: "global mindedness". Most of the questions incorporated in the global mindedness questionnaire are adopted from the *integrated world mindedness scale* (IWMS) developed by Béneker *et al* (2013), which, as discussed in Chapter Three, combines elements of Sampson and Smith's (1957) *world-mindedness scale* (WMS) and Hett's (1993) *global-mindedness scale* (GMS). All the individual items of the *IWMS* have been validated in previous studies (Béneker *et al,* 2014:15; Vassar, 2006). In a statistical investigation of the structural dimensions of the WMS and GMS, Vassar demonstrated convergent validity of the two scales (Vassar, 2006:79) and also confirmed the multidimensional characteristics of both scales (Vassar, 2006:77). The latter point lends credence to the complex nature of the concept of "global mindedness" and the difficulties associated with defining the construct. Adopting the *IWMS* of Béneker *et al*

(2013) for this study is further supported by the fact that it was developed specifically for use with 16-17 year old learners (Béneker *et al,* 2013; Béneker *et al,* 2014).

As a point of departure from the work of Béneker *et al* (2013; 2014), is the designation of categories from which items are selected for inclusion in the survey instrument. Béneker *et al* were interested in comparing geography curricular, consequently their four categories of questions are informed by a geographical world view (Béneker *et al,* 2014:15). In contrast, and in recognition of the more recent proposals made by UNESCO regarding global citizenship education (UNESCO, 2015a), the six categories of global learning identified in sustainable development goal number 4.7 (UNESCO, 2015a:17) form the framework for item selection in this thesis. None of the earlier survey instruments included questions related to gender equality, so these questions are all self-generated. The categories and their associated items are listed in Table 6.6 while an explanation of the self-generated statements is presented in Table 6.7.

By assigning a value of 1 to 5 for each response to each item, after correcting for reverse statements, a *global mindedness* (GM) score ranging from 21 (21 x 1) to 105 (21 x 5) is calculated, with 21 representing the least globally minded and 105 representing the most globally minded score. As mentioned previously, the GM score will be correlated with the GA score and represents one of the three dependent variables against which the hypotheses are tested.

Table 6.6: Categories of the global mindedness survey instrument and their associated questions

Categories adopted from UNESCO's *2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.* (UNESCO, 2015b).

	UNESCO Category	Question	Question informed by
1	Sustainable development: social justice	16.13	Adopted from Béneker *et al,* 2013; Béneker *et al,* 2014; DeMello, 2011; Hett, 1993.
		16.16	Self-generated
		16.17	Adapted from: Béneker *et al,* 2013; Béneker *et al,* 2014; DeMello, 2011; Hett, 1993.
		16.18	Adopted from Béneker *et al,* 2013; Béneker *et al,* 2014; DeMello, 2011; Hett, 1993.
2	Sustainable development: environmental stewardship	16.10	Adopted from Tarrant *et al*. 2014; Stern *et al*. 1999.
		16.19	Adapted from: Béneker *et al*. 2013; Béneker *et al,* 2014; Sampson & Smith, 1957.
		16.24	Adopted from: Tarrant *et al,* 2014; *Stern et al,* 1999.
3	Human rights	16.12	Adopted from: Béneker *et al*. 2013; Béneker *et al*. 2014; DeMello, 2011; Hett, 1993.
		16.15	Adopted from: Béneker *et al,* 2013; Béneker *et al,* 2014; Sampson & Smith, 1957.
		16.25	Self-generated
4	Gender equality	16.14	Self-generated
		16.21	Self-generated
		16.27	Self-generated
5	Culture of peace and non-violence	16.9	Adopted from: Béneker *et al*. 2013; Béneker *et al*. 2014; Sampson & Smith, 1957.
		16.22	Adopted from: Béneker *et al,* 2013; Béneker *et al,* 2014; Sampson & Smith, 1957.
		16.23	Adopted from: Béneker *et al*, 2013; Béneker *et al*. 2014; Sampson & Smith, 1957.
		16.26	Self-generated
6	Cultural diversity and intercultural understanding	16.11	Self-generated
		16.20	Adapted from: Béneker *et al,* 2013; Béneker *et al,* 2014; DeMello, 2011; Hett, 1993.
		16.28	Self-generated
		16.29	Adapted from: Hett, 1993.

Table 6.7: Motivation for self-generated statements in survey instrument

	Question	Motivation for its development
16.11	I can greet, correctly, someone in at least one of the Black South African languages.	South Africa has 11 official languages. All the schools in this thesis have English as the medium of instruction. An ability to greet in another language is a first step in embracing local diversity.
16.14	All girls, regardless of their culture or religion, should receive the same education as boys.	In light of the fact that there is gender parity in education in only 2 out of 35 Sub-Saharan counties (UNICEF, 2015), this is an urgent humanitarian problem.
16.16	All South Africans should do one-year of compulsory community service once they have completed school or their studies.	This is an indication of personal commitment to serve and thus a measure of Tarrant's (2010:439) responsible global citizen.
16.21	Teenage girls who become pregnant should be allowed to stay at school.	Over 20 000 pregnancies were reported by the Department of Basic Education in 2014 (SABC, 2015). A willingness to help pregnant girls is a measure of cosmopolitan hospitality.
16.25	Same-sex couples should NOT be allowed to marry.	Despite South Africa's progressive constitution, the LGBTI community is often prejudiced against (Scott, 2015). This reverse statement is used as a measure of open-mindedness and tolerance of diversity.
16.26	Prayers at school assemblies should reflect all the religions of learners in the school.	Many schools still only read Christian prayers, despite this being anti-constitutional (De Vos, 2015) and not reflective of their learner population. This item assesses religious tolerance.
16.27	Women who dress sexily are asking to be hit on / flirted with by men.	Though there are no reliable statistics, sexual harassment is considered rife in South Africa (Williams, 2014). This reverse statement assesses awareness of women's rights.
16.28	I would date someone of another race.	There are numerous claims that racial transformation is not occurring in South Africa and that racism is still prevalent. This question determines the extent to which learners still identify in terms of race, despite the fact that all learners will have been born after the end of apartheid.

6.5 PILOT STUDY

As has been discussed, a large component of the global mindedness section of the survey instrument has been previously used in research applied to European high school learners

(Béneker *et al,* 2013; Béneker *et al,* 2014) and as such, many of the individual items have been tested and validated. However, owing to cultural differences in language use for example, as well as owing to the fact that some of the questionnaire items were generated specifically for use in this thesis, a pilot study was undertaken using a first draft of the survey instrument.

Once ethical clearance had been received in accordance with the exact same criteria as for the major study (which will be discussed later in this chapter), the questionnaire was given to 67 Grade 10 girls attending the same girls-only school. The choice of learners was for convenience owing to the researcher being employed at the school. As the major study was to involve Grade 11 learners, testing the survey instrument on Grade 10 learners, who are generally one year younger than learners in Grade 11, was considered a sensible strategy as it would ensure that wording of questions was comprehensible and the time taken to complete the survey would be comparable. All the participants completed the pilot study at the same time in the same venue.

Prior to completing the questionnaire the girls were informed of the following:

1. Their ethical right to choose not to participate in the survey, or to withdraw from the survey at any time.
2. The reasons for the pilot study. In this regard, girls were asked to consider the following when completing the questionnaire:
    - Time taken to complete it.
    - Ambiguity of the wording or meaning of any of the questions.
    - Anything else that they would like to alter in the survey.

The girls were encouraged to make any changes or highlight any ambiguities directly on their script and to record the time taken to complete the survey.

On completion and collection of the survey questionnaires, the researcher then facilitated a feedback discussion with the girls regarding the survey. Many of the global mindedness survey items generated considerable debate and discussion, which from an educational

perspective was very enlightening. In terms of the purpose of the pilot study, the following modifications to the first draft of the survey instrument were made:

1. The category *Indian* was added to **question 1** as many Indian learners did not relate to the concept of being *Asian*. This is in line with protocol for the South African Mathematics and Science Olympiads in which learners participate. It also reflects the apartheid history when South Africans were divided into: Black, White, Coloured or Indian racial categories.
2. The word *culture* was replaced with the word *race* for **questions 16.12, 16.20** and **16.28.** Learners were unsure of the meaning of the word *culture* and felt much more comfortable using *race.* Whilst acknowledging that the two words have different meanings, the survey instrument is designed to assess tolerance of social diversity, so it was felt that the end result of the survey would not be jeopardized by changing the words. Again, the learners' responses reflect South Africa's racialised society.
3. The phrasing of some of the items in **question 14** was modified.
4. **Question 15** was added as a new question following the group discussion after the pilot study.
5. The phrasing of some of the items in **question 16** was modified.

The researcher also observed that despite the survey being anonymous, some of the learners had been so conditioned to score highly on written assessments that they tried to collaborate to answer the *global awareness* questions (**question 14**), rendering that dependent variable invalid. This was noted in order to request that teachers who administered the final survey did not allow their learners to talk to each other.

6.6 SAMPLING FRAMES AND DATA COLLECTION

Two sampling frames were employed for this research:

1. To select South African high schools that were most likely to offer international educational tourism opportunities, and
2. To select learners *within those schools* to whom the survey instrument could be administered.

A limitation of employing sampling frames is that their databases may be incomplete, inaccurate or the information out of date (Edwards *et al* in Saunders *et al*, 2012:263). Additionally, and specific to this study, there may be cases of schools that fall outside of the sampling frame that offer IET. The sampling frames that were employed provide a purposive, systematic approach that together covers the majority of schools that offer IET and learners who participated in IET, and thus may be considered representative of the nature and scope of IET in exclusive independent South African high schools.

6.6.1 School selection

Sampling frame criteria

Owing to the costs involved with international travel and supported by the results of the exploratory website survey of exclusive South African schools discussed in the previous chapter, the sampling frame that was developed (see section 5.4.2) was refined using the following criteria:

- All South African high schools that are members of *ISASA* and that charged annual tuition fees of over R54 000 per annum in 2015.
- Of those schools, only schools that follow the *IEB* (Independent Examinations Board) curriculum.

In total this sampling frame resulted in 47 schools located in six of the nine provinces of South Africa, all of which teach in the medium of English. Restricting the sampling frame to *IEB* schools removed any extraneous influences on global learning that could result from different curricula.

School recruitment

In the beginning of October, 2015, an advertorial was placed in the *ISASA* weekly electronic bulletin informing all schools of the impending research and inviting them to participate. The sampling frame was not mentioned in the advertorial. The advertorial

received a zero response, but may have helped when the schools were individually contacted.

Each of the head of school's personal assistants at the 47 schools was then telephoned to inform them of the research and to request permission to speak to or email the principal of the school to explain the study further. Apart from one principal, all 46 others were "in a meeting".

Each school principal was emailed an explanation of the study and a request to include his or her learners in the survey (see Appendix E). When a reply was not received, a follow-up email was sent a week later (see Appendix F).

Permission to participate was granted from 16 schools located in five provinces, representing a participation rate of 34% of the total population of exclusive South African high schools that were identified using the sampling frame. Owing to the ethical requirements of anonymity of this study, the schools are not named. Two more schools indicated their willingness to participate but only at the start of the 2016 academic year. For the sake of uniformity in terms of the learners' experiences, those schools were not included in the research. Details of the participating schools are recorded in Table 6.8.

Only the Eastern Cape is not represented in terms of the sampling frame criteria. The bias towards schools from KwaZulu Natal may be owing to the fact that the researcher is employed within a KwaZulu Natal school, which may have encouraged principals from KwaZulu Natal schools to participate in the study.

6.6.2 Learner selection

Owing to curriculum constraints, the majority of international exchange opportunities occur during the Grade 10 academic year in South Africa. Other forms of IET, such as thematic tours, occur throughout the high school years (Grades 8-12). Therefore, in order to survey the largest possible number of learners who could had experienced some form of international travel, learners in Grade 11 were selected to be the study population.

Surveying Grade 12 learners would have yielded greater numbers of learners who had travelled internationally, however, it is unlikely that permission would have been granted from the principals for this, owing to Grade 12 being the final year of study with learners focused on school-leaving examinations. Furthermore, when the survey instrument was administered during the last two weeks in October and first two weeks of November, the final *IEB* examinations were already in progress.

All Grade 11 learners at each of the 16 participating schools were invited to participate in the study.

Table 6.8: Schools whose learners participated in this study

	School Pseudonym	Girl/Boy/ Co-ed	Number of participants	Province
1	School A	Boy	90	KwaZulu Natal
2	School B	Girl	69	KwaZulu Natal
3	School C	Girl	90	KwaZulu Natal
4	School D	Co-ed	92	Mpumalanga
5	School E	Co-ed	99	Gauteng
6	School F	Girl	51	KwaZulu Natal
7	School G	Boy	78	KwaZulu Natal
8	School H	Boy	100	KwaZulu Natal
9	School I	Girl	73	KwaZulu Natal
10	School J	Girl	92	KwaZulu Natal
11	School K	Co-ed	67	Western Province
12	School L	Girl	35	Western Province
13	School M	Boy	111	Gauteng
14	School N	Girl	24	Gauteng
15	School O	Co-ed	53	Mpumalanga
16	School P	Co-ed	28	Limpopo

6.6.3 Data collection

Over the four weeks during the end of the 2015 academic year, the 16 participating schools administered the survey to their Grade 11 learners. Each school was provided with guidelines regarding the conditions under which the questionnaires were to be completed and the responsible teachers were asked to sign to confirm that they had complied with all the ethical and administrative criteria of the research (see Appendix G). The researcher delivered and collected all scripts from the KwaZulu Natal, Limpopo and Mpumalanga schools and arranged for the couriering of scripts to and from Gauteng and the Western Cape. A total of 1479 questionnaires were requested from the schools and 1180 were returned, representing a return rate of 79.8%. Of the returned scripts a further 27 were spoilt, resulting in a final return rate of 78.0% and a total research population of 1152 learners.

6.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical clearance for this research was obtained from the *Research Ethics Committee* of the *Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences* at the University of Pretoria before any data were collected. To comply with the committee's ethical criteria, an introductory and explanatory email was sent to all participating school principals (see Appendix E). Principals had to sign an informed consent document giving permission for their school to participate in the research and stating that all participant leaners would be fully briefed on their rights and the nature of the study (see Appendix G).

Owing to the nature of the survey instrument, the fact that it is anonymous and no potentially harmful questions are asked of the learners, parental permission was deemed unnecessary. Furthermore, since international educational tours form part of the schools' co-curricular activities, they are subject to regular evaluations as part of the normal school assessment process, for which parental permission is not required. A further challenge to acquiring parental consent arises because many learners are weekly or termly borders and thus cannot conveniently get their parents to sign consent forms. Despite these considerations, the school principals were requested to notify all parents of the survey via their school communicator (usually a weekly electronic bulletin) and to inform parents that they could contact the researcher if they did not wish their child to participate in the survey,

or if they required further information about the research. No parents contacted the researcher.

Invoking their role of *in loco parentis,* principals were assumed to act in the best interests of their learners and to ensure that all participants fully understood their rights and the nature of the survey instrument and its contents. Before participating in the survey, all Grade 11 learners were informed that:

- Participation was voluntary.
- The survey was anonymous and that learners would not be able to be identified by their teachers, their school or the researcher.
- The name of their school would not be mentioned in the study.
- They could withdraw from completing the survey at any time.
- The survey formed part of a doctoral research project.

The ethical challenges associated with undertaking research with children are often cited as a reason why so little research on children occurs (Poria & Timothy, 2014). By employing an anonymous questionnaire and ensuring that children understand their rights and the researcher's responsibilities, children are able to participate in studies that do not harm or take advantage of them. Survey instruments that are presented in a format that is very similar to that which learners are accustomed to in the scope of their school-based assessment programmes further reduces any potential anxiety. A limitation of using anonymous surveys is that the research is restricted to cross-sectional analyses, as some form of identification is necessary for longitudinal research on learner development.

6.8 SUMMARY

In designing the research for this thesis two pilot studies were undertaken. The first was an exploratory website survey of independent schools in KwaZulu Natal, undertaken in August 2015, to determine the annual tuition fees that are associated with offering international educational tourism. From this analysis, two sampling frames were developed:

1. For selecting school websites to analyse for IET content, in order to describe the type of international educational tourism opportunities that are available to learners. The websites of 67 independent schools were analysed.
2. For selecting participating schools in which the survey instrument could be administered. A total of 47 schools met the criteria of that sampling frame.

The second pilot study involved the testing of the survey instrument on 69 Grade 10 learners at the end of September, 2015. The results of that test led to a refinement of the survey instrument.

The survey instrument was administered between the end of October and beginning of November, 2015. A total of 1479 questionnaires were sent to 16 schools in five provinces, of which 1152 were returned as useable. The analysis of these surveys is the focus of the next chapter.

CHAPTER 7: FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the data gathered from application of the survey instrument are presented and analysed in the following sequence:

1. Description of the demographic profiles and international travel experience of the learners who participated in the study.
2. Presentation and analysis of the types of international educational tourism opportunities that learners have participated in.
3. Determination of the reliability and validity of the global learning measures.
4. Presentation of the extent of the learners' global learning and their perceptions of the most pressing global problems.
5. Testing of the three primary hypotheses of the thesis.
6. Identification of potentially confounding and moderating variables of global learning.
7. Testing the conceptual model of international educational tourism.
8. Testing the notion that participation in international travel encourages "brain drain".

7.2 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILES OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

A total of 1152 Grade 11 learners from 16 exclusive high schools in five provinces across South Africa participated in this study. The average age of the learners was 17 years and 6 months.

7.2.1 Gender and race

Although South Africa's first democratic election was held 21 years ago, racial transformation within the country's exclusive high schools is not yet reflective of the national population. A summary of the research participants based on gender and racial groups is presented in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1: Learner demographics based on gender and race

(n = 1098)

		Asian	Black	Coloured	Indian	White	Total
Female	*Number*	*9*	*121*	*21*	*45*	*376*	*572*
	Percentage	0.8	11.0	1.9	4.1	34.2	52.1
Male	*Number*	*10*	*88*	*15*	*32*	*381*	*526*
	Percentage	0.9	8.0	1.4	2.9	34.7	47.9
Total	*Number*	*19*	*209*	*36*	*77*	*757*	*1098*
	Percentage	1.7	19.0	3.3	7.0	68.9	100

35 learners did not specify the racial group to which they belong and 24 omitted their gender. Of the learners who did not specify their race or gender, five specified neither, resulting in a total of 54 missing cases. Just over two thirds (68.9%) of all the learners are white. Slightly less than one fifth (19.0%) of the learners are black, while collectively, Indian, Asian and coloured learners represent 12.0% of the sample population.

Learners are divided fairly evenly by gender, with 52.1% being female and 47.9% male.

If one considers the national demographical statistics for the 15-19 year old cohort, in which the participants of this research fall, it becomes very apparent that learners in South Africa's exclusive schools are not proportionally representative of the greater population (see Table 7.2). (Note that *Statistics South Africa* does not differentiate between Asian and Indian in their demographic classification).

Although white South African learners comprise only 5.9% of the total population of 15-19 year olds in the country, they make up 68.9% of the exclusive school sample population. In other words, there are 11.7 times more white learners in exclusive schools than there would be if school populations were proportionately representative of the country. In contrast, black South African learners are under-represented by 4.4 times, with only 19.0% of the sample population comprising black learners, despite 83.5% of the 15-19 year old national cohort being black. There are 4.6 times more Indian and Asian learners, and 2.6 times less coloured learners in the exclusive schools sampled than would be expected if

the schools reflected South Africa's racial demographics. Clearly the country's exclusive schools have disproportionately more white, Indian and Asian learners than black and coloured learners (see Figure 7.1). This observation supports the literature that exclusive schools are elitist and cater to the demands made by the parents of the dominant social class (Epstein, 2014; Kenway &Fahey, 2014; Tate, 2013; Weis, 2014; Williams, 2013). It also supports the contention made earlier in this thesis (see section 5.3), that in South Africa "class" perpetuates social divisions along racial lines in many of these schools.

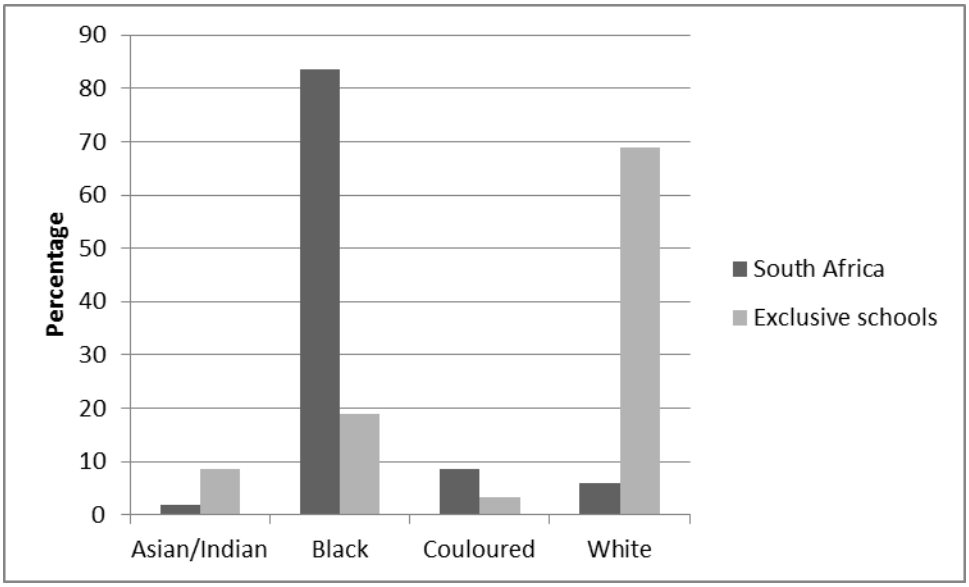
Table 7.2: South African population estimates of the 15-19 year old cohort, according to gender and race, for mid-year 2014

		Black	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Female	*Number*	*2 167 352*	*224 625*	*50 601*	*150 817*	*2 593 395*
	Percentage	41.5	4.3	0.9	2.9	49.7
Male	*Number*	*2 190 632*	*226 492*	*51 007*	*156 034*	*2 624 166*
	Percentage	42.0	4.3	1.0	3.0	50.3
Total	*Number*	*4 357 984*	*451 117*	*101 609*	*306 851*	*5 217 560*
	Percentage	83.5	8.6	1.9	5.9	100

(Source: Derived from *Statistics South Africa*, 2014:9)

In the sampled schools, there are slightly more female learners (52.1%) than the national proportion (49.7%) and conversely, slightly less male learners (47.9%) compared with 50.3% nationally.

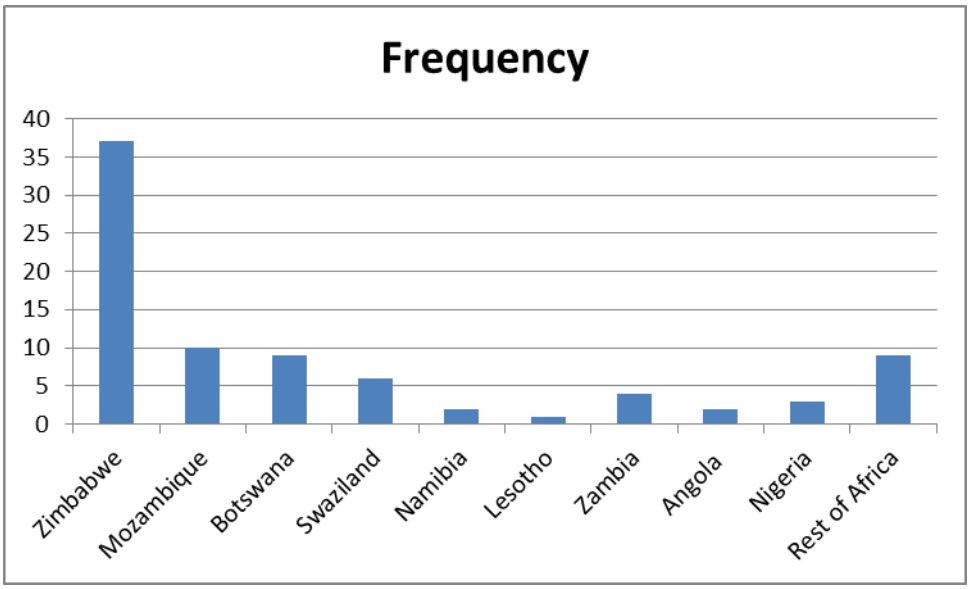
Figure 7.1: Racial representation of South African learners in exclusive schools compared with the national proportions of 15-19 year olds



7.2.2 Country of birth

87.8% (1011) of the learners were born in South Africa and a further 7.3% (84) were born elsewhere in Africa. Of the African learners, 63 were born in South Africa's neighbouring countries, with Zimbabwe contributing the largest number of learners (37), (see Figure 7.2). The remaining 4.9% (56) of learners were born outside of Africa. The 140 non-South African born learners originate from a total of 70 different countries (see Appendix H).

Figure 7.2: Country of birth of African learners who were not born in South Africa



7.2.3 Home language

English is the medium of instruction of all the sampled schools. It is also the language which is spoken at home by 70.1% (808) of the learners. 11.5% (132) of the learners speak a black South African language at home (*Zulu, Xhosa, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, Siswati, Tshivenda* or *Ndebele*), with a further 2.3% (26) speaking two or more of those languages. *Afrikaans* is the home language of 8.2% (95) of the learners. 4.9% (56) of the learners speak a European language at home and 1.1% (13) of the learners' home language is another African language.

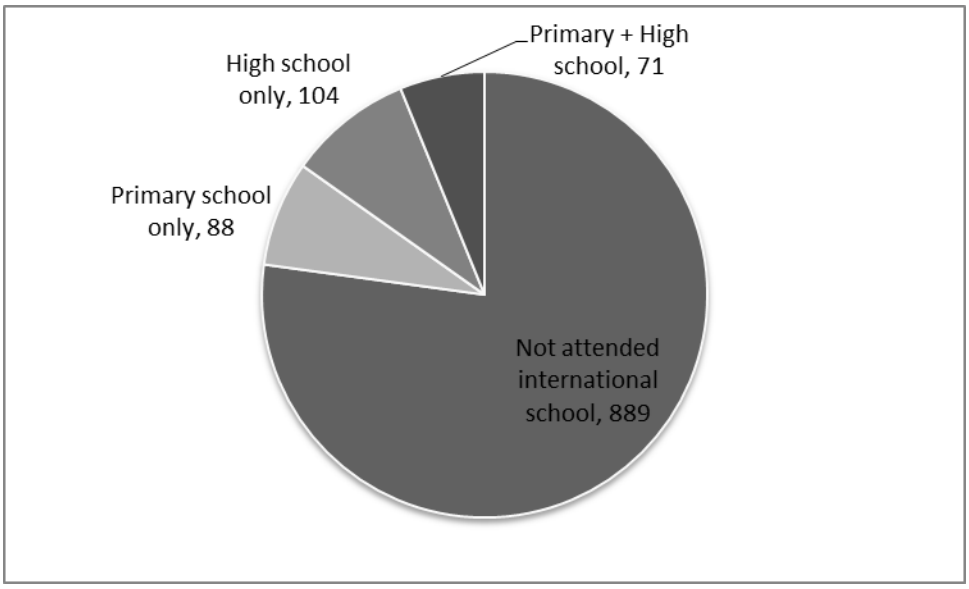
7.3 PARTICIPANTS' INTERNATIONAL TRAVEL EXPERIENCES

The Grade 11 learners in the sample population are well travelled. 989 out of 1152, representing 85.9% of all the learners, have travelled internationally. Of those learners, 693 (70.1%) have travelled internationally without their parents at least once.

7.3.1 Attended school in another country

22.8% (263) of the participants have attended school in another country. Of those, one third (88) attended only primary school; 39.5% (104) spent part of their high school career (defined as commencing from 12 years old), and 27% (71) have spent time in both primary and high schools out of the country (see Figure 7.3). 157 of the learners who have attended a school in another country did so as part of an international exchange programme.

Figure 7.3: Numbers of learners who have attended school in another country
(n = 1152)



It is anticipated that attending school in another country increases global learning owing to being exposed to different cultures from one's own. If this is the case, then learners who have attended school in another country will be expected to demonstrate higher levels of global learning than their peers who have not. This is tested later in the chapter.

7.3.2 Intra- and inter-continental travel

Table 7.3 depicts the frequencies of intra-continental travel within Africa and inter-continental travel undertaken by the 989 learners who have travelled internationally. 86.7% of the learners have travelled at least once to other African countries, with over half of the learners (53.2%) having travelled three or more times within Africa. Approximately 10% (84) of the learners who have travelled to Africa were born in other countries on the continent and consequently the large number of trips into Africa is partially a result of those learners visiting family. 19 of the African learners are international boarders enrolled in South African schools.

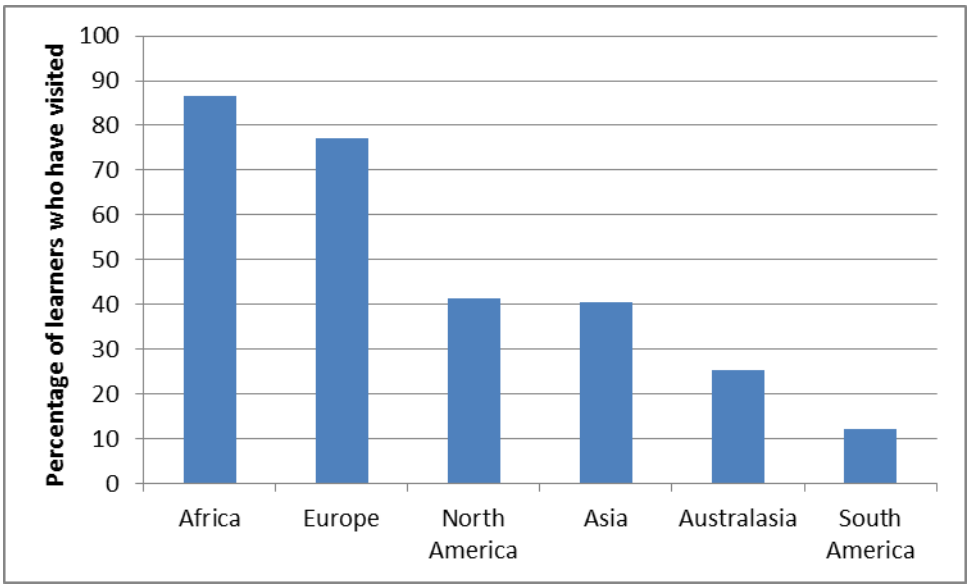
More than three quarters of the learners (77.1%) have travelled at least once to Europe, with 40.1% indicating that they have travelled three or more times to the continent. Given the British colonial origins of many of South Africa's exclusive schools, the fact that Europe (including Britain) is the second most visited continent after Africa, is not unexpected.

Table 7.3: Frequency of international trips undertaken by learners
(n = 989)

	Has not visited		**Visited once**		**Visited twice**		**Visited 3x or more**		**Total visits**	
Continent	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Africa	132	13.3	167	16.9	164	16.6	526	53.2	857	86.7
North America	582	58.8	248	25.1	89	9.0	70	7.1	407	41.2
South America	870	88.0	82	8.3	24	2.4	13	1.3	119	12.0
Europe	226	22.9	216	21.8	150	15.2	397	40.1	763	77.1
Asia	588	59.5	218	22.0	79	8.0	104	10.5	401	40.5
Australasia	740	74.8	158	16.0	53	5.4	38	3.8	249	25.2

Two out of every five learners have travelled at least once to North America or Asia, 41.2% and 40.5% respectively, and one quarter of the learners (25.2%) have been to Australasia. 12% of the learners have visited South America. A total of 2796 international trips were recorded by the learners, which represents an average number of 2.8 trips per learner who has travelled internationally. Figure 7.4 compares the total visits undertaken by learners to the six continents.

Figure 7.4: Comparison of intercontinental travel by learners



To develop profiles of the learners who have travelled internationally, the data are reviewed according to the demographics of race and gender.

7.4 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILES OF LEARNERS WHO HAVE TRAVELLED INTERNATIONALLY

Table 7.4 depicts the number of learners who have travelled internationally according to race and gender. The percentage of girls and boys who have travelled outside of South Africa is almost identical, with girls representing 50.4% of all international travellers and boys comprising 49.6% of them.

When race is considered however, it is apparent that almost 50% more Indian and white learners travel compared with their black peers. The highest proportion of international travel is undertaken by Indian learners followed by white learners, represented by 94.8% and 91.1% respectively of all learners who have travelled internationally. The proportion of Asian and coloured learners who have travelled internationally is similar: 84.2% and 83.3%, respectively. The percentage of black learners who has travelled internationally is the lowest of all the racial groups at 64.6%.

Table 7.4: Comparison of learners who have travelled internationally with those who have not based on gender and race

(n = 944)

		Asian	Black	Coloured	Indian	White	Total
Female	Travelled internationally	7	73	18	42	336	476
	Not travelled internationally	2	48	3	3	40	96
	Travelled internationally (%)	77.8	60.3	85.7	93.3	89.4	83.2
Male	Travelled internationally	9	62	12	31	354	468
	Not travelled internationally	1	26	3	1	27	58
	Travelled internationally (%)	90.0	70.5	80.0	96.9	92.9	89.0
Total	Travelled internationally	16	135	30	73	690	944
	Travelled internationally (%)	84.2	64.6	83.3	94.8	91.1	86.0
	Not travelled internationally (%)	15.8	35.4	16.7	5.2	8.9	14.0

Racial grouping does appear to have an influence on learners' international travel prospects at exclusive South African schools. Approximately one third (35.4%) of black learners have not participated in any form of international travel, compared with less than

10% of all Indian and white learners and less than 20% of all coloured and Asian learners. The bottom three demographic groups in terms of percentage who have travelled internationally are: black females (60.3%), black males (64.6%) and Asian females (77.8%); while the top three groups are: Indian males (96.9%), Indian females (93.3%) and white males (92.9%).

If the primary hypothesis of this thesis is to be accepted, namely that international travel encourages global learning, then one would anticipate that Indian learners, as a group, followed by white males, will demonstrate the highest levels of global learning, while black learners and Asian females will demonstrate the least global learning. Unless gender is found to be a moderating variable of global learning, the similarity in numbers of girls and boys who have travelled internationally suggests that there will be no difference in global learning based on gender.

7.5 SCHOOL-BASED INTERNATIONAL TRAVEL

Responses to question 12 of the survey instrument were collated to ascertain the types and frequency of international travel South African learners have had. Of the 989 learners who have travelled out of South Africa, 693 (70.1%) of them have travelled internationally at least once without their parents (see Table 7.5).

Table 7.5: International travel without parents
(n = 693)

Number of international trips without parents	Number of learners	% of total
Once	417	60.2
Twice	180	26.0
Three times	57	8.2
Four or more times	39	5.6
Total:	693	100

The reason question 12 specifically asked respondents to list any international travel they had undertaken *without* their parents was to identify school-based tourism. Responses however included visits to other family members as well as holidays with friends (see Table 7.6). The latter two categories were excluded from analysis of the school-based tourism. Note that because some learners have travelled internationally in more than one category and more than once, the total number of learners represents the total number of trips undertaken. Figure 7.5 depicts the proportion of school-based trips undertaken by learners in the survey.

Table 7.6: Categories of international travel without parents

Category	Number of learner trips	% of total: travelled without parents (n = 693)	% of total: whole sample (N = 1152)
Exchange	143	20.6	12.4
School-led cultural / thematic tour	222	32.0	19.3
Sport	179	25.8	15.5
Adventure	34	4.9	3.0
Service project	33	4.8	2.9
Leadership summit	30	4.3	2.6
International boarder	19	2.7	1.6
Music / choral tour	18	2.6	1.6
Rotary exchange	14	2.0	1.2
Academic competition / Olympiad	7	1.0	0.6
Holiday with friends	185	26.7	16.1
Visit family	60	8.7	5.2
Other	4	0.6	0.3
Total trips:	**948**		

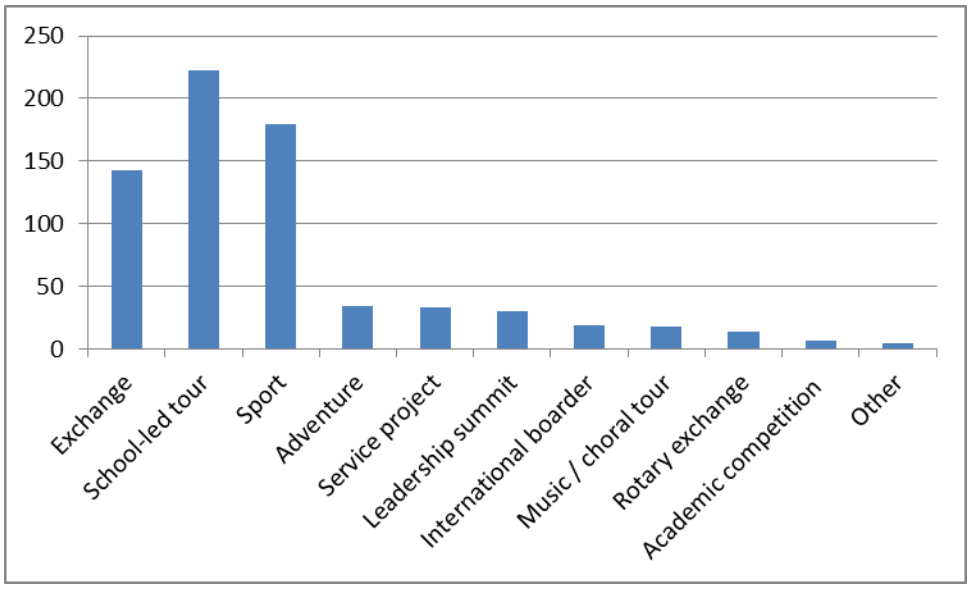
School-led thematic tours

Of the school-based tourism activities, school-led thematic or cultural tours are the most popular, comprising almost one third (32.0%) of all the travel without parents. Thematic tours cited include an academic tour to China and Japan; business tour to China; geography tour to Reunion Island; science tours to the USA, and an environmental tour of

the Galapagos Islands and Ecuador. Cultural tours include an art tour to the USA; literature tours to the USA and UK; drama tour to the USA, and then numerous cultural tours to: Austria, Belgium, China, Egypt, England, France, Germany, Hong Kong, Italy, the Netherlands, Russia, the USA, and Vietnam.

Figure 7.5: Comparison of school-based forms of international travel

(703 trips in total)



Sports tours

Sports tours appear to be the second most popular category of international school-based travel, with just over one quarter (25.8%) of the learners having participated in an international sports tour. In addition to sports codes mentioned in Chapter 5 (see Table 5.13), other sports mentioned include skiing trips to Austria, Germany and Italy, and participation in a dance programme in the USA.

Exchanges

When *Rotary* exchanges are added to school arranged exchanges, a total of 157 learners, representing 13.6% of the total sampled population, have spent time in an international school on exchange. All 16 schools had sent learners on exchange programmes. The

numbers of learners sent varied from between 1 to 3 (*Schools A, B, E, F* and *O*), to more than 15 (*Schools H, I, K* and *M*). *School K* sent the greatest number of learners on exchange, 26, representing 38.8% of their entire Grade 11 cohort.

Adventures, service programmes and leadership summits

The number of learners having participated in an international adventure, service programme or leadership summit is fairly similar, ranging from 30-34 of the survey participants for each category. ***Adventures*** are characterised by some form of physical activity with an endurance element. Often they also include solitude time for participants. Only girls indicated they had participated in an adventure. Examples of adventures mentioned included sea kayaking trips around Madagascar and Mauritius; a trip in Lesotho combining hiking, cycling, tubing and horse riding; a kayaking trip down the Orange River in Namibia (as part of the *President's Award*), and an "expedition" to India.

Many of the learners from the *Round Square* member schools mentioned participating in a *World Challenge* ***service*** project. *World Challenge* is an independent UK based organization that has been providing international trips for schools since1987 (World Challenge, n.d.). Countries in which learners have participated in service programmes include: India, Thailand and Vietnam, the latter being a community awareness programme on rhino poaching. Other service programmes cited included one organized by *Rotary* to Mozambique and faith-based projects in Malawi, Mozambique and Swaziland. Girls and boys have attended a *World Scout* jamboree in Japan.

The *Round Square* conferences in Singapore and Kenya; *Model United Nations* conferences in Dubai, Jordan, Turkey and Qatar, and the *Global Young Leaders* summits in Austria, the Czech Republic and Germany, as well as the USA, were identified as ***leadership summits*** that participants had attended.

Music tours and academic competitions

18 of the learners have participated in a music or choral tour. Latvia, Lithuania and Poland were mentioned as countries to which choral groups have travelled. Only seven learners

have competed in an international academic competition or Olympiad. The world individual debating and public speaking championship in Hong Kong was specifically identified.

Analysis of the participants' responses compared with the content of the participating schools' websites, indicates that the schools offer considerably more international tourism opportunities than are promoted on their websites. Furthermore, the wide range of international travel activities caters to a diverse selection of learner interests. So contrary to the contention of Kenway and Fahey (2014), offering international tourism appears to be more than a mere marketing exercise aimed at competing with other exclusive schools. Whether all types of school-based international tourism can be considered educational and whether any of the types are associated with significantly higher levels of global learning than others, is assessed later in this chapter.

7.6 DETERMINING THE RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE GLOBAL LEARNING SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Two measures of global learning have been proposed:

- A **global awareness scale** (questions 14.1-14.10), aimed at assessing the extent of *knowledge* the learners possess, and
- A **global mindedness scale** (questions 16.9-16.29), intended to measure respondents' *thoughts* or *attitudes* regarding global social and environmental issues.

Prior to investigating the relationship, if any, between international travel and global learning, these sections of the survey instrument were assessed for their reliability and validity.

7.6.1 Global awareness scale

For a survey instrument to be reliable it should yield similar results when repeated in different situations, in this case all schools should yield similar results. Answers collected

from the *global awareness* (GA) scale of the survey instrument are recorded as either correct or incorrect. The sum of the answers yields GA values ranging from 10, if all questions are answered correctly, to 0 if no correct answers are supplied. During the data capture process, it appeared that certain schools had allowed collaboration amongst respondents with regards to the answers. This was particularly evident when sets of questionnaires had the same *incorrect* answer. This phenomenon of learner collaboration had also been observed during the pilot study of the survey (see section 6.5).Table 7.7 summaries the average GA values for the 16 participating schools.

Schools considered to have allowed talking during completion of the survey instrument are indicated with an asterisk (*****) on the table. The mean GA score for all schools was 5.33 (n=1152, SD = 2.18), but this reduced to 4.87 (n=905, SD = 2.04) if the four schools who may have contravened the survey requirements were excluded. In both cases the median number of correct answers was 5 out of 10.

Table 7.7: Mean global awareness scores per school

	School Pseudonym	Mean GA score
1	School A	4.81
2	School B	3.89
3	School C	4.87
4	School D	3.97
5	School E	5.00
6	School F	4.98
7	School G*	6.83
8	School H	5.36
9	School I	5.73
10	School J*	6.79
11	School K	4.57
12	School L	5.17
13	School M	5.46
14	School N*	8.04
15	School O*	7.23
16	School P	3.93

* *Indicates schools where learners may have collaborated on answers.*

Comparison of the mean GA results across the 12 schools which do not appear to have allowed collaboration on answering the GA scale questions indicates that the GA scale is reliable. However, in order to determine whether the individual questions provide a valid indication of global learning, the GA scores need to be correlated with the global mindedness scale scores. This is addressed in the next two sections.

7.6.2 Global mindedness scale

The global mindedness (GM) scale was adapted from Béneker *et al's* (2013) *IWMS.* As the *IWMS* has not been previously used in the current research context, Cronbach's alpha was employed to analyse the internal consistency of the survey items and thus determine the reliability of the *IWMS* for measuring global learning in South African high school learners. Reliability refers to the ability of an instrument to measure consistently. If an instrument can be shown to be reliable, then it is most likely also valid, meaning that it measures what it is intended to measure (Tavakol & Dennik, 2011).

Results of the Cronbach's analysis on the 21 items of the GM scale are recorded in Table 7.8. A Cronbach's alpha value of 0.78 resulted, indicating good internal consistency of the scale items. An alpha value of 0.70 is considered acceptable, but 0.80 is preferable (Pallant, 2016:104). However, five of the items had low item-total correlation scores of less than 0.30, indicating that they were measuring something other than the survey measure of global mindedness and were thus detrimentally effecting construct validity. When these five items were removed from the GM scale, Cronbach's alpha coefficient increased to 0.79. Removed items are indicated with an asterisk (*****) in Table 7.8.

Interestingly, item 16.9: *It would be better to be a citizen of the world than of any particular country,* and item 16.22: *Immigrants should NOT be permitted to come into South Africa if they compete with our own workers,* have the two lowest item-total correlation values, 0.186 and 0.166, respectively. Both items originate in Sampson and Smith's (1957) *world mindedness scale* (items 13 and 2) and are included in Béneker *et al's* (2013; 2014) *integrated world mindedness scale* (items 19 and 14). In both of Béneker *et al's* (2013; 2014) applications of their *IWMS,* the statement related to global citizenship (item 16.9)

Table 7.8: Cronbach's alpha test for internal consistency: item-total correlations

	Item	Item-total correlation
16.9*	It would be better to be a citizen of the world than of any particular country.	0.186
16.10	I would be willing to accept a lower standard of living to protect the environment.	0.362
16.11*	I can greet, correctly, someone in at least one of the Black South African languages.	0.186
16.12	Any individual, regardless of race or religion, should be allowed to live wherever he/she wants to in the world.	0.401
16.13	It is important that we educate people to understand the impact that current policies might have on future generations.	0.400
16.14	All girls, regardless of their culture or religion, should receive the same education as boys.	0.341
16.15	We should be willing to lower our standard of living in order to get an equal standard of living for every person in the world.	0.503
16.16	All South Africans should do one year of compulsory community service once they have completed school or their studies.	0.439
16.17	Really, there is nothing that I can do about the problems of the world.	0.377
16.18	We have a moral obligation to share our wealth with less fortunate people in the world.	0.398
16.19	South Africa should sign global environmental agreements, even if they limit our economic development.	0.312
16.20	I have very little in common with people of other races.	0.382
16.21*	Teenage girls who become pregnant should NOT be allowed to stay at school.	0.239
16.22*	Immigrants should NOT be permitted to come into South Africa if they compete with our own workers.	0.166
16.23	Helping neighbouring countries will help South Africa in the long run.	0.321
16.24	I would be willing to pay much higher prices to protect the environment.	0.324
16.25*	Same-sex couples should NOT be allowed to marry.	0.284
16.26	Prayers at school assemblies should reflect all the religions of learners in the school.	0.371
16.27	Women who dress sexily are asking to be hit on / flirted with by men.	0.343
16.28	I would date someone of another race.	0.411
16.29	South Africa is enriched by the fact that it is comprised of many people from different cultures and countries.	0.406

**Items excluded from* global mindedness *scale.*

was ranked as the least valued statement by respondents and the statement related to immigrants (item 16.22) also scored below average in terms of its perceived importance to European high school learners. Béneker *et al's* (2013; 2014) results combined with the low item-total correlations of this study, suggest that definitions of *global mindedness* which incorporate favouring a global worldview over a more local or national one need to be reconsidered.

The 16 items identified by the Cronbach's alpha analysis are used to represent the *global mindedness* scale that is employed for further analysis in this research.

7.6.3 Correlation between the GA and the GM scales

If global learning occurs along a continuum, progressing from global awareness (GA) to global mindedness (GM), one would expect that the two constructs would be positively correlated and that the GA score would be proportionately higher than the GM score. Using only the results from the 12 schools whose learners do not appear to have collaborated when answering question 14, the mean GA and GM scores were calculated and converted to percentages for comparison. Results are indicated in Table 7.9.

Table 7.9: Comparison of the GA and GM scores
(n = 905)

	Global Awareness	Global Mindedness
maximum possible score	10	80
mean	4.87	59.13
standard deviation	2.01	8.41
mean %	$\frac{4.87}{(1x10)}$ x 100 = 48.7%	$\frac{59.13}{(5x16)}$ x 100 = 73.91%

Since the GM score is proportionately higher than the GA score, 73.91% and 48.7% respectively, the results do not support the assumption that global learning occurs in a

progressive manner. However, this most probably is a result of the choice of survey questions used in determining the GA score and is discussed further in the next section. Pearson's correlation coefficient for the two constructs indicates no correlation between GA and GM, $r = 0.07$, $n = 905$, $p < 0.05$ (two-tailed). Owing to these findings and the fact that the responses to the GA questions may not be an accurate reflection of the respondents' global knowledge, whereas the construct validity of the 16-item GM scale has been demonstrated, it was decided to exclude the GA scale from further statistical analysis. Responses to question 14 are retained only to provide insight regarding learners' perceptions about global issues and are discussed next.

7.7 LEARNERS' PERCEPTIONS OF GLOBAL PROBLEMS

7.7.1 Indicators of global awareness

The results of the responses to the GA scale questions are recorded in Table 7.10. Results from the four schools which may have allowed collaboration have been excluded.

Table 7.10: Correct response rate to the Global Awareness measure
(n = 909)

	Question	Correct answer (%)
14.1	*How many countries share a border with South Africa?*	32.3
14.2	*Who is the current leader of the DA (Democratic Alliance) Party?*	43.5
14.3	*Which region of Africa (north, south, east, west, central) has the most Ebola cases?*	46.4
14.4	*In which African country have hundreds of school girls been abducted?*	75.2
14.5	*From which country do MOST of the refugees / migrants in Europe come?*	51.2
14.6	*In which Asian country did earthquakes kill thousands of people this year?*	16.8
14.7	*Which former Olympic athlete announced they were transgender this year?*	51.2
14.8	*Which country has the most people online?*	16.7
14.9	*On which planet in our solar system has water recently been discovered?*	88.6
14.10	*In which country were 15 fossilised skeletons of a new species, that is considered to be an ancestor to Humans, discovered this year?*	63.3

The median correct response rate of 5/10 supports other research that points to the general ignorance of young people about global issues (Adjutant *et al,* 2014; Hsu & Wang, 2010; Zhang, Hsu & Wang, 2010). The results indicate that the likelihood of learners providing a correct answer seems to be inversely related to the time gap since the event in question. For example, the highest percentage of correct answers was to question 14.9 (88.6%) and is probably a consequence of the fact that the discovery of water on Mars was made in the same month that most of the schools completed the survey (October, 2015). The proportion of correct answers dropped to 63.3% for learners remembering Lee Berger's discovery of hominid remains in South Africa announced a month earlier in September 2015 (question 14.10); while only 16.8% of learners could recall the event which happened six months previously, namely the Nepalese earthquake (question 14.6). The general lack of interest or ignorance of global issues is further supported by the fact that only half (51.2%) the respondents were capable of identifying Syria as the source of most of the European refugees and only 16.7% know that China has the most people online.

Three quarters of the learners were aware of the Nigerian school girls abduction (question 14.4), indicating perhaps that learners were able to empathise with the situation as the girls are a similar age and from another African country. Furthermore, many of the girls' only schools instigated specific awareness campaigns when the abductions first occurred. When the weighted averages of the correct responses to the question are compared between girls' only and boys' only schools, the results are: 84.2% and 71.2% respectively, suggesting that the schools' social awareness campaigns may have been influential and effective. The weighted average score for the co-educational schools was the lowest at 68.5%.

The fact that 10.3% more learners could identify Caitlyn Jenner as the transgender Olympian compared with South African political opposition party leader: Mmusi Maimane, may be merely an indicator of learners being more interested in popular culture rather than local politics. However, as less than one third (32.3%) is aware that South Africa has six neighbouring countries, the results suggest a general ignorance of national affairs which

does not bode well for possessing a globally minded disposition which requires one to think about issues beyond one's local and national boundaries.

7.7.2 Learners' perceptions of the world's biggest problems

To gain greater insight regarding global awareness, learners were asked to identify what they considered are the biggest problems facing the world (question 15). The question is an open-ended one. When more than one answer was provided, only the first was recorded. Responses were thematically clumped and are recorded in Table 7.11.

Notwithstanding that all the problems identified in Table 7.11 are global concerns, the perceptions of the learners indicate a more national, rather than global focus. 30.1% of the respondents identified major South African concerns, namely *poverty and economic inequality* and *greed and corruption*, as the top two problems facing the world. Another national social problem, intolerance in the form of racism, xenophobia and other forms of intolerance, was also ranked highly. These results contrast with those of the *Humanitarian Index* (2016), in which two thirds (67%) of the respondents ranked *war* as the biggest global threat. Only 7.3% of the South African learners felt the same.

Table 7.11: Learners' perceptions of the world's biggest problems
(n = 1120)

Rank	Problem	Number of learners	Percentage of learners
1	Poverty and economic inequality	217	19.4
2	Greed and corruption	120	10.7
3	Climate change	118	10.5
4	Environmental degradation and pollution	96	8.6
5	Racism, xenophobia, intolerance, ignorance	84	7.5
6	War, terrorism, ISIS	82	7.3
7	Water scarcity	67	6.0
	Over-population	67	6.0
9	Lack of or inadequate education	64	5.7
10	Hunger, food scarcity	40	3.6
11	Other	165	14.7

The first two global environmental challenges, *climate change* and *environmental degradation and pollution*, are ranked third and fourth respectively, with 19.1% of the learners considering them serious issues. Climate change is ranked fifth in the *Humanitarian Index* (2016).

Only 15.3% of the learners identified either water scarcity (6%), poor education (5.7%), or hunger (3.6%) as global problems. Considering these are all serious issues faced by many South Africans on a daily basis, the numbers suggest disconnectedness between the learners from exclusive schools and their fellow countrymen.

While *forced migration* was considered the third largest global issues in the *Humanitarian Index* report, only 12 learners (1%) in the sample identified it as a global issue.

7.7.3 Indicators of global mindedness

A detailed analysis of each item of the *global mindedness* scale falls outside the scope of this study and is not necessary in order to test the thesis hypotheses and the conceptual model. Responses to individual items are aggregated according to the UNESCO *Agenda 2030* categories in order to provide an overview of learners' attitudes towards these global issues.

Prior to analysing the aggregate scores, exploratory principle component analysis (PCA) was employed to determine the extent to which the selected items actually represent the UNESCO categories. The data was deemed suitable for PCA, having a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value of 0.84 indicating sampling adequacy. KMO values above 0.6 are considered adequate (Pallant, 2016:201). Bartlett's test of sphericity was also statistically significant (at < 0.001), supporting the reduction of the data. Although six components were extracted using the 21 GM scale items, rotation failed to converge the items onto the six components. The five scale items identified by Cronbach's alpha as having item-total correlation scores of less than 0.30 were eliminated and PCA redone. Five components with eigenvalues over 1 were revealed, explaining 24.39%, 10.37%, 7.71%, 6.75% and 6.69% of the variance respectively (see Table 7.12). Oblimin rotation maximized the

loading of the items onto the five components, revealing a simple structure. The component loadings for each of the items is presented as a pattern matrix in Table 7.13 and the correlation between items and components is presented in the structure matrix of Table 7.14. Correlation between components is weak, with all correlations being less than r = 0.3 (see Table 7.15). The weak inter-component correlation supports the use of an oblique rather than orthogonal rotation.

Table 7.12: Principle component analysis on 16 GM scale items: Total variance

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings[a]
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	3.903	24.393	24.393	3.903	24.393	24.393	2.617
2	1.659	10.368	34.761	1.659	10.368	34.761	2.373
3	1.234	7.712	42.473	1.234	7.712	42.473	2.403
4	1.079	6.745	49.218	1.079	6.745	49.218	1.144
5	1.071	6.694	55.912	1.071	6.694	55.912	2.092
6	.820	5.124	61.036				
7	.772	4.827	65.863				
8	.732	4.573	70.436				
9	.687	4.296	74.732				
10	.660	4.124	78.857				
11	.632	3.947	82.804				
12	.615	3.845	86.649				
13	.611	3.816	90.465				
14	.554	3.461	93.926				
15	.527	3.291	97.217				
16	.445	2.783	100.000				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. When components are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

Table 7.13: Principle Component Analysis: Pattern matrix

Pattern Matrix[a]

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Global equality	.667				
Compulsory community service	.637				
School prayers	.633				
Share wealth	.522			-.311	
Inter-racial dating	.482				.391
Standard of living		-.758			
Environmental protection costs		-.755			
Global environment versus local economy		-.635			
Girls' equal education			.839		
Future generations			.768		
Freedom to live anywhere			.636		
Sexual harassment				.675	
Neighbouring countries				-.587	.353
Racially different					.679
Personal helplessness		-.381			.623
SA diversity					.585

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.[a]

a. Rotation converged in 11 iterations.

Interpretation of the PCA indicates that component 2 contains all the UNESCO categories related to environmental stewardship. Component 5 primarily relates to cultural diversity, particularly if the item *inter-racial dating* is incorporated. Components 1, 3 and 4 however combine the other four UNESCO categories: social justice, human rights, gender equality and promoting a culture of peace and non-violence, possibly indicating the overlap between categories and the difficulty associated with assigning specific survey items to particular categories. Unlike factor analysis, the components of PCA do not indicate any latent variable which might explain the apparently unrelated items loading onto specific

Table 7.14: Principle Component Analysis: Structure matrix

Structure Matrix

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Global equality	.726	-.376			
Compulsory community service	.679	-.378			
School prayers	.630				
Share wealth	.586	-.352		-.345	
Inter-racial dating	.547				.500
Standard of living		-.768			
Environmental protection costs		-.767			
Global environment versus local economy		-.668			
Girls' equal education			.795		
Future generations			.776		
Freedom to live anywhere	.366		.676		
Sexual harassment	.303			.659	
Neighbouring countries				-.595	.393
Racially different					.682
Personal helplessness		-.414			.649
SA diversity			.419		.642

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 7.15: Principle component correlation matrix

Component Correlation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4	5
1	1.000	-.197	.258	-.024	.241
2	-.197	1.000	-.150	.083	-.132
3	.258	-.150	1.000	-.035	.267
4	-.024	.083	-.035	1.000	.028
5	.241	-.132	.267	.028	1.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

components. Closer inspection of the items does reveal that component 3 comprises the three items that elicited the strongest responses from learners, namely:

1. *All girls, regardless of their culture or religion, should receive the same education as boys.*
2. *It is important that we educate people to understand the impact that current policies might have on future generations.*
3. *Any individual, regardless of race or religion, should be allowed to live wherever he/she wants to in the world.*

Conversely, component 1 contains the responses that yielded the most neutral responses:

1. *We should be willing to lower our standard of living in order to get an equal standard of living for every person in the world.*
2. *All South Africans should do one year of compulsory community service once they have completed school or their studies.*
3. *Prayers at school assemblies should reflect all the religions of learners in the school.*
4. *We have a moral obligation to share our wealth with less fortunate people in the world.*

When the results of the principle component analysis are compared with the individual mean scores for the *global mindedness* scale items (see Table 7.16) and the mean UNESCO category scores (see Table 7.17), the following observations become apparent.

- Learners feel most strongly about gender equality. This is unsurprising considering that half the respondents are girls and that two of the items (16.14 and 16.21) relate specifically to school girls. Strong support for gender equality extends to same-sex relationships (16.25).
- Learners value cultural diversity and do not appear to be socially divided according to race (16.20 and 16.28), which is a positive result considering South Africa's apartheid past.
- There is an imbalance between learners' attitudes towards personal rights and their personal responsibilities, with many of them not being prepared to make personal sacrifices in order to benefit the greater good (16.10, 16.15, 16.16, 16.18 and 16.24).

Table 7.16: Mean responses to the global mindedness items

Note: 1=*strongly disagree*, 2=*disagree*, 3=*neutral*, 4=*agree*, 5=*strongly agree*.

Items ranked from strongest response (1) to most neutral response (21).

	Question	Mean score	Rank
16.9	It would be better to be a citizen of the world than of any particular country.	3.5	13
16.10	I would be willing to accept a lower standard of living to protect the environment.	3.0	21
16.11	I can greet, correctly, someone in at least one of the Black South African languages.	4.3	4
16.12	Any individual, regardless of race or religion, should be allowed to live wherever he/she wants to in the world.	4.4	3
16.13	It is important that we educate people to understand the impact that current policies might have on future generations.	4.6	2
16.14	All girls, regardless of their culture or religion, should receive the same education as boys.	4.8	1
16.15	We should be willing to lower our standard of living in order to get an equal standard of living for every person in the world.	3.1	18
16.16	All South Africans should do one year of compulsory community service once they have completed school or their studies.	2.9	18
16.17	Really, there is nothing that I can do about the problems of the world.	2.0	7
16.18	We have a moral obligation to share our wealth with less fortunate people in the world.	3.3	17
16.19	South Africa should sign global environmental agreements, even if they limit our economic development.	3.4	14
16.20	I have very little in common with people of other races.	2.2	9
16.21	Teenage girls who become pregnant should NOT be allowed to stay at school.	2.1	8
16.22	Immigrants should NOT be permitted to come into South Africa if they compete with our own workers.	2.2	9
16.23	Helping neighbouring countries will help South Africa in the long run.	3.8	9
16.24	I would be willing to pay much higher prices to protect the environment.	3.1	18
16.25	Same-sex couples should NOT be allowed to marry.	1.9	6
16.26	Prayers at school assemblies should reflect all the religions of learners in the school.	3.4	14
16.27	Women who dress sexily are asking to be hit on / flirted with by men.	2.3	12
16.28	I would date someone of another race.	3.4	14
16.29	South Africa is enriched by the fact that it is comprised of many people from different cultures and countries.	4.3	4

- Related to the previous point, although learners feel they can make a difference regarding problems of the world (16.7), a finding which differs from that of the *Humanitarian Index* (HI) survey (Aurora Prize, 2016), the unwillingness of learners to lower their standard of living (16.5, 16.18 and 16.24) is consistent with the "compassion gap" identified in the HI survey.
- Learners appear ambivalent about environmental issues (16.10, 16.19 and 16.24).

Table 7.17: Comparison of GM responses according to UNESCO categories

Note: *Category mean score* determined after correcting for reverse [X_R] statements.

Items and categories ranked from strongest response (1) to most neutral response (18).

	UNESCO Category	Rank	Category Mean score	Question	Item Mean score	Item Rank
1	Sustainable development: social justice	**4**	3.7	16.13	4.6	2
				16.16	2.9	18
				16.17_R	2.0 [4.0]	7
				16.18	3.3	17
2	Sustainable development: environmental stewardship	**6**	3.2	16.10	3.0	21
				16.19	3.4	14
				16.24	3.1	18
3	Human rights	**3**	3.9	16.12	4.4	3
				16.15	3.1	18
				16.25_R	1.9 [4.1]	6
4	Gender equality	**1**	4.1	16.14	4.8	1
				16.21_R	2.1 [3.9]	8
				16.27_R	2.3 [3.7]	12
5	Culture of peace and non-violence	**5**	3.6	16.9	3.5	13
				16.22_R	2.2 [3.8]	9
				16.23	3.8	9
				16.26	3.4	14
6	Cultural diversity and intercultural understanding	**2**	4.0	16.11	4.3	4
				16.20_R	2.2 [3.8]	9
				16.28	3.4	14
				16.29	4.3	4

Having identified the participants' knowledge of and attitudes towards global issues, the next stage of this thesis investigates the relationships between global learning and different types of international educational tourism.

7.8 TESTING THE HYPOTHESES

Owing to the results presented thus far indicating no correlation between *global awareness* and *global mindedness*, and because the reduced 16-item *global mindedness* scale has demonstrated internal consistency and construct validity, the latter is employed to represent the dependent variable, namely: global learning, when testing the thesis's hypotheses. The minimum possible GM score is 16 x 1= 16 (indicating very low levels of global mindedness) and the highest possible GM score is 16 x 5 = 80.

7.8.1 Relationship between international travel and global learning

The first hypothesis ($\mathbf{H_1}$) is:

> *Learners who have travelled internationally are more globally minded than those who have not.*

In order to test this, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to determine whether there was a significant difference between the mean scores of global mindedness (GM) of learners who have travelled internationally and those who have had no international travel experience. Levene's test for equality of variance indicated equal variances could be assumed (F=0.62). Although the mean GM score for learners who *had not* travelled internationally was slightly *higher* than those who had travelled internationally, no significant difference was found in the GM scores of the two groups. Learners who had travelled internationally had a GM mean score of 58.87 (n=989, SD=8.48) and learners who had not travelled had a GM mean score of 59.48 (n=151, SD=8.10); t (1140)=0.82, p=0.41 (two-tailed).

The results indicate that the null hypothesis needs to be retained: *There is no difference in global learning between learners who have travelled internationally and those who have not.*

Although this finding indicates that international travel has no impact on GM amongst the survey participants, the next step of the analysis involves disaggregating the data in order to investigate whether differences in GM exist *within* the group of learners who have travelled internationally. In doing so, the second hypothesis is tested.

7.8.2 The influence of IET on global learning

The second hypothesis ($\mathbf{H_2}$) is:

> *Of those learners who have travelled internationally, those that have participated in an international educational tourism experience are more globally minded than those who have not.*

To test this, the type of international tourism undertaken by the 989 learners who had travelled out of South Africa was divided into the categories depicted in Table 7.18. The original categories used to represent international travel undertaken without parents (see Table 7.5) were modified as follows: Two new categories were added: *multiple* for learners who had participated in more than one category of international school-based tourism, and *travel with parents,* for learners who indicated they had not travelled internationally without their parents. The category *Rotary exchange* was added to the *exchanges* category owing to the similarity of the two types of exchange. *Music and choral tours* disappeared as a category owing to all learners who had participated in such activities having also participated in at least one other type of international travel and were thus moved to the *multiple* category. No judgment was made regarding whether or not certain categories could be defined as “educational” or not, so all school-based forms of international tourism were included in the first analysis.

Results of an independent-samples t-test to compare the mean scores of global mindedness (GM) of learners who had participated in a school-based form of international tourism with those who had not (identified by the category: *holiday with family or friends*), indicated no significant difference between the two groups. Learners who had participated in school-based international tourism had a GM mean score of 59.19 (n=547, SD=8.50), and learners who had travelled internationally but not with a school had a GM mean score of 58.48 (n=442, SD=8.45); t (989) = -1.32, p=0.19 (two-tailed).

Table 7.18: Categories of international tourism undertaken by learners
(n = 989)

Category	Number of learners	School-based tourism	Educational tourism
Exchange	68	✓	✓
School-led cultural / thematic tour	116	✓	✓
Sport	102	✓	X
Adventure	17	✓	✓
Service project	15	✓	✓
Leadership summit	10	✓	✓
International boarder	11	✓	X
Academic competition / Olympiad	5	✓	✓
Multiple	203	✓	✓
Holiday with friends or family	442	X	X
Total:	**989**		

Before the null hypothesis was accepted however, the categories *sport* and *international boarder* were added to *holiday with friends*, in other words, they were assumed to be non-educational. An independent-samples t-test was conducted again, this time comparing mean GM scores of the international *educational tourism* categories (see the last column of Table 7.18), with those of the non-educational forms of international tourism. This yielded a small but significant difference between the two categories. Participants of IET had a mean GM score of 59.93 (n=432, SD=8.31), while those who had not participated in

IET had a lower mean GM score of 58.06 (n=557, SD=8.53); t(989) = -3.46, p=0.001 (two-tailed); $\eta^2 = 0.01$.

Note that in line with the recommendations of Murray and Dosser (in Levine & Hullett, 2002), eta squared (η^2) is recorded throughout this analysis because it provides an estimate of the magnitude of the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variable, in this case GM, that is relatively independent of the sample size (Murray & Dosser in Levine & Hullett, 2002:614). Eta squared describes the proportion of the variance in the dependent variable that is explained by the independent variable (Pallant, 2016:247) and was calculated throughout this thesis by hand using the formula:

$$\eta^2 = \frac{\text{sum of squares between groups}}{\text{total sum of squares}}$$

Owing to the result of the t-test, the null hypothesis was rejected and the second hypothesis accepted, namely: *of those learners who have travelled internationally, those who have participated in international educational tourism are more globally minded than those who have not.*

7.8.3 Comparison of the effects of different types of IET on global learning

Having identified a small but significant effect of international educational tourism on global learning, the final requirement of this stage of the thesis was to identify whether certain types of IET are associated with higher levels of global learning than others, and thus test the final hypothesis (**H_3**):

> *Some types of international educational tourism are better suited to encouraging global learning than others.*

Prior to testing this hypothesis an explanation regarding causality is required.

Determining causality

In order to determine whether certain types of IET are more suited to encouraging global learning than others, the research needs to establish causality between the independent variable (categories of IET) and the dependent variable (global mindedness). Confirming a positive correlation between the variables is not the same as being able to state that IET encourages global learning. For example, does participation in international service projects result in higher levels of global learning, or is it because learners with inherently higher levels of global learning choose to participate in international service projects?

Causality is most easily established using an experimental research design. However, when this is not the case, as often occurs in social science research where ethical considerations exclude experimentation involving people, causality may still be inferred if the following criteria, according to Bachman (2005), can be demonstrated:

1. Empirical association.
2. Appropriate time-order.
3. Non-spuriousness.

Additionally, the mechanism of causality needs to be specified, as does the context of the relationship (Bachman, 2005:146). The cross-sectional and non-experimental research design of this thesis, combined with the ethical requirements of anonymity of the children participants, means that all the above criteria need to be met if any causal relationships are to be inferred.

In the presentation of results that follow, empirical associations will be demonstrated using the appropriate statistical techniques. The mechanism of causality is participation in IET. The context of any observable relationships will be discussed and in doing so any spurious relationships will be dismissed. The problem, however, is in determining appropriate time-order. Because no testing of global learning was undertaken before learners departed for their IET, the data do not include a pre-experience level against which change can be measured. To compensate for this, Bachman (2005) recommends that the population being studied is as homogeneous as possible in order to allow comparison of the effect of a particular intervention, in this case, IET. The study population of this research is fairly homogeneous from a socio-economic perspective as it represents children from some of

the wealthiest families in the country. The fact that 86% of the learners in this cohort have travelled internationally and that the schools from which the population is drawn charge the highest tuition fees in South Africa is testament to this. Additionally, to remove any influence of different curricula on levels of global mindedness, all learners attend schools that follow the same *IEB* curriculum.

Bearing these considerations in mind, analysis of the data to test the final hypothesis is now presented.

Comparison of mean GM scores

To commence testing the third hypothesis, a one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA), for the different categories of school-based tourism was conducted (see Table 7.19). Although *sport* was shown to be non-educational in the previous section, the category was included for comparative purposes.

Table 7.19: Relationship between categories of school-based international tourism and global mindedness

(n = 536)

Reduced GM Score 16 items

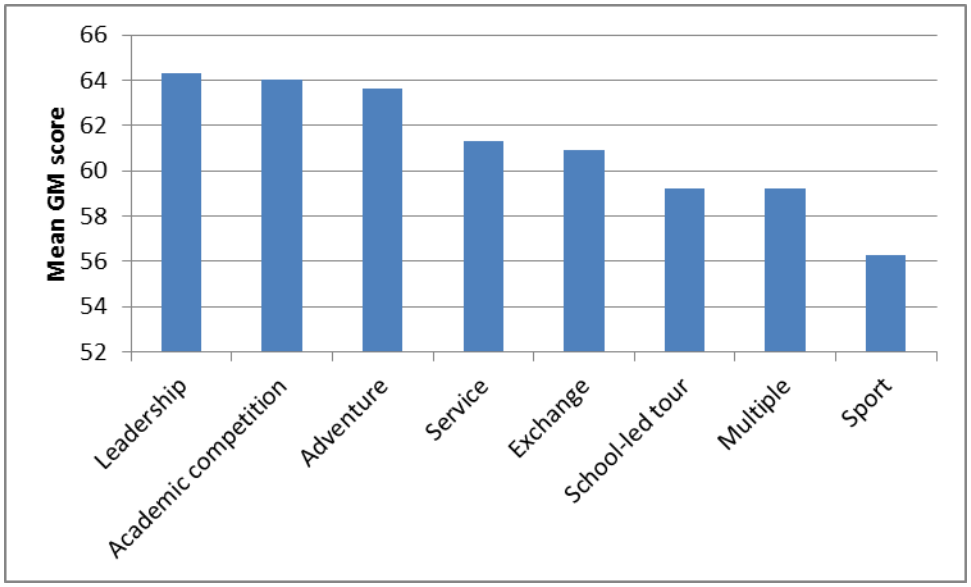
Category	N	Mean GM score	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Adventure	17	63.6471	4.30031	1.04298	61.4360	65.8581	57.00	71.00
Competition	5	64.0000	2.54951	1.14018	60.8344	67.1656	61.00	68.00
Exchange	68	60.9118	6.89524	.83617	59.2428	62.5808	46.00	76.00
Leadership	10	64.3000	7.18099	2.27083	59.1630	69.4370	53.00	77.00
School trip	116	59.2414	9.73172	.90357	57.4516	61.0312	28.00	79.00
Service	15	61.3333	7.20780	1.86105	57.3418	65.3249	45.00	72.00
Sport	102	56.2941	8.67520	.85897	54.5901	57.9981	32.00	77.00
Multiple	203	59.2118	8.20586	.57594	58.0762	60.3474	36.00	77.00
Total	536	59.2183	8.49777	.36705	58.4973	59.9393	28.00	79.00

Levene's test for homogeneity of variance indicated the results violated the assumption of equal variance $F(7,528)=3.77$, $p=0.001$, therefore Welch's robust test of equality of means

was employed, yielding an F(7,45.59) value of 6.69, significant at the p=0.001 level. Since the result of Welch's test indicates a p value smaller than alpha (α=0.05), comparison of category mean GM values is possible (see Figure 7.6).

ANOVA indicates a significant difference between the groups of international school-based tourism (p=0.001). The effect size, η^2 is 0.05, indicating a small-moderate effect (Cohen in Pallant, 2016:248). More specifically, the eta squared value indicates that 5% of the variance in global mindedness mean scores is explained by the different categories of school-based international tourism. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test (Games-Howell which should be employed when Levene's test is violated, yielded identical results) indicated that the mean GM score for *adventure* (M=63.65, SD=4.30) is significantly different from *sport* (M=56.29, SD=8.68), with a mean difference of +7.35. The mean GM score for *exchanges* (M=60.91, SD=6.90) is also significantly different from *sport*, with a mean difference of +4.62.

Figure 7.6: Comparison of mean GM scores for categories of school-based international tourism



The highest GM scores are associated with learners who have participated in *leadership* (M=64.30, SD=7.18) and *academic competitions* (M=65.57, SD=4.28). However, as

learners who participate in these categories of IET are by their nature high academic achievers, the result may be more representative of academic achievement rather than IET. This will be assessed later in the chapter. The small number of participants in these categories (n=10 and 5 respectively), also may influence the power of the results.

Participants of IET defined as *adventure* have the next highest GM scores (M=63.65, SD=5.89). This category also has the second lowest standard deviation around the mean, indicating less of a spread of results. School adventures are associated with moving learners out of their comfort zone and also providing solitude time for self-reflection, both of which have been proposed in the conceptual model of IET as requirements for global learning.

Exchanges and *school-led tours* attract the largest proportion of learners yet after *sport*, are associated with the lowest levels of GM (M=60.91, SD=6.90 and M=59.24, SD=9.73 respectively). When compared with the mean GM score for learners who have not travelled internationally (M=59.48, n=151), the results indicate that *school-led tours* have little if any merit in terms of developing global learning and in fact have a *lower* mean GM score than learners who have not travelled internationally. *Exchanges* yield a marginally higher score. However, prior to concluding that these categories of IET do not contribute to global learning, the data were analysed to determine whether individual schools have the ability to positively affect global learning.

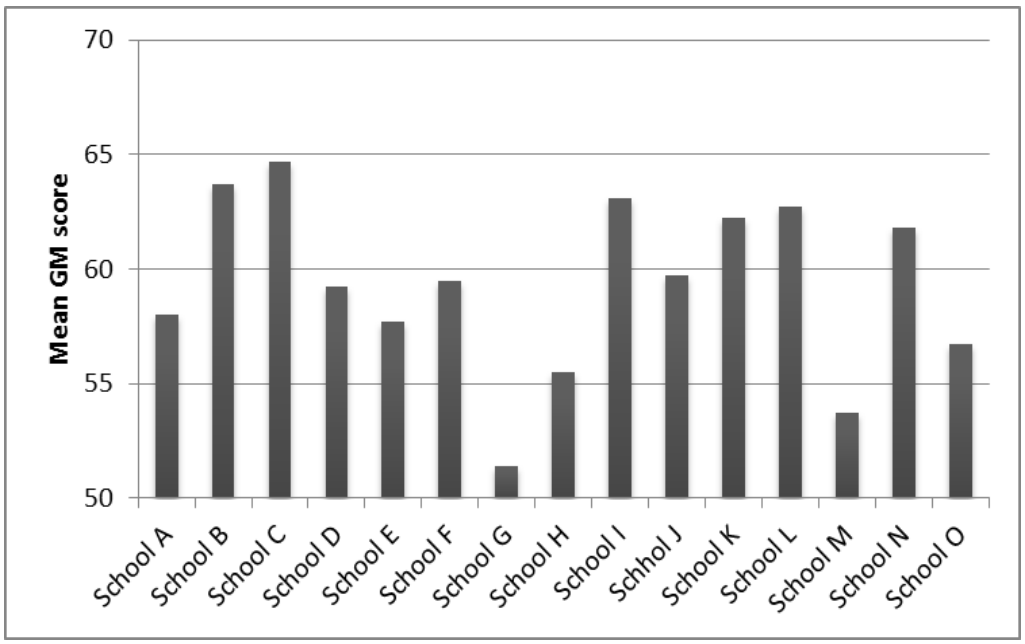
The impact of schools on affecting global learning

Although *school-led tours* has a low mean GM score, this category has the largest standard deviation around the mean (SD=9.73) and also the greatest range of GM values (from 28-79). These, combined with the relatively large number of participants in this category (n=116), suggest that further analysis is required prior to making a judgment regarding the educational merit of international school-led tours. To investigate this, the mean GM scores of learners who had participated in school-led tours were compared amongst the schools using one-way analysis of variance. None of the learners from *School P* indicated that they had participated in a school-led international tour, so they

were excluded from the analysis. Learners from the *multiple* category who had participated in a school-led tour were included in the ANOVA.

Results of the ANOVA indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in GM scores amongst the different schools at the $p<0.05$ level: $F(14, 178) = 3.65$, $p=0.001$ (see Table 7.20 and Figure 7.7). The mean GM score for *School C* is 13.33 points higher than *School G* and 10.97 points higher than *School M* ($p = 0.001$). Similarly,*School I's* GM scores are 11.69 higher than *School G* and 9.44 higher than *School M* ($p \leq 0.003$). *School L* has GM scores that are 11.27 higher than *School G* and 9.02 points higher than *School M* ($p< 0.02$). *Schools C, I* and *L* are all girls-only schools, while *Schools G* and *M* are boys-only schools. The potentially confounding influence of gender on global learning will be investigated in the next section of this chapter. The effect size, $\eta^2=0.22$, indicated a significantly large effect (Cohen in Pallant, 2016:248). This means that 22% of the variance in GM scores for learners who participate in *school-led tours* is determined by the manner in which different schools conduct their international tours. This result supports the initial interpretation that significant global learning can occur during this form of IET, but the extent of learning is strongly influenced by the educational approach adopted by each school towards their international tours.

Figure 7.7: Comparison of mean GM scores of learners who have participated in school-led international tours by school



Further confirmation of this finding regarding the effect of individual schools on global learning was achieved by running an ANOVA of mean GM scores of the learners in each school (regardless of the type of IET they had participated in). Again a statistically significant result occurred, $F(15,973)=15.85$, $p<0.001$, $\eta^2=0.20$. The drop in eta squared by just 2% demonstrates the significantly large role that schools play in influencing the development of global mindedness (see Table 7.21).

Table 7.20: Comparison of mean GM scores of learners who have participated in school-led international tours by school

(n = 193)

Descriptives

Reduced GM Score 16 items

School	N	Mean GM score	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
School A	4	58.0000	1.63299	.81650	55.4015	60.5985	56.00	60.00
School B	3	63.6667	8.96289	5.17472	41.4016	85.9317	58.00	74.00
School C	20	64.6500	9.83696	2.19961	60.0462	69.2538	37.00	79.00
School D	19	59.2105	6.59612	1.51325	56.0313	62.3898	50.00	70.00
School E	15	57.7333	9.99619	2.58101	52.1976	63.2690	42.00	74.00
School F	2	59.5000	13.43503	9.50000	-61.2089	180.2089	50.00	69.00
School G	14	51.4286	6.44162	1.72160	47.7093	55.1479	38.00	61.00
School H	13	55.5385	7.27571	2.01792	51.1418	59.9351	41.00	68.00
School I	25	63.1200	6.07810	1.21562	60.6111	65.6289	55.00	77.00
School J	6	59.6667	7.73736	3.15876	51.5468	67.7865	45.00	67.00
School K	9	62.2222	7.99653	2.66551	56.0755	68.3689	46.00	70.00
School L	20	62.7000	8.60905	1.92504	58.6708	66.7292	41.00	75.00
School M	28	53.6786	9.04333	1.70903	50.1719	57.1852	36.00	66.00
School N	8	61.7500	8.08438	2.85826	54.9913	68.5087	53.00	77.00
School O	7	56.7143	8.51889	3.21984	48.8356	64.5929	44.00	72.00
Total	193	59.1295	8.87522	.63885	57.8695	60.3896	36.00	79.00

The finding that learners in *School P* had a mean GM score that is 6.44 points higher than the population mean (see Table 7.21), and that is statistically different at the $p\leq0.001$ level for seven schools, ranging from +6.30 (*School D*) to +11.88 (*School G*) warranted further investigation. In an interview with the principal of *School P* (Teacher, School P, 2016), he

explained that the school has an active policy of hosting international teachers and learners and that all international exchange partner schools are located in European schools in which English is not the medium of academic instruction. Furthermore, the school runs biennial tours to Europe which combine a cultural school-led tour with a school exchange programme incorporating a two-week homestay with a local family for each of their learners. This decision to not engage culturally similar exchange partner schools and

Table 7.21: Comparison of mean GM scores of participating schools

(N = 1152)

Descriptives

Reduced GM Score 16 items

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
School A	90	53.9667	8.01046	.84438	52.2889	55.6444	24.00	74.00
School B	69	62.1594	6.69860	.80642	60.5502	63.7686	38.00	77.00
School C	90	64.3111	6.70174	.70643	62.9075	65.7148	37.00	79.00
School D	92	59.1304	7.55961	.78814	57.5649	60.6960	41.00	77.00
School E	99	58.4242	8.12666	.81676	56.8034	60.0451	34.00	78.00
School F	51	61.9216	6.53251	.91473	60.0843	63.7589	43.00	71.00
School G	78	53.5513	7.79718	.88286	51.7933	55.3093	36.00	68.00
School H	100	54.5900	7.25314	.72531	53.1508	56.0292	34.00	75.00
School I	73	61.9863	6.57329	.76935	60.4526	63.5200	45.00	77.00
School J	92	62.0435	6.89786	.71915	60.6150	63.4720	39.00	76.00
School K	67	61.2388	8.78547	1.07332	59.0959	63.3818	28.00	77.00
School L	35	63.6286	8.00399	1.35292	60.8791	66.3780	41.00	77.00
School M	111	54.4865	8.39682	.79699	52.9070	56.0659	22.00	76.00
School N	24	62.1667	7.07517	1.44421	59.1791	65.1542	51.00	77.00
School O	53	57.8302	9.21065	1.26518	55.2914	60.3690	33.00	72.00
School P	28	65.4286	6.13085	1.15862	63.0513	67.8059	54.00	77.00
Total	1152	58.9861	8.44360	.24877	58.4980	59.4742	22.00	79.00

the concomitant high levels of GM exhibited by *School P's* learners, supports the notion of *cultural difference*, that greater global learning occurs when a significant difference exists between one's home country and the IET destination (Chieffo & Griffiths, 2004; Gibson *et al,* 2008; Van 'T Klooster, 2014). The homestay aspect of the exchange further encourages greater cultural immersion through experiential learning. *School P* also has a

strong environmental ethos and integrates environmental issues across their curriculum (Teacher, School P, 2016), which is likely to have also contributed to the learners' high GM scores.

To confirm the finding that schools significantly influence the extent of global learning during international educational tourism, ANOVA was performed on the two other largest categories of school-based international tourism: *exchanges* and *sport* (see Appendix I). The results clearly support the finding. For *exchanges* there was a statistically significant difference in GM scores at the $p<0.05$ level amongst six schools. The effect size, $\eta^2=0.28$, indicates a large effect. Two boys-only schools, *School G* and *School H*, had mean GM score differences ranging from 8.18 to 12.06 points lower than girls-only schools *I* and *L,* and co-educational schools *K* and *P.* Similarly, when the category *sport* was analysed, ANOVA also indicated statistically significant differences in the GM mean scores at the $p<0.05$ level, $\eta^2=0.19$, indicating a strong significant difference between girls-only *School J* and three boys-only schools, *Schools A, H* and *M*, with differences of 9.49, 8.35 and 8.65 respectively. Again, the girls' school had the higher GM score.

Summary

The highest levels of global mindedness are associated with *international leadership summits, academic competitions* and *adventures*. International *sports tours* are associated with the lowest levels of global mindedness, while *international exchanges* and *school-led tours* fall within the middle of the categories. Individual schools can strongly influence global learning during IET.

The results of this section of the analysis clearly indicate that the third hypothesis can be accepted, namely: *some forms of international educational tourism are better suited to encouraging global learning than others.* To which may be added, that the manner in which individual schools conduct their international educational tours can significantly influence the extent of learning that takes place on them.

Prior to testing the conceptual model of IET, the next stage of the analysis investigates the

influence of confounding and moderating variables on the relationship between international educational tourism and global learning.

7.9 MODERATING AND CONFOUNDING VARIABLES

Results of the previous section of the analysis suggest that gender and academic achievement may influence the extent of global learning which occurs during IET. In this section of the chapter, those plus other potentially moderating or confounding variables, are investigated for their effect on global learning.

7.9.1 Potentially moderating variables of global learning

Gender and academic achievement represent potentially moderating variables because they may influence the strength of the relationship between IET and global learning, but they are unlikely to explain the nature of the relationship between the two variables. Other possible moderating variables are home-language, country of birth, race and attendance at an international school. An analysis of these variables follows.

Gender

Employing an independent samples t-test, the impact of gender on global learning was assessed. There is a significant difference in global mindedness scores between female (M=62.87, SD=6.82) and male (M=54.74, SD=8.04) learners, $t(1126)=18.37$, $p \leq 0.001$ (two-tailed). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = 8.13, CI: 7.27 to 9.00) is large (eta squared = 0.23). The implication of this result is that 23% of the variance in global mindedness scores is explained by gender, specifically: girls tend to exhibit significantly higher levels of global learning than boys. These results are consistent with the findings of Hett (1993) and Béneker *et al* (2014), although the difference between adolescent girls and boys was larger in South Africa than in the USA and Netherlands.

Academic achievement

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of academic achievement on global mindedness scores. Participants were divided into six groups according to their Grade 11 mid-year examinations aggregate (Group 1: <50%; Group 2: 50-59%; Group 3: 60-69%; Group 4: 70-79%; Group 5: 80-89%; Group 6: ≥90%). There was a statistically significant difference in GM scores between the groups at the $p<0.05$ level: $F(5,1130)=4.23$, $p=0.001$, however, the actual difference in mean scores is quite small (mean difference between lowest to highest group score =3.45) and the effect size, calculated using eta squared is 0.02. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicate significant difference in mean scores between the four groups in the 50% - 89% range of mid-year examination aggregates, with mean GM scores increasing with mid-year examination aggregate (see Table 7.22); however, this trend is not apparent in learners scoring less than 50% or greater than 90% in their mid-year examinations. As the majority of learners (96.30%) fall within the 50-89% examination aggregate range, the results suggest that in most instances, global mindedness increases with academic achievement, but that this effect is small. These results are aligned with those of Lope (2014) who found academic achievement in Mathematics and English to be a predictor of GM in Grade 9 learners.

Table 7.22: Relationship between academic achievement and global mindedness (n = 1136)

Descriptives

Reduced GM Score 16 items

Mid-year examination aggregate	N	Mean GM score	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
less than 50%	16	58.4375	6.99494	1.74873	54.7102	62.1648	43.00	67.00
50-59%	137	57.4307	8.01909	.68512	56.0758	58.7855	34.00	77.00
60-69%	342	57.9415	7.95088	.42993	57.0959	58.7872	22.00	79.00
70-79%	418	59.7177	8.30773	.40634	58.9190	60.5164	37.00	77.00
80-89%	197	60.5279	9.00654	.64169	59.2624	61.7934	32.00	78.00
over 90%	26	57.0769	13.01975	2.55338	51.8181	62.3357	24.00	73.00
Total	1136	58.9692	8.47125	.25134	58.4761	59.4623	22.00	79.00

Home language

It is hypothesised that children whose home language is different from their language of academic instruction, which in this case is English, will be more globally minded than their English-speaking peers as their home language is a proxy of a culture which is different from their school one. Furthermore, speaking a second language has been demonstrated to be positively associated with levels of GM (Lope, 2014). Using ANOVA, a small but statistically significant difference was identified between learners whose home language is English and those who it is not $F(6,1132)=4.05$, $p=0.001$ (see Table 7.23). Learners who speak English and Afrikaans have the lowest GM value ($M=57.61$, $SD=9.86$). English speaking learners have a mean GM score of 58.54 ($SD=8.44$), while all other learners who speak a different language than English at home have higher mean GM scores, with learners speaking an Asian home language having the highest scores ($M=65.33$, $SD=6.91$). The magnitude of the effect of home language on GM score is small, $\eta^2=0.02$.

Table 7.23: Relationship between home language and GM score

(n = 1139)

Descriptives

Reduced GM Score 16 items

Home language	N	Mean GM score	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
English	808	58.5371	8.44083	.29695	57.9542	59.1200	24.00	79.00
English + Afrikaans	95	57.6105	9.86429	1.01205	55.6011	59.6200	22.00	75.00
English + Black SA language	132	60.7424	7.31267	.63649	59.4833	62.0015	40.00	77.00
Two or more SA languages*	26	63.1923	7.63161	1.49668	60.1098	66.2748	41.00	75.00
Other African language	13	60.1538	6.25628	1.73518	56.3732	63.9345	44.00	68.00
European language	56	60.3393	7.27456	.97210	58.3911	62.2874	39.00	72.00
Asian language	9	65.3333	6.91014	2.30338	60.0217	70.6449	56.00	77.00
Total	1139	58.9824	8.41371	.24930	58.4933	59.4716	22.00	79.00

*specifically excludes English, for example: Afrikaans + Zulu, or Xhosa + Sepedi

Country of birth

Owing to 1011 of all the learners having been born in South Africa and the remaining 140 being born in 70 different countries (see Appendix H) it was not statistically possible to ascertain the impact of individual countries of birth on global learning. Instead, learners were divided into three groups and their mean GM scores were compared: Group 1: born in South Africa (M=58.94, n= 1011, SD=8.51); Group 2: born elsewhere in Africa (M=59.15, n=84, SD=8.14), and Group 3: born outside of Africa (M=59.52, n=56, SD=7.92). No statistically significant difference amongst the three groups was apparent, suggesting that country of birth does not have an influence on levels of global mindfulness.

Race

Earlier in the analysis, it was hypothesised that since Black South African learners had travelled internationally relatively less than their white, coloured and Indian peers, that they would have the lowest GM scores. However, ANOVA indicates that this is not the case.

A statistically significant difference in GM scores between racial groups was found to exist ($p<0.001$). Owing to Levene's test for homogeneity of variance being violated: $F(4,1112)=2.72$, $p=0.03$; Welch's robust test of equality of means was employed, yielding an $F(4,85.04)$ value of 12.09, significant at the $p<0.001$ level. The consequence of this is that comparison of category means is possible owing to the p value being smaller than alpha ($\alpha=0.05$) (see Table 7.24). The lowest mean GM scores are recorded by *white* learners (M=57.87, SD=8.51) and the highest by *Indian* learners (M=62.42, SD=7.10). The average score is 58.90 (SD=8.43). Post hoc tests using Tukey HSD (Games-Howell yielded identical results), indicated that the mean GM score for *white* learners was statistically significantly lower than *black* learners (-2.84 points), *coloured* learners (-4.30 points) and *Indian* leaners (-4.55 points). Eta squared is 0.04, indicating a small-moderate effect (Cohen in Pallant, 2016:248) of race on GM score.

Table 7.24: Effect of race on GM score

(n = 1117)

Descriptives

Reduced GM Score 16 items

Race	N	Mean GM score	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Asian	19	59.0526	11.20751	2.57118	53.6508	64.4545	33.00	75.00
Black	214	60.7056	7.73397	.52868	59.6635	61.7477	24.00	77.00
Coloured	36	62.1667	7.24470	1.20745	59.7154	64.6179	46.00	79.00
Indian	81	62.4198	7.10434	.78937	60.8489	63.9907	46.00	77.00
White	767	57.8657	8.50903	.30724	57.2626	58.4688	22.00	78.00
Total	1117	58.8988	8.42655	.25213	58.4041	59.3935	22.00	79.00

Effect of gender and race on global learning

Owing to both gender and race having been proven to influence levels of global learning, a two-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to investigate the combined impact of gender and race on global learning. The interaction effect between gender and race was not statistically significant, F(4,1088)=1.65, p=0.16, indicating that there is no significant difference in the effect of gender on levels of global mindedness amongst learners of different racial groups. There was a statistically significant main effect for gender: F(1,1088)=46.05, p<0.001; and for racial group: F(4,1088)=9.16, p<0.001; however, in both cases the effect size was small-moderate (η^2 = 0.04 and 0.03, respectively).

Results of the analysis are depicted in Figure 7.8 and Table 7.25. The overall mean GM score is 58.95 (SD=8.46). All racial groups of male learners are below the mean, while all female groups are above it. The highest scoring cohorts are: Indian females (M=66.16, n=45, SD=6.23) and coloured females (M=65.19, n=21, SD=5.56), while the lowest scoring cohorts are white males (M=53.75, n=381, SD=8.02), followed by black males (M=56.56, n=88, SD=7.86). With the exception of Asian learners who have similar GM scores (females = 59.22 and males = 58.90), the weighted mean differences between girls and boys in each racial category is +7.98 points, equivalent to approximately 14.6%.

Table 7.25: The effect of gender and race on global mindedness

(n = 1098)

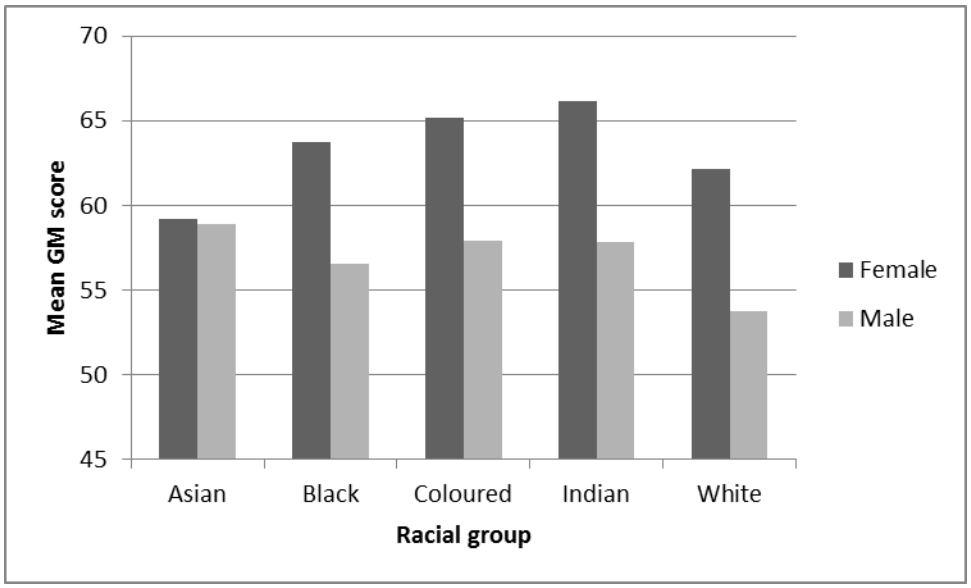
Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Reduced GM Score 16 items

Sex	Race	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	Asian	59.2222	12.94003	9
	Black	63.7273	6.26498	121
	Coloured	65.1905	5.55535	21
	Indian	66.1556	6.22661	45
	White	62.1463	6.77150	376
	Total	62.8619	6.82173	572
Male	Asian	58.9000	10.11544	10
	Black	56.5568	7.86065	88
	Coloured	57.9333	7.36271	15
	Indian	57.8437	5.16258	32
	White	53.7507	8.02255	381
	Total	54.6863	8.00419	526

Figure 7.8: Graphical representation of the influence of gender and race on global learning

(n = 1098)



Attendance at an international school

Results of an independent samples t-test indicate no significant difference in the mean GM scores of learners who have spent time in a school in another country (M=59.90, n=263, SD=8.22), with those who have not (M=59.21, n=781, SD=8.33); t(1042)= -1.18, p=0.24 (two-tailed). Closer analysis of the data using ANOVA further indicates that there is no statistically significant difference in levels of global learning when the age of learners when they attended school in another country is considered, F(4,969)=0.08, p=0.53. These results were unexpected and are contrary to the findings of Lawthong and Lineham (in Béneker *et al,* 2014:25) who found that school attendance in another country stimulates global mindedness.

7.9.2 Potentially confounding variables of global learning

Confounding variables have the potential to influence the relationship between international educational tourism and global learning. Choosing to study a third language or geography as a matric subject, actively participate in community service projects (as opposed to participating under duress), or taking an interest in the news are potentially confounding variables because they all indicate, to various degrees, an interest in other cultures, which in turn might influence the decision to participate in international tourism. These variables are considered next.

Studying a third language

Although studying a third language for the final school-leaving matriculation examination yields a statistically significant higher GM mean score (M=61.26, n=119, SD=8.41), compared with learners who do not study a third language (M=58.72, n=1033, SD=8.41); t(1150)= -3.12, p=0.002 (two-tailed); the effect size is very small (η^2=0.006), indicating that less than 1% of the total variance in GM scores may be accounted for by this variable. Studying a third language can therefore be discarded as a potentially confounding variable.

Studying Geography

Contrary to expectation, studying geography has a statistically significant *negative* influence on GM scores. Application of an independent samples t-test indicates that learners who study geography as a matriculation subject have a *lower* mean GM score (M=57.66, n=502, SD=8.47), compared with those who do not (M=60.01, n=650, SD=8.28); t(1150)=4.72, p<0.001 (two-tailed), although the magnitude of the effect is small (η^2=0.02). These findings support those of Béneker *et al* (2014:18) and Torney-Purta (in Béneker *et al,* 2014:11) who found no significant difference in levels of GM between high school learners who study geography and those who do not.

Béneker *et al* (2014) did however find that learners who study geography were more globally aware than their peers who did not. This was not observed in the South African population, with learners who study geography also scoring *lower* on the GA scale (M=5.21, n=502, SD=2.24) than those who do not (M=5.43, n=650, SD=2.13). An independent-samples t-test, however, noted no statistically significant difference between the two groups, t(1150)=1.64, p=0.01.

Participation in a community service programme

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between levels of global mindedness and the different frequencies of participation in community service: F(4,1144)=18.38, p<0.001. *Non-participation* in community service yielded statistically significant lower levels of GM (M=55.94, n=187, SD=9.02), at the p<0.001 level, than *participating 1-2 times per term* (M=59.98, n=359, SD=8.00); *participating once per week* (M=61.87, n=191, SD=7.51), and *participating more than once per week* (M=61.71, n=63, SD=9.14) (see Table 7.26 and Figure 7.9).

The magnitude of the effect of participation in community service on GM, is moderate: η^2=0.06, indicating that 6% of the variance in mean GM scores is accounted for by frequency of participation in community service. However, an even greater effect on global learning is observed when the *reason* for participation is considered. An ANOVA indicated that learners who believe that participation *is the right thing to do,* scored 6.68 points higher than learners who felt they were forced to do community service, 5.71 points

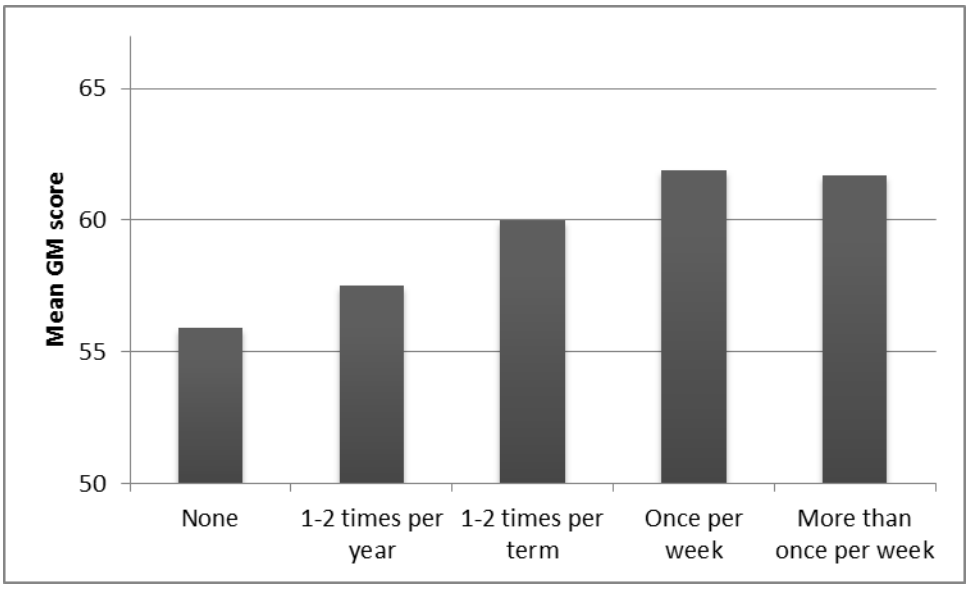
Table 7.26: Influence of participation in community service on global mindedness (n = 1149)

Descriptives

Reduced GM Score 16 items

Frequency of participation in community service	N	Mean GM score	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
None	187	55.9412	9.01801	.65946	54.6402	57.2422	22.00	75.00
1-2 times per year	349	57.4842	8.10512	.43386	56.6309	58.3376	34.00	78.00
1-2 times per term	359	59.9777	8.00067	.42226	59.1473	60.8081	36.00	79.00
Once per week	191	61.8743	7.50683	.54318	60.8029	62.9458	37.00	77.00
More than once per week	63	61.7143	9.13947	1.15147	59.4125	64.0160	24.00	77.00
Total	1149	58.9739	8.43737	.24891	58.4855	59.4623	22.00	79.00

Figure 7.9: Relationship between frequency of participation in community service and GM



higher than learners who do not participate at all, and 5.55 points higher than learners who participate because it contributes to building their CVs or gives them university entrance points; F(4,1053)=33.56, p<0.001. Eta squared for this effect is 0.11, indicating a moderate-large effect of altruism on global mindedness (see Table 7.27).

Table 7.27: Relationship between motivation for participation in community service and GM

Motivation	Mean GM score	Difference from altruistic motivation	N	SD
1. It's the right thing to do.(Altruism)	61.65	-	562	7.47
2. Forced to.	54.98	- 6.68	123	7.36
3. Don't participate at all.	55.94	- 5.71	187	8.95
4. Benefits the learner (CV building)	56.10	- 5.55	88	9.19

Participation in community service should thus be considered as a confounding variable when considering the relationship between international educational tourism and global learning and learners who are motivated for altruistic reasons exhibit the highest levels of global mindedness.

Observing the news

The final potentially confounding variable to be considered is the effect of taking an active interest in the news. Using a one-way between-groups analysis of variance to explore the relationship between the frequency of observing the news and global learning, no statistically significant result occurred: $F(4,1145)=1.75$, $p=0.14$. Mean GM scores varied from 57.21 (n=122, SD=8.88) for learners who indicated that they *never* observe the news, to 59.68 (n=266, SD=8.14), for learners who observe the news *2-3 times per week*. Contrary to the findings of Adjutant *et al* (2014) and Holm and Farber (2002), observing the news does not appear to influence global learning in the study population and thus is not a confounding variable in the relationship between IET and global learning.

7.10 SUMMARY OF VARIABLES THAT INFLUENCE GLOBAL LEARNING

The intention of this section of the thesis was to identify any extraneous variables that could influence the relationship between international educational tourism and global

learning. Seven variables were identified. If the eta squared values of the variables, expressed as a percentage, are considered, then it becomes apparent that gender accounts for the greatest variance in global learning at 23%. Being a male is a distinct disadvantage with regards to global learning, with the mean GM score for males being the lowest of any category of assessed variable (see Table 7.28). In contrast, female learners as a group, have the sixth highest mean GM score.

Participation in community service is the second most influential variable, accounting for 6% of the variance around the mean GM score when frequency of participation is considered. Frequency of participation is positively related to global mindedness. The effect of participation in community service on global learning increases further to 11% when participation is motivated by altruistic reasons. Conversely learners who are forced to participate in community service demonstrated some of the lowest mean GM scores.

Racial group is the next most influential variable, although it explains only 4% of the variance. White learners have the lowest mean GM scores, followed by Asian learners. All other racial groups have GM scores that are higher than the mean GM value of 59.22. Speaking a different language at home also positively impacts global learning, explaining 2.5% of the variance of the results. Studying geography however has a negative influence on global learning, although its effect size is small at 1.9%. Academic achievement was less influential than originally supposed, accounting for only a very small percentage of the variance (η^2 % = 1.8%). Similarly, studying a third language had a statistically significant, but very low positive influence on GM at 0.6%.

To conclude, this section of the thesis has clearly indicated that participation in international educational tourism is positively associated with global learning and that some forms of IET are more conducive to the development of global mindedness than others. The analysis has also demonstrated that gender, race, home language and academic achievement influence the strength of the relationship between IET and global learning, with gender, followed by race being the most influential. Additionally, confounding variables which can influence the relationship between IET and global learning include: the frequency of and motivation for participation in community service, and studying

Table 7.28: Comparison of mean GM values for different types of influential variables and categories of IET

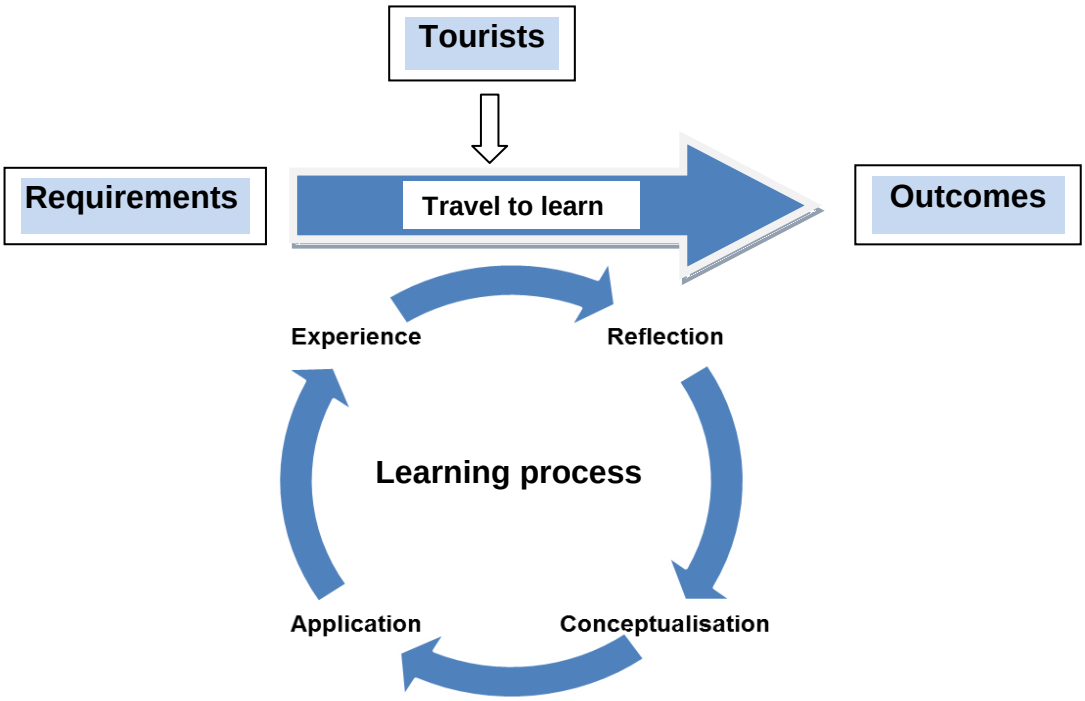
GM values higher than the mean M = 59.22			GM values lower than the mean M = 59.22		
		Mean GM			**Mean GM**
1	Speak an Asian language	65.33	24	**IET: multiple**	**59.21**
2	**IET: leadership**	**64.30**	25	Racial group: Asian	59.05
3	**IET: competition**	**64.00**	26	Do not study a third language	58.72
4	**IET: adventure**	**63.65**	27	Speak only English	58.54
5	Speak two SA languages	63.19	28	Do not participate in IET	58.06
6	Gender: female	62.87	29	Achieve: 60-69%	57.94
7	Racial group: Indian	62.42	30	Racial group: white	57.87
8	Racial group: coloured	62.17	31	Study Geography	57.66
9	Comm. Serve: 1x / week	61.87	32	Speak English + Afrikaans	57.61
10	Comm. Serve: >1x / week	61.71	33	Comm. Serve: 1-2x / year	57.48
11	Altruistic motivation for comm. serve	61.65	34	Achieve: 50-59%	57.43
12	**IET: service**	**61.33**	35	**IET: sport**	**56.29**
13	Study 3rd language	61.26	36	Comm. Serve: benefits learner	56.10
14	**IET: exchange**	**60.91**	37	Do not do community service	55.94
15	Speak English + black SA language	60.74	38	Forced to do comm. service	54.98
16	Racial group: black	60.71	39	Gender: male	54.74
17	Achieve: 80-89%	60.53			
18	Speak European language	60.34			
19	Speak other African language	60.15			
20	Do not study Geography	60.01			
21	Comm. Serve: 1-2x / term	59.98			
22	Achieve: 70-79%	59.72			
23	**IET: school-led trip**	**59.24**			

geography or a third language. Of the three, participation in community service is the most influential, whilst studying geography negatively impacts the development of global learning. Having tested the three hypotheses and identified variables that can influence the relationship between IET and global learning, the next stage of the analysis uses the data collected to assess the conceptual model of international educational tourism that was proposed in Chapter Four.

7.11 TESTING THE INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL TOURISM MODEL

The conceptual model of international educational tourism that was developed in Chapter Four (see Figure 4.3) comprises three main components: a set of requirements; participants, namely tourists; and a set of quantifiable outcomes. The model employs experiential learning to describe the process of learning during IET. A simplified version of the model is depicted in Figure 7.10. In terms of testing the model, this thesis considers the segment of tourists who are *learners.* It is assumed that if the model can be shown to demonstrate the process of learning during international educational tourism for *learners*, then it will be equally valid when applied to other categories of IET tourists.

Figure 7.10: Simplified version of the IET model



When considering the outcomes of the model, analysis of the data has already demonstrated that participation in international educational tourism does positively impact global learning and that some forms of IET are more conducive to developing global learning than others. In doing so, the legitimacy of the underpinning assumption of

international education theory, namely that the development of *global mindedness* is an outcome of international educational travel has been demonstrated. The analysis has also indicated, however, that the *global awareness* scale developed to assess the cognitive outcome of IET, may not be an accurate measure of the construct. Furthermore, it was never the intention of this thesis to evaluate the behavioural outcome of global learning, namely the development of *global competence*, as it was suggested that owing to their age learners are unlikely to have mastered the skills and attributes associated with that. Since this research has demonstrated the validity of the *global mindedness* scale, which measures the affective outcome of IET, *global mindedness* is used as the outcome against which the proposed model of IET is evaluated. The requirements of the IET model are now considered.

7.11.1 Requirements for effective learning during IET

The model proposes four requirements to explain international educational tourism. Firstly, international travel is required. Secondly, the tourism experience must be educationally appropriate for the tourists involved. The data collected for this thesis are focused on school-based international educational tourism, so the first two requirements of the IET model have been met. The third criterion for effective IET is that participants must possess the desire to learn during their tourism experience and the fourth is that cultural difference must be experienced. Finally, it is proposed that the learning process is enhanced if it is facilitated by an appropriate educator or expert tour guide. Evidence to support these last three considerations is now presented.

The desire to learn

In order to assess the desire to learn on the part of learners, a *travel curiosity factor* (TCF) was developed comprising seven questions (see question 13 of the survey instrument). The subset of data comprising only learners who had travelled internationally (n=989) is used in the analysis. ANOVA was conducted on each of the seven questions. The results indicate that with the exception of question 13.1: *When I'm on holiday I like to shop in the international brand stores,* all the questions yielded statistically significant differences amongst the five categories of each question and global mindedness. Additionally, post-

hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicate that for questions 13.2-13.7 a significant difference exists between all the mean GM scores in the *strongly disagree* category and the *strongly agree* category (see Table 7.29).

Table 7.29: Results of ANOVA of TCF items and GM

(n = 989)

	Question *When I'm on holiday I …*	**Mean GM** Strongly disagree	**Mean GM** Strongly agree	**Significant difference (p ≤ 0.05)**	**p**	**η^2**
13.1	like to shop in the international brand stores.	61.04	58.61	-	0.53	-
13.2	prefer to eat food that I am familiar with rather than local food.	60.41	56.75	-3.66	0.002	0.01
13.3	like to visit places that most tourists DON'T go to.	53.50	62.05	+8.55	0.001	0.06
13.4	like to visit museums and historical or cultural sites.	53.05	62.70	+9.65	0.001	0.11
13.5	enjoy talking to local people.	51.08	61.53	+10.45	0.001	0.07
13.6	enjoy making friends with people from similar backgrounds to me who are also on holiday.	54.00	59.15	+5.15	0.03	0.01
13.7	try and learn how to greet people in the local language.	50.00	61.65	+11.65	0.001	0.11

Interpretation of these results indicates that shopping in international brand stores bares no relationship with whether or not a person will be globally minded. There is a small but distinct negative relationship between reluctance to try local foods and global mindedness; $F(4,1147)=4.19$, $p=0.00$, $\eta^2=0.02$. Learners who prefer to eat food with which they are familiar score significantly lower in terms of GM than those who are prepared to experiment with the local cuisine (see Figure 7.11).

The other five items in the TCF are all statistically significantly positively related to GM (see Figure 7.12). The desire to explore places that most tourists do not go to, and to visit local museums and cultural and historical sites, has a moderate to moderately-large effect on developing global mindedness: $F(4,1147)=17.14$, $p<0.001$, $\eta^2=0.06$ and $F(4,1147)=33.76$, $p<0.001$, $\eta^2=0.11$, respectively.

Figure 7.11: Relationship between preferring familiar food when on holiday and GM

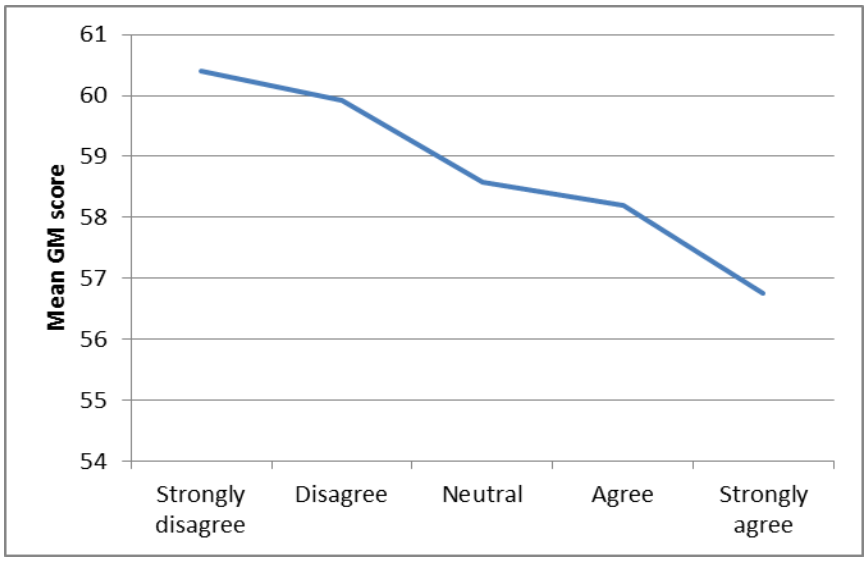
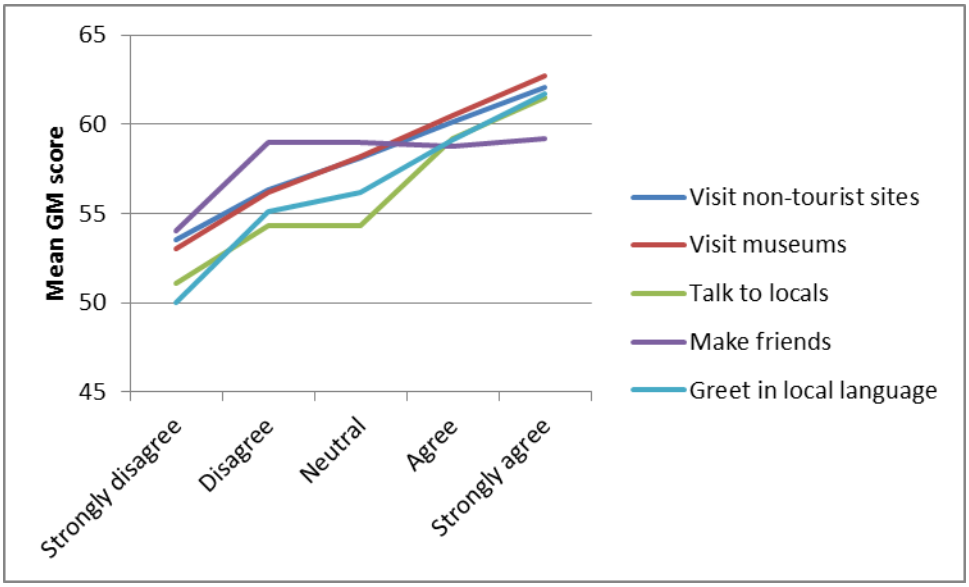


Figure 7.12: The relationship between various TCF items and GM



Learning to greet a person in the local language also has a moderately-large effect on global learning: $F(4,1147)=36.05$, $p<0.001$, $\eta^2=0.11$; while enjoying talking to local people has a moderate influence on developing GM: $F(4,1147)=20.33$, $p<0.001$, $\eta^2=0.07$. Surprisingly, enjoying making friends with people from similar backgrounds whilst on holiday also yields a small but significant effect on developing GM: $F(4,1147)=2.77$,

p=0.03, η^2=0.01. This latter phenomenon may indicate a more extrovert personality which may be associated with possessing a more curious disposition.

Having demonstrated a positive relationship between five of the items of the TCF and global mindedness, and a negative relationship between conservative eating habits and GM, Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was employed to determine the strength of correlation between the TCF and GM. Item 1 of the TCF, *brand store shopping,* was excluded owing to it having demonstrated no significant relationship with GM. A moderate positive correlation was observed between the two scales, r=0.39, p<0.01(two-tailed), indicating that as travel curiosity increases so too does the level of global mindedness. Furthermore, when the two items with the lowest eta squared values and lowest significant differences between means, *preferring familiar food* and *making friends with people from similar backgrounds*, were removed, Pearson's correlation coefficient increased to r=0.44, p<0.01 (two-tailed), demonstrating a stronger relationship between the remaining four TCF items (items 13.3, 13.4, 13.5 and 13.7) and GM.

To check the observed relationship between curiosity and learning, the relationship between the desire to be only taught that which will be examined and GM was investigated. Question 16.6: *Our teachers should focus ONLY on topics that will be tested or examined*, was included in the study to demonstrate a closed-mind to learning, in other words, the opposite of being curious. Results support this assumption, with Pearson's correlation coefficient yielding a negative association between not wanting to learn beyond the examination and the TCF: r= -0.282, n=989, p<0.01 (two-tailed). This negative correlation increases when question 16.6 is correlated with GM, r= -0.314, n=989, p<0.01 (two-tailed), supporting the notion that without curiosity and a desire to learn less global learning will occur.

The results of this part of the analysis are consistent with the findings of Deardorff (2006), Lilley (2014) and Pitman *et al* (2010), and confirm one of the requirements of the conceptual model of IET, that for effective global learning to occur, tourists need to be curious about their destination and thus possess the desire to learn.

The experience of cultural difference

The requirement of experiencing cultural difference in order for global learning to occur represents a point of convergence of international education and global learning theories. In order to establish causality, a homogeneous sub-population of IET participants was required, and so learners who had participated in an international exchange programme were selected. Unlike school-led thematic tours where participation is mainly a consequence of parents' ability to afford the tour, participation in international exchange programmes is highly competitive. Each school normally has only a few places each year, so learners who are selected for exchange usually represent the top achievers in terms of leadership, academics, co-curricular activities, or a combination thereof. It was hypothesised that if these top achieving learners demonstrated different levels of global mindedness as a consequence of participating in exchanges in culturally diverse regions of the world, then this component of the IET model could be confirmed.

To avoid the potentially confounding influence of having participated in other forms of IET, learners whose only experience of IET had been an international exchange were selected (n=101). A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to investigate the effect of participating in culturally different exchange programmes on levels of global mindedness. Levene's test confirmed the assumption of homogeneity of variance, $F(8,92)=2.57$, $p=0.01$. The results are depicted in Table 7.30 and Figure 7.13. There were statistically significant differences at the $p<0.05$ level for three of the regional exchange groups: UK (M=54.7, n=14, SD=7.11); USA/Canada (M=64.33, n=12, SD=7.77), and Europe (M=66.29, n=7, SD=8.26). Furthermore, the effect size calculated using eta squared, is large: $\eta^2=0.18$, indicating that 18% of the total variance in global mindedness scores associated with international exchange programmes is a consequence of the global region of the exchange.

These results clearly support the assumption that in order for global learning to occur, cultural difference needs to be encountered. The lowest GM score is associated with exchanges to the UK. Considering that many of the exclusive schools market their British exchange schools as being of a similar exclusive calibre as themselves (see for example *Hilton College, St Anne's DSG, Kearsney College*), it is not surprising that little global

learning occurs on these programmes. In contrast, the school cultures in the USA and Canada are very different from the South African *IEB* one, with learners experiencing greater personal freedoms and diversity of educational offerings. These cultural differences result in GM scores that are 9.62 points (17.6%) higher than the UK ones. The difference is even greater when European exchanges are considered, with GM scores being 11.57 points (21.2%) higher than the UK exchanges. A significant difference of the European school exchanges is that South African learners experience education through a different language of instruction. These findings support the discussion held with the principal of the school whose learners had the highest mean GM scores (Teacher: School P, 2016), and who only runs exchanges with European schools in order for his learners to experience a very different school culture.

Table 7.30: Comparison of mean GM scores for exchange participants by world region

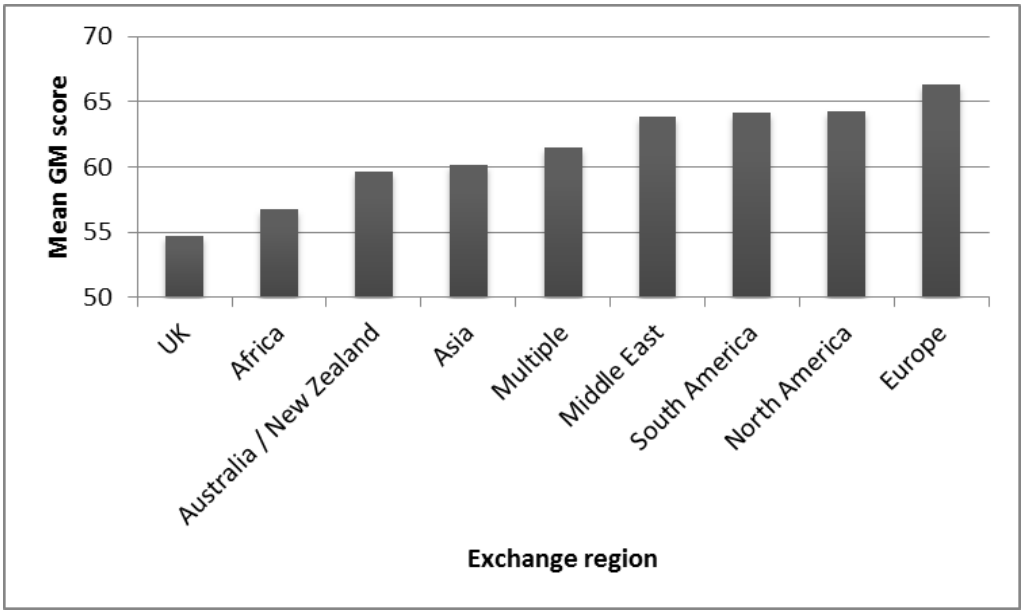
(n=101)

Descriptives

Reduced GM Score 16 items

World Region	N	Mean GM Score	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
UK	14	54.7143	7.10827	1.89976	50.6101	58.8185	36.00	64.00
Australia/ New Zealand	36	59.5556	7.38510	1.23085	57.0568	62.0543	46.00	77.00
North America	12	64.3333	7.77330	2.24396	59.3944	69.2723	48.00	73.00
Europe	7	66.2857	8.26064	3.12223	58.6459	73.9255	55.00	77.00
Middle East	6	63.8333	7.98540	3.26003	55.4532	72.2135	55.00	76.00
South America	6	64.1667	6.27429	2.56147	57.5822	70.7511	57.00	72.00
Asia	6	60.1667	7.93515	3.23951	51.8392	68.4941	51.00	70.00
Africa	4	56.7500	5.25198	2.62599	48.3929	65.1071	49.00	60.00
Multiple	10	61.5000	7.32196	2.31541	56.2622	66.7378	48.00	76.00
Total	101	60.5644	7.84910	.78101	59.0148	62.1139	36.00	77.00

Figure 7.13: Comparison of mean GM scores of learners according to the world region of their exchange programme



Referring back to Table 7.28, these findings demonstrate that international exchange programmes to Europe, North America, South America, the Middle East and Asia all result in higher levels of global mindedness than the mean. Exchanges to Australia and New Zealand, two countries which have similar cultures to South Africa, yield similar results as the mean GM score, indicating no substantial learning occurred as a consequence of going on exchange there. The results are consistent with the observations of Chieffo and Griffiths (2004), Gibson *et al* (2008) and Van 'T Klooster (2014) that the experience of cultural difference encourages global learning. The retaining of the cultural difference requirement in the IET model is thus confirmed.

The need for facilitation of the learning process

The role that facilitation can play in the learning process has already been demonstrated in section 7.8.3, where the impact of different schools in affecting global learning was demonstrated. Evaluating facilitation during past IET experiences is difficult since it requires learners to recall the educational process during previous tours. Furthermore, in many instances of IET, there is no explicit educational component. In lieu of this, learners

were asked to describe the learning environment within their classrooms (see questions 16.1-16.6). It was hypothesised that if a positive relationship could be shown between global mindedness and teaching methods that encourage critical thinking, such as facilitating the asking of difficult questions and encouraging discussion around sensitive topics, then adopting those pedagogies in IET will facilitate the development of global learning. Results of an ANOVA of responses to the six questions are depicted in Table 7.31.

Table 7.31: Results of ANOVA of classroom pedagogies and GM

(n = 1151)

	Question	**Mean GM** Strongly disagree	**Mean GM** Strongly agree	**Significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$)**	**p**	**η^2**
16.1	Our teachers encourage us to ask difficult questions in class.	53.17	61.48	8.31	0.001	0.04
16.2	Our teachers encourage discussions on sensitive topics like race, religion and politics.	56.54	60.43	3.89	0.007	0.01
16.3	I feel comfortable expressing my opinion in classroom discussions.	53.10	60.02	6.91	0.001	0.02
16.4	When we work in groups OUR teachers choose our group members.	55.53	57.66	-	0.764	-
16.5	I prefer doing group assignments with people of a similar background to me.	60.69	57.05	-3.64	0.029	0.05
16.6	Our teachers should focus ONLY on topics that will be tested or examined.	63.93	55.73	-8.21	0.001	0.09

Results for questions 16.1-16.3 all yield statistically significant positive effects between pedagogy and developing global mindedness. Through encouraging the asking of difficult questions and facilitating discussions on sensitive topics, teachers are able to significantly increase global learning in their classrooms: $F(4,1147)=11.80$, $p<0.001$, $\eta^2=0.04$ and $F(4,1147)=2.98$, $p=0.02$, $\eta^2=0.01$. These results are consistent with the findings of Merryfield *et al* (2008) who found that pedagogical practices were more influential in developing GM than the actual content of the curriculum. Furthermore, when teachers provide an environment in which learners feel comfortable expressing themselves, greater global learning occurs, $F(4,1147)=7.14$, $p<0.001$, $\eta^2=0.02$. These findings are depicted in

Figure 7.14. Application of them in the IET context indicates that through educationally appropriate facilitation of the tourism experience and by ensuring that tourists feel comfortable expressing themselves within the group, global learning will occur.

Figure 7.14: Pedagogies which positively affect global learning

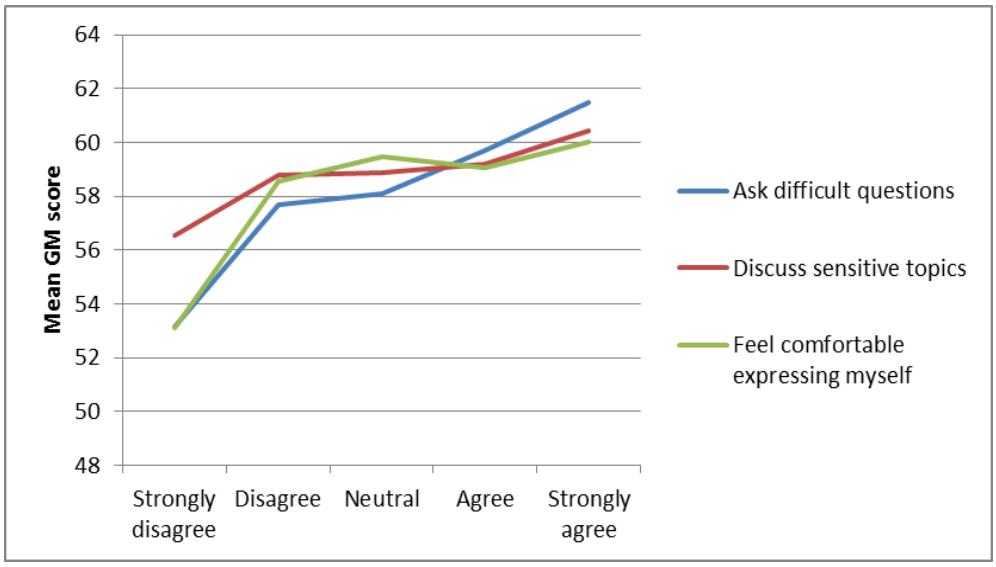
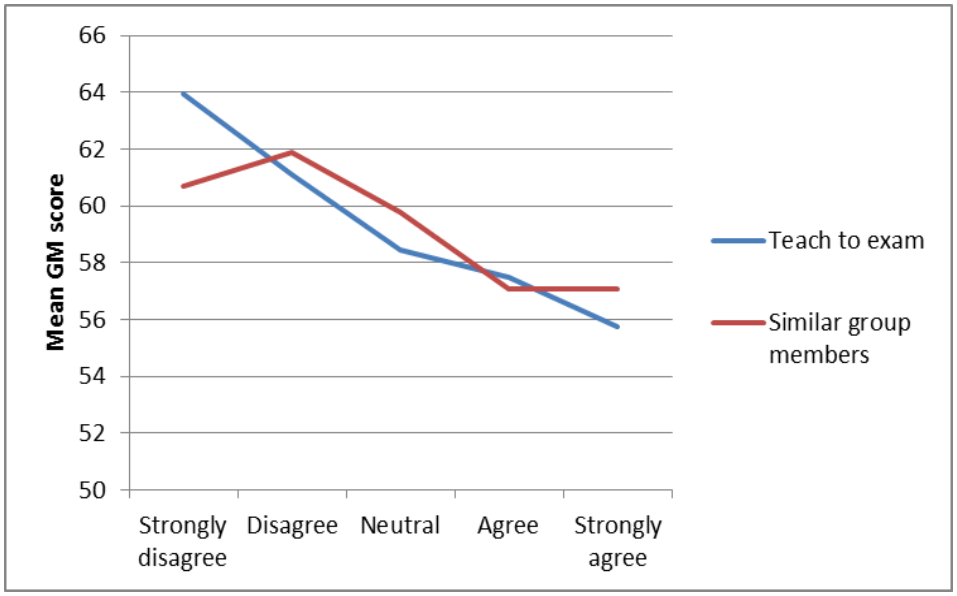


Figure 7.15: Pedagogies which negatively affect global learning



The negative effect of teaching only to the exam, $F(4,1147)=29.51$, $p<0.001$, $\eta^2=0.09$, has already been discussed in relation to the results describing a lack of curiosity and closed mind with regards to learning. In the context of facilitation, learners possessing this disposition will require substantial encouragement to develop global learning and are probably not suited to international educational tourism. Similarly, the negative effect of learners preferring to select their own group members on GM, $F(4,1146)=14.75$, $p<0.001$, $\eta^2=0.05$, suggests a reluctance to engage with difference and may be equated with learners not wishing to leave their comfort zone (Lilley, 2014). In terms of facilitation during school-led IET, teachers could reduce this hindrance to learning by allocating learners to diverse groups of children which do not consist only of their friends. Figure 7.15 depicts these two negative relationships.

7.11.2 The role of experiential learning in IET

The impact of experiential learning was not specifically investigated during the collection of data. The very nature of tourism is that it involves an experience of something different from one's normal life. As such, it can be argued that all tourism is to some extent experiential. In order to make sense of an experience, some form of guidance or facilitation is necessary.

Inferred analysis of the effect of experiential learning on the development of GM can be made if for example the mean GM scores of international *sports tours* and international *adventures* are considered. Both forms of tourism involve physical activity, but the usual manner in which international *sports tours* are conducted is not very different from local domestic sports tours. Children travel to a sporting venue, participate in a tournament then return home. While post-tournament discussion will reflect on the games played, it does not usually extend beyond that. In contrast international *adventures* usually entail considerable pre-departure preparation in terms of learning about the location in which the adventure will occur. Being moved out of one's comfort zone is often a component of the adventure, as are daily debriefs and discussions on the progression of the adventure (Teacher: *School B*, 2016; Teacher: *School J*, 2016; Spirit of Adventure, 2016). The benefits of regular reflection on the experience may be demonstrated through comparison

of the mean GM scores for learners who have participated in international *sports tours* (M=56.29, n=102, SD=8.68), with GM scores of participants of international *adventures* (M=63.65, n=17, SD=4.30), t(117)=3.97, p<0.001. Learner adventurers scored a statistically significant 7.36 points (13.08%) higher than learner sportsmen and women.

The same trend is observed if the mean GM score of children who have participated in international *exchanges* (M=60.95, n=68, SD=6.90) is compared with that of international *sports tours,* t(168)=3.86, p<0.001. International *exchanges* are particularly suited to experiential learning owing to children experiencing what it is like to be a learner in another school for a number of weeks. The high mean GM score of *School P,* which combines a two-week homestay with a European family during their exchange programme, further lends credence to the value of experiential learning. Similarly, comparing mean GM scores across schools for *school-led tours* also demonstrates the benefits of educationally sound tourism. For example, *School C* has a mean GM score that is 25.70% higher than that of *School G* (M=64.65, n=20, SD=9.84 compared with M=51.43, n=14, SD=6.44, respectively, t(32)=3.40, p<0.05). The magnitude of the difference in the mean GM scores between the two schools is extremely large, η^2=0.43. The principal of *School C* attributes the high levels of GM in the school's learners to the discussions held with learners that occur prior to international school-led tours or exchanges; to the integration of the experience into classroom teaching on return from school-led tours, and the requirement of learners who participate in international exchanges to present a slide show on their experiences during the school's assembly (Teacher School C, 2016). This view was confirmed with the vice-principal of another high-scoring school, *School L* (Teacher School L, 2016). The act of preparing a presentation on their IET experience forces learners to reflect on their experience and to draw comparisons between the international destination and their own and in doing so consolidate the global learning that has occurred.

Further analysis of the role of experiential learning in developing global learning is beyond the scope of this thesis. Analysis of the data that has been presented indicates that when teachers perceive of international educational tourism as a process, starting before departure and being reflected upon on return home, that the potential for positive global learning is encouraged.

7.12 SYNOPSIS OF FACTORS WHICH INFLUENCE GLOBAL LEARNING DURING INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL TOURISM

International educational tourism is an experiential process which has the potential to develop global learning when the process is appropriately facilitated. In order for learning to be maximised, there has to be a desire on the part of the participants to want to learn. Learners who possess a curiosity about the destination to which they travel are more likely to exhibit higher levels of global mindedness than their peers who are not comfortable with trying new foods or talking to local people. The most effective way to develop GM is by learning to greet people in the local language and visiting museums, cultural and historical sites. Additionally, talking to local people and visiting places where most tourists do not go to significantly contributes to the development of GM. In total, these four factors account for 35% of the variance in global mindedness in the study population (sum of eta squared = 0.35).

The experience of cultural difference also has a strong positive effect on global learning. Learners who experience cultures which are very different from their own demonstrate higher levels of global mindedness than their peers who have not travelled internationally and also higher than their peers who have travelled to culturally similar destinations such as the UK, Australia or New Zealand. The greatest global learning appears to occur when learners are immersed in schools in which English is not the medium of instruction.

It was not possible to directly assess the impact of facilitation on the IET process. However, analysis of pedagogies that positively facilitate global learning in the classroom demonstrated that encouraging learners to ask difficult questions and to discuss sensitive issues such as race, politics and religion, contributes positively to global mindedness. Furthermore, providing an environment in which learners feel comfortable expressing themselves enhances global learning. These findings suggest that by incorporating age-appropriate facilitation into educational tourism, global learning will be encouraged.

Although not a specific focus of this thesis, comparison of GM scores of different types of IET and also comparison of GM scores across schools indicated that when the

components of experiential learning are integrated into the IET process, there is a greater likelihood of global learning occurring.

In light of these findings, the conceptual model of IET can be considered to accurately encompass the salient features of the process of international educational tourism.

7.13 THE CONTRIBUTION OF INTERNATIONAL TRAVEL TO "BRAIN DRAIN"

The final component of this analysis is to ascertain whether the contention that international travel contributes to "brain drain" from developing nations (Fahey & Kenway, 2010) has any merit. The results of the responses to questions 16.7 and 16.8 are recorded in Table 7.32.

Table 7.32: Relationship between international travel and "brain drain"
(n = 1140)

16.7	I would like to study at an international university.				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Not travelled internationally	1.3%	11.9%	21.9%	27.2%	37.7%
Have travelled internationally	1.9%	9.3%	23.3%	31.4%	34.1%
Weighted % of total population	**11.4%**		**23.1%**	**65.5%**	
16.8	I plan on leaving South Africa once I am qualified.				
Not travelled internationally	6.6%	12.6%	32.5%	20.5%	27.8%
Have travelled internationally	6.2%	10.8%	29.6%	25.3%	28.1%
Weighted % of total population	**17.3%**		**30.0%**	**52.7%**	

An independent samples t-test indicated no significant difference in the desire to study abroad between learners who had travelled internationally (M=3.86, SD=1.06) and those who had not (M=3.88, SD=1.04), t(1147)=0.17, p=0.87(two-tailed). Similarly, no significant difference occurred regarding wanting to leave the country once they are able to, between

learners who had travelled internationally (M=3.53, SD=1.21) and those who had not (M=3.63, SD=1.14), t(1147)=1.42, p=0.16(two-tailed). ANOVA indicated a small but significant negative effect between level of GM and the desire to leave the country: $F(4,1147)=4.33$, $p<0.05$, $\eta^2=0.01$, meaning that as levels of GM increase, learners are less likely to want to leave the country on completion of their studies.

These results indicate that over two thirds of the learners (65.5%) would like to study internationally, suggesting a lack of faith in South Africa's tertiary education system, and over half the learners (52.7%) would like to leave the country once they are qualified. In addition, a further 23.1% and 30.0% respectively are undecided.

While the concept of "brain drain" is a complex one, and an investigation of the phenomenon lies outside the scope of this thesis, these results suggest that a large proportion of learners in the study would like to leave the country. But the results also indicate that international travel does not appear to encourage the desire to leave the country, disproving a concern which has been voiced by some local educators (Hagspihl, 2015).

7.14 SUMMARY

The findings of this thesis are based on the analysis of data collected from 16 of South Africa's most exclusive and expensive independent high schools. A total of 1152 Grade 11 learners participated in the survey at the end of their academic year, during the months of October and November, 2015. Of those learners, 989 of them had travelled internationally and 693 of them had participated in international travel without their parents at least once. Investigation of the demographic profiles of the learners demonstrated that over 90% of all white and Indian learners have travelled internationally. This figure drops to just over 80% for coloured and Asian learners; while only 65% of black learners in the sample population had travelled outside of the country. Slightly more male learners (89.0%) than female learners (83.2%) have travelled internationally.

In order to test the thesis's hypotheses and achieve the research objectives, a global learning survey instrument was developed. While the *global awareness* component of the survey instrument was demonstrated to be reliable, its construct validity was questionable and it showed no correlation with the *global mindedness* part of the survey instrument. In contrast, the *global mindedness* component, when reduced to 16 items, demonstrated reliability and construct validity. For this reason, the *global awareness* component was rejected and the 16-item *global mindedness* component of the survey instrument was adopted as the representative measure of global learning in all further analyses.

A primary objective of this thesis was to empirically test the underpinning assumption of international education theory, that international travel encourages global learning. The results from testing the first hypothesis of the thesis clearly demonstrated no significant difference in levels of global learning between learners who had travelled internationally and those who had not. Thus the underpinning assumption of international education theory was not proven. However, when the data was disaggregated into different categories of international travel, a small but statistically significant difference in levels of global learning resulted between types of international travel that were considered educational (the international educational tourism categories) and those that were not.

Further comparison of global learning amongst the different types of IET indicated substantial differences amongst categories. Participation in international *leadership summits* and *competitions* were associated with the highest levels of global learning, followed by international *adventures* and *service projects*. As a whole, learners who had participated in an international *exchange* programme or *school-led thematic tour* did not demonstrate levels of global learning that differed significantly from the mean. However, when levels of global learning were compared amongst schools, the analysis clearly indicated that schools play a substantial role in influencing the extent to which learning occurs during all forms of IET, explaining 20% of the total variance in global learning.

Another primary objective of the thesis was to develop and test a conceptual model of international educational tourism. For educational tourists who are learners, the analysis identified the desire to learn and the need for facilitation of the learning process as key

requirements of effective global learning. A *travel curiosity factor*, comprising four items was developed and proven to account for 35% of the total variance in global learning scores. Conversely, a negative association existed between global learning and learners who exhibited a closed-mind to trying different things or moving out of their comfort zone. The impact of experiencing cultural difference on global learning was also investigated. When exchange programmes were compared by regions of the world, results indicated that experience of cultural difference positively influences global learning. The findings of the analysis support the model of IET that has been developed.

The final component of the research was to identify factors that might influence global learning which are not related to international travel. Participation in community service projects was shown to be positively correlated with global learning (6% of variance). Participants of community service who are motivated by altruism exhibited substantially higher levels of global mindedness than those who are coerced into participation. Academic achievement and studying a third language both had a small but significant positive effect on global learning, but studying geography was negatively correlated to global learning. These factors were included in the analysis as they indicate an alternative means of developing global learning that is considerably less expensive than international travel and therefore more available to the majority of South African learners.

Through analysis of the data, the research hypotheses have been tested and the objectives achieved. The final chapter of this thesis discusses the findings of the research within the theoretical context of international educational tourism and in terms of the contribution the thesis makes to the academic literature.

CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSION

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Whilst the phenomenon of international educational tourism dates back centuries, conceptual development and empirical testing of the process has been limited. Through the synthesis of four theories, namely: educational tourism, international education, global learning and experiential learning, this thesis has extended the theoretical construct of IET by proposing an alternative conceptual model of IET to Ritchie's (2003) model. Using data collected from 1152 Grade 11 learners in 16 of South Africa's most exclusive independent schools, this thesis provides empirical evidence to test the conceptual model and to support the argument that global learning is an outcome of certain categories of international educational tourism. The study contributes to the literature by considering the phenomenon of international travel amongst high school children rather than the more traditionally studied university student population. Finally, this research is the first of its kind to describe the nature and scope of IET within the South African context.

The chapter commences with a review of the results of testing the thesis's objectives and hypotheses. It then discusses the insights garnered from the research and the academic contributions emanating from the study. The limitations of the thesis are reviewed. The chapter concludes with recommendations for further research in the discipline of international educational tourism.

8.2 REVISITING THE OBJECTIVES AND HYPOTHESES

The thesis was constructed around three interwoven objectives that were stated in Chapter One and are revisited here. Three hypotheses were developed in order to achieve the second objective of the research.

8.2.1 Development of a conceptual model of international educational tourism

The **first objective** was to develop an alternative conceptual model of international educational tourism owing to the perceived limitations of Ritchie's *segmentation model of educational tourism* (Ritchie, 2003). Ritchie's model excludes some sectors of tourism that may be considered to be educational and it does not provide a means by which learning during IET can be assessed. By drawing together pertinent literature originating in the independent but complementary academic disciplines of educational tourism (Árnason, 2010; Campbell-Price, 2014; Pitman *et al,* 2010; Richards, 2011; Ritchie, 2003; Stoner *et al,* 2014, and Van 'T Klooster, 2014), international education (Bennett, 1986; Deardorff & Jones; Knight, 2004; Tarrant *et al,* 2014; Paige & Vande Berg, 2012), global learning (Béneker *et al*, 2013; Béneker *et al*, 2014; DeMello, 2011; Lilley, 2014; Merryfield *et al*, 2008), and experiential learning (Campbell-Price, 2014; Kolb, 1984; Merryfield *et al,* 2008; Pitman *et al,* 2010; Stoner *et al,* 2014; Tarrant *et al,* 2014; Vance *et al,* 2011; Van 'T Klooster, 2014), a model was developed that conceptualises IET as an experiential process, with quantifiable cognitive, affective and behavioural outcomes.

This research is novel in its approach of employing global learning theory to explain the outcomes of IET. In doing so, it highlights the potential of IET programmes to increase social and environmental concern and to encourage the development of transferable skills identified in UNESCO's *Agenda 2030* (UN, 2015). By developing a conceptual process-driven model of IET, this thesis has extended theory into practice and provided a framework against which IET products and services may be developed and assessed. The model is presented in Figure 4.3 of Chapter Four.

8.2.2 Testing international education theory

The last decade has witnessed growing concern in the literature that little empirical evidence exists to support the underpinning assumption of international education theory, namely that international travel results in an increase in intercultural competence and / or global learning (Deardorff & Jones, 2012; Deloach *et al,* 2015; Kenway & Fahey, 2014;

Vande Berg *et al,* 2012; Woolf, 2010). The **second objective** of this thesis was to provide empirical evidence to address this gap in the literature by testing international education theory. In order to achieve this, a method for quantifying global learning needed to be developed. This thesis extended conventional methods of measuring global learning employed by international educators. Instead of relying on essentially anecdotal evidence from participants of IET self-identifying their personal growth, this study incorporated components of Béneker *et al's* (2013 & 2014) *global mindedness* scale into a *global learning* survey instrument. Although the *global awareness* component of the survey instrument could not be conclusively validated, the *travel curiosity factor* and the *global mindedness* scale were confirmed to be reliable and internally valid. Consequently, the *global mindedness* scale of the survey instrument was used as a measure of global learning against which the three hypotheses related to international education theory were tested.

Results of testing the **first hypothesis** (**H_1**) confirmed the concern in contemporary literature that global learning is not an automatic consequence of international travel. No significant difference in levels of global learning was found to exist between learners who had travelled internationally and those who had not. However, when learners who had travelled internationally were divided according to whether their international travels could be considered as educational or not, a small but statistically significant difference was found, with learners who had participated in IET exhibiting higher levels of global learning than those who had not. These results which accrued from testing the **second hypothesis** (**H_2**) provided evidence that international educational travel does contribute towards global learning.

The thesis then advanced IET theory by providing insight regarding the types of IET which are associated with the highest levels of global learning. Results of the **final hypothesis** (**H_3**) showed, in descending order, that participation in international leadership summits, competitions, adventures and service programmes all were associated with higher levels of global learning than the population mean. The research also demonstrated the significant and substantial role that individual schools can play in affecting the outcomes of IET. The extent of global learning during international exchanges and school-led thematic

tours was shown to be strongly influenced by the schools' ethos and pedagogies. Finally, the research also demonstrated that global learning is enhanced when IET occurs in environments that are culturally different from the learners' usual ones.

8.2.3 International educational tourism within South African high schools

Through analysis of the websites of the 67 most expensive independent high schools and the 40 state schools which had been independently ranked as providing the best education in the country, the extent of IET opportunities that are on offer to learners at those schools was investigated. The research found that contrary to existing literature (Kenway & Fahey, 2014; Rizvi, 2014) South African exclusive schools do not appear to use IET as a form of marketing to provide a competitive edge over other similar schools. Corroboration of the schools' websites with data collected during the survey demonstrated that the country's exclusive schools offer considerably more IET opportunities than they advertise.

This thesis represents the first time that a national survey of IET in South African schools has been undertaken. The findings indicate that IET is a phenomenon of only the most expensive schools within the country that charged annual school fees over R54 000 in 2015. 75% of those schools offer international exchanges, with partner schools being predominantly located in the UK and other Anglophone countries. 45% of schools run regular school-led thematic tours, with the most popular destinations being the USA and Europe. Sports tours are the third most popular type of international tourism. Although it was demonstrated that international sports tours are not associated with any form of global learning, the international destinations of sports tours are far more diverse than either exchanges or thematic tours and in addition to North America and Europe, include South America and Australasia. Only 16% of the schools encourage their learners to participate in youth leadership summits and / or international service projects and the majority of learners who do are enrolled in *Round Square* member schools.

When the demographics of the 16 exclusive independent schools are considered, the findings demonstrated that 85.9% of all learners in the sample population had travelled

internationally. Over 90% of all white and Indian learners have travelled outside the country, but this figure drops to approximately 84% of all Asian and coloured learners and only 64.6% of black learners. Approximately 43.5% of all the learners have participated in at least one form of IET.

Although not the focus of this thesis, comparison of the racial demographic of the learners in exclusive schools with the national cohort of children their age, indicates that economic exclusivity, or "class", has become a substitute for race in many of South Africa's most expensive schools. White learners comprise only 5.9% of the national cohort, yet represent 68.9% of learners in these schools. Conversely, only 19.0% of the learners in exclusive schools are black, despite comprising 83.5% of the national cohort. This observation supports the literature that exclusive schools are elitist (Epstein, 2014; Kenway & Fahey, 2014; Tate, 2013; Weis, 2014; Williams, 2013), and cater to the demands made by parents of the dominant social class.

8.3 RESEARCH INSIGHTS AND CONTRIBUTIONS

This thesis has made significant contributions to the literature and the findings also have practical applications in industry. By conceptualising educational tourism as a process rather than a segment of tourism, it provides the means by which educational tourism practices can be integrated into many different segments of tourism and in doing so add value to services and products. Identifying the need for facilitation of the educational tourism process provides insight regarding how educational tourism experiences should be structured to maximise learning. And the recognition of the importance of participants wanting to learn during educational tourism can be employed to help identify the most suitable candidates for school-based forms of IET.

This thesis has also provided empirical evidence to support international education theory and in doing so has proposed an alternative methodology for assessing global learning resulting from IET. It has identified the types of IET that are offered in South Africa's most exclusive schools, but has also discovered other non-travel related factors which encourage global learning. The latter has particular significance in a country where the

majority of learners cannot afford to participate in international tourism. These and other insights that have emanated from this research are now considered.

8.3.1 Conceptual model of educational tourism as a process

Through developing, then providing empirical evidence to support, an alternative model of the educational tourism and IET process, this thesis makes a substantial contribution to the educational tourism literature. The components of the IET model that provide fresh insight on IET are presented next.

Educational tourism as a process

The first and one of the most important contributions this thesis makes is by proposing a model of educational tourism that considers the phenomenon as a process rather than as a unique segment or sector of tourism. This reconceptualization of educational tourism and IET is liberating as it overcomes the limitations associated with trying to define the parameters of educational tourism, which invariably result in the exclusion of some aspects of tourism that could be considered educational. By applying the typology of educational tourism that is proposed in Figure 4.1, educational tourism can be hybridised with other sectors of tourism, thus adding value and broadening the tourism market. Furthermore, the checklist matrix for IET that has been developed (see Figure 4.4) provides a guide by which specific global skills and knowledge areas can be incorporated into IET as potentially measurable outcomes of the process.

Travel curiosity factor

The proposed model of IET makes further contributions to the literature. The *travel curiosity factor* (TCF) that was developed is based on the work of the Finnish Agency for Mobility (CIMO, in de Oliveira Andreotti *et al,* 2015), Deardorff and Jones (2012), Li *et al* (2013), Lilly (2010) and Pitman *et al* (2012). Through the synthesis of their work a TCF was developed and empirically tested in this thesis. The results of this research indicate a statistically significant positive correlation between the TCF and global mindedness. Conversely, possessing a closed-mind to new experiences was demonstrated to be counter-productive to developing global mindedness. In other words, this thesis provides

evidence which proves that possessing a personality which is curious about other cultures and environments is a prerequisite for successful global learning. It is recommended that the TCF could be used as part of the screening process in schools when selecting suitable candidates to participate in international exchange programmes. Or at the very least, used as a means to identify candidates with personality traits that would benefit from intervention during IET to encourage global learning.

The need to experience cultural difference

Through demonstrating that greater global learning occurs when cultural differences are experienced, this thesis has provided empirical evidence to support theory in international education (Bennett, 1986; Deardorff, 2006; DeLoach *et al*, 2015); educational tourism (Pitman *et al,* 2010; Van 'T Klooster, 2014), and global learning (Lilley, 2014; Merryfield *et al,* 2008). Higher levels of global learning were demonstrated to occur when learners visited regions of the world where English is not the *lingua franca.* In contrast, countries with similar cultures to South Africa, for example: Australia, New Zealand and the UK, were associated with the least global learning.

The need for facilitation

Another significant insight garnered from this study is the need for facilitation of the IET process if global learning is to occur. Using classroom pedagogical practices as a proxy for appropriate educational practices during IET, the research has demonstrated that where teachers facilitate the asking of difficult questions and discussion of sensitive topics, greater global learning occurs. As a proviso to this however, the research indicated the need for learners to feel comfortable expressing their personal opinions. Applying these results to the IET process, teachers or expert tour guides can enhance the learning process by facilitating robust discussions around tourism experiences that are age / educational-level appropriate and by ensuring that all educational tourists perceive the tourist destination as a safe space in which to ask questions and express their opinions.

Benefits of experiential learning

The findings of this thesis are consistent with those of advocates for experiential learning (Campbell-Price, 2014; DeMello, 2011; Stoner *et* al, 2014; Tarrant *et al,* 2014; Vance *et* al,

2011; Van 'T Klooster, 2014). Analysis of the relative strengths of different categories of IET in encouraging global learning, indicated that those which comprised a strong experiential and in particular reflective component, such as international adventures and leadership summits, scored higher in terms of global learning than categories which were more observational and less facilitated, such as some forms of school-led thematic tours and exchange programmes. Discussions with school principals and teacher-facilitators of IET confirmed this finding, that when learners are actively engaged with the global learning process of IET, from pre-departure preparation to post-tour reflection on the experience, substantially more global learning appears to occur. Furthermore, the data collected from the school with the highest mean GM score, *School P*, suggest that facilitated experience of cultural difference , for example in the form of attending non-English medium schools and living with families whose home-language is not English, positively contributes to global learning.

8.3.2 Empirical evidence to support theory

Having contributed to the literature through the development of a conceptual model of IET, a second and significant contribution of this thesis is that the research has provided empirical evidence to support the underpinning assumption of international education, and by association international educational tourism theory, namely that global learning may occur as a consequence of international travel. Furthermore, unlike other research that has addressed this gap in the literature by employing qualitative studies involving relatively small numbers of participants (see for example Campbell-Price, 2014; DeMello, 2011), or surveys that require participants to self-identify perceived learning during their international experiences (see for example: Deloach *et al,* 2015; Kurt *et al,* 2013; Van 'T Klooster, 2014), the results of this thesis are based on the quantitative analysis of 1152 participants, 989 of whom had participated in international travel.

This thesis has empirically demonstrated that global learning is positively correlated with international educational tourism and that certain categories of IET are more conducive to global learning than others. Global learning is enhanced when cultural difference is experienced. The study has also demonstrated that the most effective learning occurs

when the process of learning is facilitated and when participants possess the desire to learn and feel comfortable expressing their opinions within the learning environment.

8.3.3 The need to reconceptualise global learning

The findings of this thesis question some of the underlying assumptions in the literature regarding global learning and suggest the need for a reconceptualization of the concept. Specifically three areas of concern arose, related to the manner in which global learning progresses; the requirement of possessing a global worldview over a national or local one and the observation that measures of global mindedness may be biased towards girls and prejudice boys.

Global learning as a progression

Firstly, global learning is usually depicted as occurring along a progression (see Figure 3.1). No correlation was found between global awareness and global mindedness amongst the learners. This is most likely a function of the ineffectiveness of the global awareness instrument in measuring the construct. However, a definite trend emerged in the findings: learners had very short-term memories of global events. Recall of events dropped from 88.6% for an event which had happened in the same month as the survey, to 63.3% for something which had happened in the previous month, to a mere 16.8% for a major global event which had occurred six months earlier. Employing traditional thinking with regards to global learning theory, the findings would suggest that since learners are unable to remember significant global events, which included massive earthquakes and the deaths of thousands of people, then it is unlikely that they will develop a more globally caring or empathetic disposition and it is highly improbable that they will be moved to alter their behaviour to reflect a more cosmopolitan hospitality. Yet despite this apparent lack of global awareness, learners' indicated that they do believe they can make a difference in terms of the problems of the world and significant variations in levels of global mindedness were exhibited by the study population. These findings thus suggest that in adolescents at least, one may not necessarily have to be globally aware to exhibit characteristics of global mindedness. In other words, global learning does not have to develop along a progression.

A worldview versus a national one

The second challenge to the concept of global mindedness is with regards to whether possessing a worldview over a national or local one is necessarily indicative of the behavioural and cognitive characteristics that are associated with global competence. The findings of this research demonstrate that learners are concerned about global issues and feel empowered to make a difference, but at the same time are ambivalent regarding lowering their standard of living or sharing their wealth with less fortunate people. These findings complement the research of Béneker *et al* (2013:330), who found that European learners disagreed with all statements on the global mindedness scale that went against their personal rights or national interests. This thesis thus challenges the assumption that a worldview is preferable to a national or local one and instead concurs with the findings of Gibson *et al* (2008), Israel (2013), Merryfield *et al* (2008), Toumi *et al* (2008) and Torres (2015), that global citizenship represents an additional layer of responsibility. In other words, it is possible to exhibit characteristics of cosmopolitan hospitality and to modify one's behaviour to reflect a more socially and environmentally responsible attitude without necessarily abandoning one's local or national allegiances. Global learning and local or national identity do not need to be mutually exclusive.

Gender bias in global mindedness

The final challenge to the concept of global mindedness results from the findings that girls scored on average 15% higher than boys on the global mindedness scale. This observation has also been observed in three other studies which used variations of the GM measuring instrument that was employed in this thesis (Béneker *et al*, 2014; Hett, 1993; Lope, 2014). Again, this could be a consequence of adolescent boys maturing emotionally later than girls. However, it could also indicate that the concept of global mindedness, or just the wording of the items that comprise the GM scale, are biased towards girls. Further investigation of this observation is outside the scope of this thesis, but it merits future scrutiny.

8.3.4 Extending international education theory from tertiary to secondary education

In Chapter One, it was stated that the application of international education theory is limited to tertiary-level education and in fact proponents of international education theory specify tertiary-level education as a prerequisite in their definitions of the subject (Deardorff & Jones, 2012; Knight, 2004). A contribution of this thesis is that it has extended international education theory by applying it at the high school, or secondary-level of education. With the possible exception that more tertiary-level international education is for academic credit than that of high schools, there is no difference in the process or objectives of international educational travel at the two educational levels. By adapting the measuring instruments used by practitioners of global learning theory, which is predominantly a school-level construct, this thesis has provided the means by which the outcomes of international education theory can be empirically assessed. In doing so, it has responded to the call of international educators (Kenway & Fahey, 2014; Vande Berg *et al*, 2012), to provide empirical evidence to support the underlying assumption of international education theory.

8.3.5 Alternatives to IET for developing global learning

When surveying the websites of South African schools to identify international educational tourism opportunities, it became very evident that IET is a pursuit of only the extremely wealthy children in the country. Of the approximately 28 000 schools in South Africa, only 6% (1681 schools) are independent and most of those are run as not-for-profit organisations (Kane-Berman, 2014; Ndebele, 2016). Analysis of the websites of all the country's most exclusive independent schools demonstrated that only 31 of them (0.1% of the total schools in South Africa) offer IET. Therefore, the final contribution of this thesis was to identify alternative means of developing global mindedness that do not require international travel and thus are more accessible to the majority of South African school children.

Although previous studies found a positive correlation between global mindedness and taking an active interest in the news (Adjutant *et al,* 2014; Holm & Farber, 2002), no such relationship was observed amongst South African learners. However, this survey did not ask learners to specify the type of news they observe, which may have influenced the findings. Studying a third language and academic achievement both have a very small positive effect on global learning, whilst studying geography has the opposite effect and actually results in relatively lower levels of global mindedness. The latter finding is of particular concern as it completely contradicts the desired outcomes of the national geography curriculum (see Department of Basic Education, 2011:8). However, addressing the shortfalls of the geography curriculum is beyond the scope of this thesis.

The most significant and substantial factor that can influence global learning is participation in community service programmes. Furthermore, mean GM scores for participation in local community service programmes did not differ from those for participation in IET service programmes. Participating as infrequently as once or twice per term is associated with higher levels of GM compared with learners who do not take part in community service, and GM increases further with increased frequency of participation. However, just as it has been demonstrated that learning during IET only occurs if learners *want to learn*, so too do the results of this thesis indicate that global learning only occurs during community service if learners believe it is *the right thing to do.* In other words, for learners who are motivated by altruistic reasons, participating in local community service programmes can be just as effective as participation in international educational tourism. In fact, it may be associated with higher levels of global learning than many school-led international tours or exchanges. The challenge is for educators to convince learners who are not altruistically minded of the benefits of community service both to the learners and to the communities with which they partner.

8.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The research strategy employed in this thesis was a cross-sectional analysis. One of the reasons for adopting this approach was owing to the ethical considerations of anonymity on behalf of the children who participated in the study. Whilst the findings of this thesis

clearly indicate different levels of global mindedness associated with different categories of international educational tourism, it is limited because it cannot with absolute certainty identify causality because the time-order criterion for causality is difficult to prove. For example, does participation in an international youth leadership summit make one more globally minded, or is it because one is more globally minded that one chooses to participate in such a summit? In order to conclusively determine causality, a longitudinal study is required, involving measures of global learning before and after IET.

Another possible limitation of the research relates to the recruitment strategy used to identify participating schools. Because the primary objective of this thesis was to investigate the relationship between international educational tourism and global learning in South African learners, only those schools that offer IET were included in the study population. Owing to the dualistic nature of the South African education system and the fact that over 87% of all state schools are non-fee paying and located in economically weak communities (Ndebele, 2016), it was assumed that parents of learners in those schools would not be able to afford the expenses involved with the luxury of international travel. This assumption was supported by the finding that only six of the top 40 most expensive fee-paying state schools advertise IET opportunities on their websites. It is feasible that within the non-fee paying state schools there exist a few children who have travelled internationally, but it is improbable. The survey-based quantitative methodology employed for this thesis necessitated a large number of IET participants, hence only the most expensive schools that offer IET were considered. To avoid the potentially confounding influence of curriculum on global learning, exclusive schools that offer the Cambridge International Curriculum were excluded. All 47 South African schools that met the sampling frame criteria of teaching the IEB curriculum and charging tuition fees of over R54,000 per annum, were invited to participate in the study. In other words, no sampling strategy was employed. As a result, bias may have been introduced because the principals of schools self-selected whether or not they wished their learners to participate. It is possible therefore that sampling bias may have been introduced into the study, with only those schools that had had positive experiences with IET electing to participate in the research.

The manner in which the data were collected may have influenced the findings. By relying on staff members of the participating schools to administer the questionnaire to their learners, uniformity of the conditions under which the survey was completed could not be assured. Although all staff members were requested to administer the survey to their learners according to the stipulated requirements, results of the *global awareness* component of the survey instrument suggest that collaboration on that part of the questionnaire may have occurred, rendering that part of the study invalid.

Despite these limitations, the large number of participants (1152) and the essentially quantitative methodology and positivist approach adopted in this thesis, has resulted in the presentation of a comprehensive range of statistically significant findings related to the relationship between international educational tourism and global learning amongst South African Grade 11 learners. The benefit of complementing the study with qualitative research is considered in the next section.

8.5 FUTURE RESEARCH

In light of the discussion in the previous section regarding the limitations of a cross-sectional research strategy in determining causality of IET on global learning, it is recommended that future research prioritises adopting a longitudinal research strategy to address the time-order concern and to corroborate the findings of this thesis.

This thesis has identified different categories of school-based international educational tourism and proposed an alternative model of IET. It would be interesting to investigate the application of the model to these different types of IET in order to develop appropriate and effective global learning strategies for the different categories of international educational tourism. Related to this, the integration of qualitative research to gain deeper insight regarding learners' motivational factors for participation in IET, as well as their experiences during different types of IET and their perceptions of personal growth in global learning, would add substantial value to, and complement, this essentially quantitative study. It is also proposed that the employment of qualitative research is especially suited to evaluating the affective outcomes of the conceptual model of IET.

Analysis of the findings of this study has raised issues regarding perceptions in the literature that global learning occurs progressively. The results of this thesis indicate that learners may be concerned about global issues without necessarily being particularly globally aware. However, this observation may be merely a result of a survey instrument that does not accurately measure the phenomenon of global awareness. It is thus suggested that future research refines the survey instrument and also interrogates the definitions of and relationships between global awareness, global mindedness and global competence. Related to this, the dilemma between the relevance of possessing a worldview compared with a national or local one needs further consideration.

Finally, the fact that this thesis supports the findings of two other international studies that school geography curricula negatively affect the development of global mindedness should cause serious concern amongst geography educators and definitely warrants further investigation.

8.6 CONCLUSION

This thesis was developed around three interwoven objectives: to propose an alternative model of international educational tourism as an experiential process; to provide empirical evidence to support the underpinning assumption of international education theory that global learning occurs as a consequence of international travel, and to explore the extent of international educational tourism within South African high schools. The thesis has achieved those objectives. A conceptual model has been developed and shown to encompass the salient features of international educational tourism. IET has been demonstrated to be associated with higher levels of global learning than non-educational international travel, and statistically significant variations in levels of global learning were found across different categories of IET.

From a South African perspective, where the majority of learners cannot afford to participate in international tourism, the fact that this thesis has shown that learners who possess an altruistic disposition also have high levels of global mindedness is encouraging, as it demonstrates the potential to develop global learning through the

nurturing of more caring attitudes in learners. Participation in insightfully constructed community service programmes can provide the means for achieving that objective. However, for the fortunate few learners whose parents can afford to send them on international educational tours, this thesis has demonstrated that done well, when the entire process is facilitated to encourage reflection, international educational tourism provides a wonderful opportunity to experience life in a different country and in doing so, to inspire learners towards becoming more socially and environmentally responsible young people.

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APPENDIX A: Components of a global learning curriculum

Key concepts	Skills and competences	Values and attitudes
• critical and active world citizenship • global interdependence (between people, social groups, nations); global change • cultural diversity • agency • multiple identities and loyalties • social justice and equity • human rights • social responsibilities • dynamic cultures • culture and conflict • conflict resolution • majority and minority cultures • sustainable development	• development of critical thinking • ability to actively and justly resolve conflicts • skill to evaluate the role of the media in their portrayal of the world • ability to critically analyse various media sources • appreciate the importance of actions aimed at achieving peace and the development of peoples • recognize the importance of laws and international agencies in conflict resolution • develop a critical attitude toward the unequal distribution of development and rejection of inequalities between individuals and peoples of the world • understand the world as a interconnected global community with its political, economic, social and environmental implications • active participation and contribution to the community at different levels - from the local to the global • takes into account multiple perspectives for explaining situations, events, etc. • respects customs and ways of life different than their own and can express solidarity with the people and collectives in disadvantaged situations	• commitment to social justice and equity • respects and values diversity • concern for the environment • a sense of identity (multiple, nested, overlapping identities) • takes responsibility for their actions • highly motivated for change and willing to influence decision-making processes at global and local levels in addition to effects on individuals' lives • empathy for feelings, needs and lives of others in different countries • respect for cultural diversity

(Source: Toumi *et al*, 2008:9)

APPENDIX B: Top South African state schools included in the web-based survey

Website survey for evidence of international tourism (IT) opportunities for learners.

Survey undertaken during February-March, 2016.

Inclusion criterion: must be included in either the *Fairlady Top 25 Government Schools* list or the *20 Most Expensive State Schools in 2016* list. (N=40)

	PROVINCE	Boy/Girl Co-ed	IT offered	WEBSITE
	Eastern Cape			
1	Clarendon High School for Girls	G	Y	http://www.clarendonschools.co.za/high
2	Collegiate Girls' High School	G	N	www.collegiatehigh.co.za/
3	Grey High School	B	Y	http://greyhighschool.com/
4	Queen's College	B	N	http://portal.queenscollege.co.za/
5	Victoria Girls' High School	G	N	www.vghs.co.za/
6	Selborne College	B	N	www.selborne.co.za/
	Free State			
1	*C & N Oranje Meisieskool*	G	N	www.oranjemeisies.co.za/
2	Eunice High School	G	N	www.eunice.co.za/
	Gauteng			
1	*Afrikaans Hoër Meisieskool*	G	N	www.ahmp.co.za/
2	*Afrikaans Hoër Seunskool*	B	N	www.affies.co.za/
3	Greenside High School	C	N	www.greensidehigh.co.za/
4	*Hoërskool Noordheuwel*	C	N	www.nories.co.za/
5	Hyde Park High School	C	N	www.hydepark.gp.school.za/
6	King Edward VII School	B	N	www.kesnet.co.za/
7	Northcliff High School	C	N	www.northcliffhigh.co.za/
8	Parktown Boys' High School	B	N	www.parktownboys.co.za/
9	Pretoria High School for Girls	G	N	www.phsg.org.za/

	PROVINCE	Boy/Girl Co-ed	IT offered	WEBSITE
	KwaZulu Natal			
1	Danville Park Girls' High School	G	N	www.danville.co.za/
2	Durban Girls' High School	B	Y	www.dghs.co.za/
3	Durban High School	G	N	www.durbanhighschool.co.za/
4	Hillcrest High School	C	N	www.hhs.co.za/
5	Maritzburg College	B	N	http://www.maritzburgcollege.org.za/
6	Northland's Girls' High School	G	N	www.nghs.co.za/
7	Northwood School	B	N	www.northwoodschool.co.za/
8	Pietermaritzburg Girls' High School	G	N	www.ghspmb.co.za/
9	Westville Boys' High School	B	N	www.wbhs.co.za/
10	Westville Girls' High School	G	N	http://www.wghs.co.za/
	Limpopo			
	None			
	Mpumalanga			
	None			
	North West			
	None			
	Northern Cape			
1	*Hoërskool Duineveld*	C	N	www.duineveld.co.za/
2	*Hoërskool Hopetown*	C	N	http://hshopetown.co.za/
	Western Cape			
1	*Hoërskool DF Malan*	C	Y	dfmalan.com/
2	*Hoërskool Durbanville*	C	N	www.durbanvillehs.co.za/
3	*Hoër Meisieskool Bloemhof*	G	N	www.bloemhofschool.co.za/
4	*La Rochelle Meisies* / Girls	G	Y	www.larries.co.za/
5	Paarl Girls' High / *Hoër Meisieskool Paarl*	G	N	www.paarlgirlshigh.org.za/
6	Rhenish Girls' High School	G	N	www.rhenish.co.za/
7	Rondebosch Boys' High School	B	N	www.rondebosch.com/high/
8	Rustenberg Girls' High School	G	N	www.rghs.org.za/
9	SA College High School	B	N	sacshigh.org.za/
10	Westerford High School	C	N	www.westerford.co.za/
11	Wynberg Boys' High School	B	N	www.wbhs.org.za/

APPENDIX C: Exclusive ISASA member schools included in the web-based survey

Website survey for evidence of international tourism (IT) opportunities for learners.

Survey undertaken during February-March, 2016.

Inclusion criterion: must have annual tuition fees of at least R54 000. (N=67)

	PROVINCE	Boy/Girl Co-ed	IT offered	WEBSITE
	Eastern Cape			
1	Kingswood College	C	Y	http://www.kingswoodcollege.com/
2	Merrifield College	C	N	http://mpsc.co.za/
3	St Andrew's College	B	Y	http://www.sacschool.com/
4	St George's College	C	Y	www.stgeorges.co.za/
5	The Diocesan School for Girls	G	Y	www.dsgschool.com/
6	Woodridge College	C	Y	www.woodridge.co.za/
	Gauteng			
1	Beaulieu College	C	N	www.beaulieucollege.org/
2	Bishop Bavin College	C	N	www.bishopbavin.co.z
3	Brescia House School	G	Y	www.brescia.co.za/
4	Cornwall Hill College	C	Y	www.cornwall.co.za/
5	Dainfern College	C	Y	www.dainferncollege.co.za/
6	*Deutsche International Schule*	C	N	www.dsj.co.za/
7	*Helpmekaar Kollege*	C	N	www.helpmekaar.co.za/
8	HeronBridge College	C	N	heronbridgecollege.co.za/
9	Holy Rosary School	G	N	www.holyrosaryschool.co.za/
10	Kingsmead College	G	Y	kingsmead.co.za/
11	*Leeuwenhof Akademie*	C	N	www.leeuwenhof.co.za/
12	Marist Brothers, Linmeyer High School	C	Y	www.maristbl.co.za/
13	Redhill High School	C	N	www.redhill.co.za/high-school
14	Roedean School	G	Y	www.roedeanschool.co.za/
15	SAHETI School	C	N	www.saheti.co.za/
16	School of Merit Private School	C	N	www.schoolofmerit.co.za/
17	St Alban's College	B	Y	www.stalbanscollege.com/
18	St Andrew's School for Girls	G	N	www.standrews.co.za/
19	St David's Marist	B	N	www.stdavids.co.za/
20	St John's College	B	N	www.stjohnscollege.co.za/
21	St Martin's School	C	N	www.stmartin.co.za/
22	St Mary's Diocesan School for Girls	G	Y	www.stmarys.pta.school.za/
23	St Mary's School	G	Y	www.stmarysschool.co.za/
24	St Peter's College	C	Y	www.stpeters.co.za/
25	St Stithian's Boys' College	B	Y	http://www.stithian.com/boys-college/
26	St Stithian's Girls' College	G	N	www.stithian.com/girls-college/
27	St Ursula's High School	C	N	www.stursulas.co.za/
28	Yeshiva College	C	Y	www.yeshivacollege.co.za/

	PROVINCE	Boy/Girl Co-ed	IT offered	WEBSITE
	Free State			
	None			
	KwaZulu Natal			
1	Clifton College	B	Y	www.cliftonschool.co.za/
2	Creston College	C	N	www.crestoncollege.co.za/
3	Durban Girls' College	G	Y	www.dgc.co.za/
4	Epworth Independent HS for Girls	G	Y	www.epworth.co.za/
5	Grace College	C	N	www.gracecollege.co.za/
6	Hilton College	B	Y	www.hiltoncollege.com/
7	Kearsney College	B	Y	www.kearsney.com/
8	Michaelhouse	B	Y	https://www.michaelhouse.org/
9	South African Jockey Academy	C	N	www.saja.co.za/
10	St Anne's Diocesan College	G	Y	http://stannes.co.za//
11	St John's Diocesan School for Girls	G	Y	www.stjohnsdsg.com/
12	St Henry's Marist College	C	N	www.sthenrys.co.za/
13	St Mary's Diocesan school for Girls	G	N	www.stmarysdsg.co.za/
14	St Patrick's College	C	N	www.stpatrickscollege.co.za/
15	The Wykeham Collegiate	G	N	www.twc.org.za/
16	Thomas More College	C	N	www.thomasmore.co.za/
17	Treverton College	C	N	www.treverton.co.za/
	Limpopo			
1	Southern Cross School	C	N	southerncrossschool.co.za/
2	Stanford Lake College	C	Y	www.slc.co.za/
3	Waterberg Academy	C	N	www.waterbergacademy.co.za/
	Mpumalanga			
1	Penryn College	C	N	www.penryn.co.za/
2	Uplands College	C	N	www.uplands.co.za/
	North West			
1	International School of South Africa	C	N	www.issa.co.za/
	Northern Cape			
	None			
	Western Cape			
1	Bishops Diocesan College	B	Y	www.bishops.org.za/
2	Bridge House	C	Y	www.bridgehouse.org.za/
3	Elkanah House	C	N	elkanah.co.za/campuses/high-school/
4	Herschel Girls' School	G	Y	www.herschel.org.za/
5	Herzlia High School	C	N	www.herzlia.com/high-school/
6	Hout Bay International School	C	N	houtbay.iesedu.com/
7	Oakhill School	C	N	www.oakhill.co.za/
8	Parklands College	C	N	www.parklands.co.za/
9	Somerset College	C	Y	http://somersetcollege.org/
10	St Cyprian's School	G	Y	http://stcyprians.co.za/

APPENDIX D: Survey instrument

Please turn to next page to view.

Thank you for participating in this study of global issues and student travel in South Africa.

*Please **DO NOT** write your name anywhere on this form. The entire survey should take you less than 30 minutes to complete.*

1. Please put a ✓ in the blocks which describe you**.**

Female	Male

Asian	Black	Coloured	Indian	White

Age (years +months)

2. In which country were you born? _____

3. What language/s do you speak at home? _____

4. If you are studying a third language for matric, please name it. _____

5. Are you studying Geography as a matric subject? _____

6. What was your overall aggregate in your mid- year exams?

Less than 50%	50-59%	60-69%	70-79%	80-89%	90%+

7a) What is your **MAIN** source of news?

Social media	TV	Newspaper	Radio	Parents	Teachers

b) How often do you watch/read/listen to the news?

Almost never	1-2 times per month	1x per week	2-3 times per week	Most days

8a) **THIS YEAR**, approximately how many times have you participated in an outreach / community service program?

I haven't	1-2 times	1-2 times per term	1x per week	more than 1x per week

b) If applicable, briefly describe what you do for outreach / community service.

c) If applicable, **WHY** do you participate in outreach / community service?

9. If you have you ever **ATTENDED SCHOOL** in another country please complete this table.

Country	**Your age when there**	**Approximate time spent at school** (months)

10. How many TIMES have you visited each of the following continents?

		Never	Once	Twice	3 times	4 times	5 or more times
1	Other African countries						
2	North America						
3	South America						
4	Europe (including UK)						
5	Asia						
6	Australasia (including New Zealand)						

11. In TOTAL, how many **COUNTRIES** have you ever spent more than one day? _____

12a) Have you ever travelled **OUTSIDE** South Africa **WITHOUT** your parents? _____

b) If your answer was YES, please complete this table:

	Reason (eg: school exchange, sports or cultural tour, Rotary, etc)	**Country/countries visited**	**Approximate number of weeks**
1			
2			
3			
4			

13. For each statement, put a ✓ in the response that best reflects your opinion regarding what you like to do when you travel AWAY FROM HOME on holiday.

When I'm on holiday I …		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	like to shop in the international brand stores.					
2	prefer to eat food that I am familiar with rather than local food.					
3	like to visit places that most tourists DON'T go to.					
4	like to visit museums and historical or cultural sites.					
5	enjoy talking to local people.					
6	enjoy making friends with people from similar backgrounds to me who are also on holiday.					
7	try and learn how to greet people in the local language.					

14. Please provide a **ONE** or **TWO WORD** answer to each of the following questions.

1. How many countries share a border with South Africa? _____
2. Who is the current leader of the DA (Democratic Alliance) Party? _____
3. Which region of Africa (north, south, east, west, central) has the most Ebola cases?_____
4. In which African country have hundreds of school girls been abducted?_____
5. From which country do MOST of the refugees / migrants in Europe come? _____
6. In which Asian country did earthquakes kill thousands of people this year? _____
7. Which former Olympic athlete announced they were transgender this year? _____
8. Which country has the most people online? _____
9. On which planet in our solar system has water recently been discovered? _____
10. In which country were 15 fossilised skeletons of a new species, that is consider to be an ancestor to Humans, discovered this year? _____

15. In your opinion, what is the BIGGEST PROBLEM facing the WORLD today? _____

_____

16. For each statement, please put a ✓ in the response that best reflects your opinion.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	Our teachers encourage us to ask difficult questions in class.					
2	Our teachers encourage discussions on sensitive topics like race, religion and politics.					
3	I feel comfortable expressing my opinions in classroom discussions.					
4	When we work in groups, our teachers choose our group members.					
5	I prefer doing group assignments with people of a similar background to me.					
6	Our teachers should focus ONLY on topics that will be tested or examined.					
7	I would like to study at an international university.					
8	I plan on leaving South Africa once I am qualified.					
9	It would be better to be a citizen of the world than of any particular country.					
10	I would be willing to accept a lower standard of living to protect the environment.					
11	I can greet, correctly, someone in at least one of the Black South African languages.					

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
12	Any individual, regardless of race or religion, should be allowed to live wherever he/she wants to in the world.					
13	It is important that we educate people to understand the impact that current policies might have on future generations.					
14	All girls, regardless of their culture or religion, should receive the same education as boys.					
15	We should be willing to lower our standard of living in order to get an equal standard of living for every person in the world.					
16	All South Africans should do one year of compulsory community service once they have completed school or their studies.					
17	Really, there is nothing that I can do about the problems of the world.					
18	We have a moral obligation to share our wealth with less fortunate people in the world.					
19	South Africa should sign global environmental agreements, even if they limit our economic development.					
20	I have very little in common with people of other races.					
21	Teenage girls who become pregnant should NOT be allowed to stay at school.					
22	Immigrants should NOT be permitted to come into South Africa if they compete with our own workers.					
23	Helping neighbouring countries will help South Africa in the long run.					
24	I would be willing to pay much higher prices to protect the environment.					
25	Same-sex couples should NOT be allowed to marry.					
26	Prayers at school assemblies should reflect all the religions of learners in the school.					
27	Women who dress sexily are asking to be hit on / flirted with by men.					
28	I would date someone of another race.					
29	South Africa is enriched by the fact that it is comprised of many people from different cultures and countries.					

Thank you very much for your time and participation in this survey!

APPENDIX E: Information for school principals (email)

Dear PRINCIPAL'S NAME

I am undertaking PhD research into the relationship between global awareness and international educational travel amongst South African high school learners and would like to include your school in the survey. My hypothesis is that whilst international travel may contribute to increased global mindedness, there may be more accessible and less expensive options, such as participation in community service or taking an active interest in the news, which also broaden learners' social and environmental perspectives. Ultimately, I am hoping to develop a framework of travel and school-based activities which encourage global mindedness and the associated development of transferable or 21st century skills.

To test this, I have developed a questionnaire based on global awareness studies that have been undertaken in Europe, Australia and the USA. The survey is four pages long, will take less than 30 minutes to complete and primarily uses Likert-scale tick boxes. Since most school exchange programmes occur during the Grade 10 year, I would like the survey to be administered to all Grade 11s in each school, regardless of whether they have travelled internationally. The survey is anonymous and schools will not be identified in my research or any resulting publications. I will however provide each participating school with a summary of the research and a profile of their school's results.

If you would like to participate in the study, please can you let me know how many Grade 11 learners you have and the date by which you would like to receive the questionnaires. I can get copies to you within one week of your reply. A stamped return envelope will be included in your pack.

If you would like more information, please don't hesitate to contact myself or my supervisor: Professor Berendien Lubbe in the Department of Tourism Management at the University of Pretoria: berendien.lubbe@up.ac.za or phone: 012-420-4102. This thesis is co-supervised by Professor Jarkko Saarinen in the Department of Geography, Oulu University, Finland.

I would greatly appreciate your participation in my study. Apart from being passionate about the subject, I believe that the results will provide a benchmark of how globally minded our learners are and will also demonstrate the impact of current international educational travel policies and programmes on global awareness.

Kind regards,
Christine

Christine McGladdery ***BSc(Hons) MSc HDE***
Exchange Coordinator
Durban Girls' College

Musgrave Road 586 | Durban 4001 | South Africa
Tel: +27312687224 | Mobile: +27798804686 | Fax: +27312095562
Email:cmcgladd@dgc.co.za|http://www.dgc.co.za | Directions

APPENDIX F: Follow up email correspondence with school principals

This is an example of a typical correspondence. Each email was modified to suit the particular school. The "follow up" email was usually sent after a telephone conversation with the principal's personal assistant during which the need for the principal to reply giving his/her consent for the study was stressed.
(Permission has been granted to use this school's name).

……

From: Christine McGladdery [mailto:chrismcg@saol.com]
Sent: 21 October 2015 08:37 AM
To: David Arguile
Cc: Barbara Strydom
Subject: Follow up: Global awareness study

Dear Mr Arguile,

Please can you let me know whether St Anne's would like their Grade 11s to participate in my PhD survey?

If you would like to see a copy of the questionnaire before deciding, I am happy to send you one.

The questionnaire is 4 A4 pages long and takes less than 30 minutes to complete. I have a number of independent boys' schools participating in the study and would love to include more girls.

I live in Westville, so can drop off the questionnaires whenever it suits you.

Kind regards,
Christine

……

From: David Arguile [mailto:DArguile@stannes.co.za]
Sent: Saturday, October 24, 2015 8:39 AM
To: Christine McGladdery
Subject: RE: Follow up: Global awareness study

Dear Christine

St Anne's is happy to assist you with your research. If you can supply us with 80 questionnaires a.s.a.p., we will administer the process and return them to you as proposed.

Kind regards

David Arguile
COLLEGE HEAD

APPENDIX G: Information and informed consent for administration of survey

UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences

Informed consent for participation in an academic research study

Dept. of Tourism Management

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL TRAVEL AND GLOBAL AWARENESS IN SOUTH AFRICAN HIGH SCHOOL LEARNERS

Research conducted by:
Ms. CA McGladdery
Cell: 079 880 4686

Dear PRINCIPALS NAME,

CONFIRMATION OF LEARNERS' INFORMED CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN SURVEY

Thank you for allowing me to include SCHOOL NAME in my PhD research study. Please can I request that the person responsible for administering the survey to your Grade 11 learners informs them of the following points before the learners are given the questionnaire.

- This study forms part of a PhD research thesis at the University of Pretoria, investigating the relationship between global awareness and student travel in South Africa.
- The study is anonymous and all the answers given will be treated as strictly confidential.
- Learners will not be identified in person based on the answers they give.
- Similarly, the name of your school and any identifying features of your school will not be included in the analysis.
- The survey takes approximately 30 minutes to complete.
- Participation in the survey is voluntary.

Please will you ask the teacher responsible for administering the survey to sign this form to indicate that she/he has informed all the Grade 11 learners of the points provided above.

_____ _____

Responsible teacher's signature **Date**

_____

Responsible teacher's name and designation (please print)

Thank you. Please will you return this form with the completed questionnaires.

APPENDIX H: Country of birth of participants

Codes assigned for data capture.

Country	Code	Country	Code
Angola	ANG	Mozambique	MOZ
Australia	AUS	Namibia	NAM
Austria	AUT	Netherlands	NED
Bahrain	BAH	Nigeria	NIG
Belgium	BEL	Norway	NOR
Botswana	BOT	New Zealand	NZ
Brazil	BRA	Oman	OMA
Bulgaria	BUL	Peru	PER
Burundi	BUR	Philippines	PHI
Canada	CAN	Poland	POD
China	CHI	Portugal	POR
Chile	CHL	Qatar	QAT
Columbia	COL	Russia	RUS
Denmark	DEN	South Africa	SA
Democratic Republic of Congo	DRC	Scotland	SCO
England	ENG	Senegal	SEN
France	FRA	Seychelles	SEY
Germany	GER	Singapore	SIN
Ghana	GHA	South Korea	SOK
Hong Kong	HK	Spain	SPA
India	IND	Saudi Arabia	SUA
Indonesia	INO	Swaziland	SWA
Ireland	IRE	Sweden	SWE
Israel	ISR	Switzerland	SWZ
Italy	ITA	Taiwan	TAI
Japan	JAP	Tanzania	TAN
Jordan	JOR	Thailand	THI
Kenya	KEN	Turkey	TUR
Kuwait	KUW	United Arab Emirates	UAE
Lesotho	LES	Uganda	UGA
Madagascar	MAD	United Kingdom	UK
Mali	MAL	United States of America	USA
Mauritius	MAU	Wales	WAL
Malaysia	MAY	Zambia	ZAM
Malawi	MLW	Zimbabwe	ZIM

APPENDIX I: ANOVA exchanges and sport

Results of one-way analysis of variance of mean global mindedness scores amongst the 16 participating schools, using two sub-populations of learners:

1. Those who have participated in an international exchange programme.
2. Those who have participated in an international sports tour.

ANOVA: Exchanges

Descriptives

Reduced GM Score 16 items

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
School A	3	61.6667	3.51188	2.02759	52.9427	70.3907	58.00	65.00
School B	2	61.0000	5.65685	4.00000	10.1752	111.8248	57.00	65.00
School C	13	60.8462	7.61409	2.11177	56.2450	65.4473	48.00	73.00
School D	6	65.0000	5.89915	2.40832	58.8092	71.1908	55.00	73.00
School F	2	64.5000	2.12132	1.50000	45.4407	83.5593	63.00	66.00
School G	12	56.1667	4.40729	1.27228	53.3664	58.9669	49.00	64.00
School H	18	54.4444	4.70572	1.10915	52.1043	56.7845	47.00	61.00
School I	16	62.6250	5.01830	1.25457	59.9509	65.2991	55.00	73.00
School J	4	61.0000	5.47723	2.73861	52.2845	69.7155	54.00	67.00
School K	26	63.4231	7.15079	1.40239	60.5348	66.3113	48.00	77.00
School L	6	66.5000	5.12835	2.09364	61.1181	71.8819	58.00	73.00
School M	17	57.5294	8.86085	2.14907	52.9736	62.0852	41.00	76.00
School N	4	63.0000	9.09212	4.54606	48.5324	77.4676	51.00	73.00
School P	11	65.8182	6.52408	1.96708	61.4352	70.2011	57.00	76.00
Total	140	60.8500	7.27361	.61473	59.6346	62.0654	41.00	77.00

ANOVA: Sport

Descriptives

Reduced GM Score 16 items

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
School A	16	52.7500	8.79015	2.19754	48.0661	57.4339	32.00	64.00
School B	6	60.5000	8.98332	3.66742	51.0726	69.9274	50.00	74.00
School C	2	63.5000	4.94975	3.50000	19.0283	107.9717	60.00	67.00
School D	6	53.6667	5.75036	2.34758	47.6320	59.7013	45.00	59.00
School E	27	57.8889	8.60382	1.65581	54.4853	61.2924	34.00	71.00
School G	8	53.0000	7.17137	2.53546	47.0046	58.9954	44.00	64.00
School H	27	53.8889	4.94067	.95083	51.9344	55.8434	45.00	64.00
School I	8	61.0000	8.38366	2.96407	53.9911	68.0089	53.00	75.00
School J	21	62.2381	6.85496	1.49587	59.1178	65.3584	50.00	72.00
School K	9	59.2222	7.03167	2.34389	53.8172	64.6272	48.00	69.00
School M	34	53.5882	8.20982	1.40797	50.7237	56.4528	37.00	66.00
School N	6	63.6667	8.80152	3.59320	54.4300	72.9033	53.00	77.00
School O	7	55.5714	11.23769	4.24745	45.1783	65.9646	36.00	69.00
Total	177	56.6045	8.32245	.62555	55.3700	57.8391	32.00	77.00