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**What's the value in 'Boot Camps': Means-end
perspectives on motivational intervention in the
outdoors.**

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Abstract

Motivational intervention courses or 'boot camps' for long-term unemployed participants aim to increase self esteem, self confidence and motivation so as to improve employment options and/or outcomes for participants. In New Zealand, such programmes administered by Outward Bound (Catalyst course) and the Army (Limited Service Volunteers, LSV) involve intensive spells of disciplined instruction and vigorous physical activity. In popular terms they may be considered 'Boot Camps', and are consistent with the philosophy of changing behaviour through a 'short, sharp shock'. This thesis evaluates these two outdoor motivational intervention programmes to determine their outcomes and identify the processes involved in producing them. Both programmes are attended by clients of the Ministry of Social Development, drawn from the long-term unemployed population.

This study advances understanding of experiential education through the use of qualitative, interpretive research into *how* course outcomes are achieved, moving beyond simply measuring outcomes. The research design uses means-end theory applied within a phenomenological paradigm. The means-end method links course attributes to consequences and to the end values that participants attribute to course experiences. One LSV and two Outward Bound courses are evaluated with the data obtained through participant observation and semi-structured interviews at course end, and again at 6 months post course.

This study is the first to focus on the specific population group attending motivational intervention courses, and found that the 'boot camps' increased participants' self esteem, self confidence, self awareness and sense of belonging. These findings are similar to previous research on general enrolment outdoor experiential education courses. Specific course attributes including physical training, personal interactions, expeditioning, activity debriefs, marching and time management were identified as being the most

accountable for producing course outcomes. Means-end theory and participant interviews are found to be a good fit for the evaluation of outdoor experiential education courses. It links course attributes, consequences and end values and thus provides greater insight into the processes that participants identify with respect to specific course attributes that lead to course outcomes. For example, the course component of *time management* for the LSV participants had a strong direct link to the consequence of *sense of achievement*, which then resulted in links to the end value *transference to work*. This knowledge can be used by providers of motivational interventions to design courses that target particular outcomes by focusing on the specific attributes that have been identified in this study as being important in producing such outcomes.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

Chapter one presents the research context, why the researcher decided to undertake this research, a conceptual framework, followed by the research objective and research questions that this study sets out to answer. The chapter concludes with a brief outline of future chapters.

1.1 Research Context

1.1.1 The Unemployed

When the field work for this study was being undertaken in 2007-08, there were 31,000 people in New Zealand who were unable to secure employment and who claimed taxpayer funded benefits (MSD, 2007). It is generally agreed that unemployment lowers an individual's self efficacy, confidence and motivation, with down-stream consequences including higher incidences of crime, family violence and social disconnection (Feather, 1992; MSD, 1994). Interventions that stop the decline in the unemployed person's motivation and self efficacy are therefore an important step in enabling entry into the paid workforce.

1.1.2 'Motivational Intervention Programmes' or 'Boot camps'

Specific outdoor adventure based courses labelled 'motivational intervention programmes' or 'boot camps' were developed by the New Zealand Ministry of Social Development (MSD) in response to the negative effects of unemployment (Maxwell, 2008), and also, the recognition that there was a need to rebuild the skills, morale and motivation of the long-term unemployed¹ (Regier, Myers, Kramer, Robins, Blazer & Hough, et al., 1984). To deliver these programmes, MSD contracts a variety of providers of motivational intervention programmes with the aim of increasing the confidence and skills of job seekers to improve their chances of finding work (Anderson, 1998). The term 'boot camp' originally

¹ See appendix 2 for definitions of unemployment, and long term unemployment.

referred to in-prison programmes that resembled military basic training; now boot camp is typically used in New Zealand as a generic term for short duration residential programmes that use physical training combined with motivational techniques to promote positive changes in participants. It is acknowledged that the New Zealand use of the term 'boot camp' is different from the common use of the term in other countries.

There is limited research on motivational interventions, and what little research there is indicates that such courses do not produce significant results with respect to participants' long-term employment prospects (Johri, De Boer, Pusch, Ramasamy, & Wong, 2004). Research focuses on the employment outcomes of motivational intervention courses, which is a blunt measure considering the nature of the client group being typically at the bottom of the labour market. Motivational intervention courses can have many impacts beyond employment, that may be as beneficial as employment, that is not revealed by the presentation of employment outcome statistics. This current research seeks to better understand the outcomes and the processes associated with participation in motivational intervention programmes, enabling a better understanding of the courses. This will allow providers to develop more effective course programmes by having a better understanding of the course aspects and how they impact on the participants.

Before discussing employment programmes we have to start by making two assumptions, firstly, that all participants are 'employable'. Secondly, that they want to find work and therefore value work as an end itself. If these two assumptions are not made, firstly an 'unemployable' participant will not be made employable by motivational intervention. Secondly, a persons' values are intrinsically learned over a long period of time and are not readily changed via relatively short duration employment courses (Costa & McCrae, 1987).

In the short term, employment programmes temporarily reduce the unemployment rate for the duration of the course, by removing programme attendees from the unemployment register. According to Sloan (1993), employment programmes will only succeed in returning people to work from unemployment if there is a corresponding expansion in the demand for employees. Therefore, as employment

programmes provide little if any extra employment, they simply have the role of moving the successful trainees a few places up the queue for future jobs (Lange, 1998).

1.1.3 Limited Service Volunteers and Outward Bound

This current research evaluates the motivational interventions at Limited Service Volunteers (LSV) and Outward Bound. The New Zealand Defence Force was the original provider of motivational intervention training through LSV, and began operations in 1993. LSV is located on a military army base, but is largely independent of the other companies on the base. LSV delivers motivational interventions utilising both military and non military personnel. Outward Bound operates in 40 countries and is the leading organisation in the experiential education field, utilising outdoor and adventure education to deliver value-based programmes to a wide range of clients. Outward Bound New Zealand began providing motivational intervention programmes in 1997. Both LSV and Outward Bound make use of experiential education theory and outdoor adventure activities conducted in environments that are unfamiliar to the course participants.

Other providers of motivational intervention programmes operate regionally. They include YMCA Masterton, Puawai Ltd, Specialist Education Services and the Kapiti Skills Centre. These courses are not all residential in that sometimes the clients go home each night, and because they are contracted on a regional basis recruit clients from within their region. No research was conducted on these different providers of motivational interventions, or how outcomes may vary between various ways of delivering their programmes.

1.1.4 Study Participants

Participants of motivational interventions that are the focus of this study will be termed as 'long-term unemployed' throughout this thesis. Specifically, unemployed clients of MSD who are eligible to attend motivational interventions at LSV and Outward Bound are both males and females, between the ages of 17

and 26 years old, of any ethnicity from all over New Zealand, registered with Work and Income as unemployed for a duration greater than 26 weeks or identified by their case manager as at risk of being long-term unemployed.

While motivational intervention programmes were initiated to cater for the long-term unemployed, the initial benchmark of unemployment duration was more than 26 weeks. However, at the time of the study this was no longer the case. Due to the decrease in the unemployment rate since 2002, the eligibility criteria have changed. As of 2002 clients are being accepted to participate on courses after initial registration with Work and Income, if their case manager has deemed them to be disadvantaged in the labour force, because of limited education or low motivation. They may also decide that a prolonged duration of unemployment may lead to them being at risk of longer-term unemployment, for example coming from an environment of long-term inter-generational unemployment.

An outline of two participants helps to present a description of those who attend motivational interventions. Nineteen year old Sue is a Pacific Islander from West Auckland who attended a Catalyst course. It was her first trip to the South Island, but she had travelled around many North Island cities on various netball competition trips in the past. Sue had recently finished attending a short barista course, but had failed to secure employment and therefore her case manager had suggested she attend Outward Bound so as to not lose the momentum she had gained while on the course. Still living at home, Sue was very connected to her family, and often looked after her extended families' young children. Sue had left school after year 12, having no desire to attend further education and no job to go to. When not looking after children, she divided most of her time between watching television and hanging out with friends, often late at night.

Martin, a 22 year old, attended LSV with the hope that he would be able to finally quit drugs and smoking, improve his fitness and enable him to once again play rugby. He lived in a small central Waikato town, where he had been employed in various casual labouring roles from time to time. His employment usually got terminated as he would have difficulty getting to work on time, due to late nights partying. He had neither a particular desire to gain full time employment, nor

career path aspirations, and was happy collecting the unemployment benefit so that when he started to play rugby again, he would have time to train.

Following the two examples above, the description of a typical motivational intervention participant (gained from participant observation and discussions with staff from both LSV and Outward Bound,) is a male, Māori from the upper North Island in his late teens, a smoker, and more likely to come from a lower social economic background and a single parent family. He would have a relatively low level of education, and would have previously worked in predominantly blue-collar jobs, and typically would have spent less than two months employed in his most recent job. He would have a relatively minor criminal record, typically driving or alcohol related.

He would have a social network of similar unemployed people who would circulate and socialise together, with typical days involving getting up late, watching TV in the afternoon and then gathering in the evening to drink and take drugs. His main communication method is by texting on his mobile phone, and he would be adept at living on a limited income while being unemployed. He would not have travelled outside of the upper North Island, and would have little aspiration of travelling.

He would not be focused on looking for a job, and only doing the minimum required by his Work and Income Case Manager to continue receiving his benefit. He would supplement his income by doing cash jobs sourced through family or friends, which would not be declared to his Case Manager. He would have little focus on the future, rather dealing with situations in the present, have no savings and no goal in life.

This description of a typical person entering motivational interventions illustrates that providers are faced with a challenging task, and that there are many obstacles with respect to equipping participants with the tools and motivation to seek meaningful employment.

1.1.5 Effects of Unemployment

There is a wealth of literature indicating a high number of negative consequences to individuals' psychological well-being and mental health due to unemployment (Feather, 1982, 1990, 1992; Warr, 1987; Warr & Jackson, 1985; Warr, Jackson, & Banks, 1988; Winefield, 1995). These consequences have been said to lead to a "depreciation of human capital in cases of longer spells of unemployment" (Lange, 1998, p. 67). A person's self esteem (a person's overall evaluation of their own worth) and self efficacy (our belief in our ability to succeed) can be severely affected by being unemployed (Feather, 1992), and the longer that a person is unemployed, the greater the decline in their self esteem and self efficacy, resulting in a reduction in effort to secure employment (Feather, 1990; Kanfer & Hulin, 1985).

Two important areas of an unemployed person's psychological well-being are the deterioration of the individual's self esteem and self efficacy (Swinburne, 1981; Warr & Jackson, 1985). Self esteem is defined as a judgement of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes that an individual holds towards themselves (Coopersmith, 1967). Self efficacy refers to an individual's beliefs about their ability and motivation (Brockner, 1988). Stated simply, self efficacy is a personal judgement of "how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations" (Bandura, 1982, p. 122).

Self efficacy plays a major role in motivating the unemployed person to look for work (Eden & Aviram, 1993). Feelings of helplessness from failing to find work increase expectations that they will not have the ability to find work in the future, therefore reducing job search endeavours, which in turn become a self fulfilling prophecy (Eden & Aviram, 1993). Self efficacy beliefs are directly related to the probability of finding employment, whereas how an individual values work has little relationship to their ability to find work (Kanfer & Hulin, 1985).

Unemployment in early life may permanently impair young people's future employability (Green, 1984; McRae, 1987), as patterns of behaviour and attitudes established at an early stage tend to persist later in life (Maree, Ebersöhn, &

Vermaak, 2008). Their exclusion from gaining work experience and lack of access to continuing training also increases their later difficulties in finding employment. In addition to depriving them of income and the personal fulfilment of work, the exclusion of young people from productive roles in the adult world of work can demoralize them and undermine social cohesion. Communities with high levels of youth unemployment are at greater risk of crime, drug abuse and vandalism, all of which are damaging to our society (Fergusson, Lynskey, & Horwood, 1997; Jahoda, 1981; MSD, 1984; O'Brien, 1988).

Employment is said to offer more than just a source of income, but also has a psychological significance (A. H. Winefield, 1995). Jahoda's (1981) deprivation theory argues that work has five latent functions:

1. The imposition of a time structure
2. Regular shared experiences and contact outside of the nuclear family
3. The linking of individuals to transcending goals and purposes
4. The definition of personal status and identity
5. Enforced activity

Jahoda's model, which states explicitly that bad jobs are better than no jobs, has been challenged by several researchers, who say that Jahoda focuses only on the positive aspects of employment (Warr, 1987; H. R. Winefield, Winefield, Tiggemann, & Goldney, 1989).

Warr (1987) proposed a model that made a distinction between psychologically good jobs, and psychologically bad jobs, with his 'vitamin model' of unemployment. In Warr's model good jobs are seen not to pose as much of a psychological threat, as opposed to bad jobs. The nine environmental features of Warr's model are:

1. Opportunity for control
2. Opportunity for skill use
3. Externally generated goals
4. Variety
5. Environmental clarity
6. Availability of money

7. Physical security
8. Opportunity for interpersonal contact
9. Valued social position

If a job enhances these features, it is defined as good.

Of the above nine environmental features, good jobs are seen to enhance the features as opposed to bad jobs. Warr (1987) assumed that a lack of environmental features could have a negative effect on mental health, similar to the effect that lack of vitamins can have on one's physical health.

1.1.6 Active Labour Market Policy

The New Zealand Government favours the use of Active Labour Market Policies, in addition to passive measures such as the provision of financial support by way of paying unemployment and other benefits to those without employment (Mare, 2002).

Active Labour Market Policies (ALMP) can be described as policy measures that “improve the labour market and jobs; develop job-related skills; and promote more efficient labour markets” (OECD, 1994). New Zealand government's ALMP objectives are to firstly increase *equity* in the labour market and secondly enhance labour market *efficiency* (Johri, De Boer, Pusch, Ramasamy, & Wong, 2004). Equity is achieved by assisting job seekers who are disadvantaged in the work force to reduce their dependency on benefits and give them an opportunity to participate in employment (Johri et al., 2004). Efficiency is achieved by increasing overall employment.

ALMP encompasses three areas of actively assisting people into employment through job creation, job matching and employment programmes. Employment programmes are further divided into three sub categories of skills-based training, self employment and motivational intervention. This study concentrates on employment programmes and specifically on motivational intervention programmes for the long-term unemployed.

A review of employment subsidy programmes stated “It is important to be aware that any real reduction in unemployment depends on the creation of substantial extra employment, and that this can only be achieved through a well-functioning healthy economy. Employment programmes cannot create significant extra employment, but they can be used to help those among the unemployed who have the most difficulty in finding work” (1984).

In order for a government to reduce the unemployment rate through policy, it would have to overcome both technical and political difficulties. It would also be at the significant cost to the average taxpayer (Lange, 1998). For the labour market to act efficiently we are faced with the reality of a labour surplus (Day, 1976; Phelps, 1967). There needs to be a base rate of unemployment in order for the employment market to have some movement, people need to be able to transition in and out of the employment market (DeBoer & Seeborg, 1989). There is room for consumers in our society, they should not be forced to participate in the labour market, but rather should perform activities that are satisfying to them (Day, 1976).

1.1.7 Motivational Intervention Outcomes

Research conducted on LSV and Outward Bound thus far does not clearly link motivational intervention programmes to the desired outcomes of motivation, self esteem (Swindells, 1988) and employment (Johri et al., 2004). Longer term employment outcomes show that at two years post course, there is a small negative impact when compared to non-participants, on their employment status (Johri et al., 2004). The control group used in Johri et al.’s (2004) report is not described in any depth, leaving uncertainty about the ability to make comparisons between the two groups. For instance, the control group may be more motivated to find employment than to be taken out of the job search market to attend a course. Likewise, the participants in motivational intervention programmes may be using these courses as a way of delaying any movement into the workforce.

When thinking of the outcomes of motivational intervention programmes it is natural to think of employment or full time study. This limited view of outcomes should be

broadened to encompass increased social, family and community health, rather than just simple employment outcomes (Lakey, Barnes, & Parry, 2001). We know that the effects of long-term unemployment lead to not only decreased motivation and self esteem, but also a break-down in an individual's relationship within his or her family and community (Feather, 1990). These social disconnections lead to increases in crime, dependency, and a lowering of overall social and physical health (Jahoda, 1981; O'Brien, 1988).

Therefore, while employment may not be an outcome for all individuals, they may still achieve a positive outcome, with greater levels of motivation and self esteem. This may manifest itself in greater community or family involvement, participation in service or volunteering, or simply increasing their physical and social health by increasing their participation in sporting activities.

1.1.8 Motivation Theory

An early understanding of motivation theory was based on the construct of punishment and reward. It was inferred that people were inclined toward actions and behaviours that offered reward, and avoided actions and behaviours that had negative consequences. Taylor (1911) in the early 1900s included in his scientific management theory the basis that good workers were rewarded and unsatisfactory workers were punished. The notion that a happy worker was a good worker (Perrow, 1972) was also put forward to explain worker motivation.

These early simplistic views of motivation were found to be wanting by later empirical studies, which revealed that there were more than monetary incentives that could have an effect on motivation (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959). Vroom (1984; 1992) expressed motivation in terms of choice, in that people have preferences amongst the possible outcomes from choosing to perform a particular act. "For any pair of outcomes x and y , a person prefers x to y , prefers y to x , or is indifferent to whether he receives x or y " (Vroom, 1984, p. 15).

Maier (1961) proposed that motivated behaviour was variable, constructive and goal directed, and that frustrated behaviour is rigid, stereotyped, compulsive, and not goal directed. Goal directed behaviour towards positively valued outcomes and the avoidance of negatively valued outcomes has also been reinforced by Tolman (1949).

The major theoretical positions can be divided into content and process theories (Schermerhorn, Hunt, & Osborn, 1994). Content theories focus on what initiates behaviour in the individual or the environment (Schermerhorn et al., 1994). Included in this realm is Maslow's (1970) hierarchy of needs, McClelland's need for achievement (1965) and Herzberg's two factor theory (1959). Process theories focus on how behaviour is targeted and sustained. Included under process theories are Festinger's social comparison theory (1954), Adam's equity theory (1963) and Vroom's expectancy theory (1984).

Intrinsically motivated behaviour refers to doing an activity for the sake of doing it, in contrast to extrinsically motivated behaviour where an activity is undertaken to gain a separable outcome (Ryan & Deci, 2000). While these terms have opposite meanings, in reality there is usually a combination of both extrinsic and intrinsic factors that determine an individual's level of motivation (Day, 1976; Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989).

External reward can undermine intrinsic motivation through the perception of loss of control (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Factors such as deadlines, threats, imposed goals and external pressure also have the affect of reducing intrinsic motivation due to the perception of external locus of causality (Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992). Factors that increase intrinsic motivation such as choice, acknowledgment of feelings, and opportunities to set own goals enhance intrinsic motivation due to the greater feeling of autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

“Extrinsic motivation can vary greatly in its relative autonomy” (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 71). For example, unemployed people actively seeking employment who are doing so because they personally value the end result of possible employment are extrinsically motivated, as well as those who are actively seeking employment due to

pressure from their case manager to find work. While the same activity occurs in the above example, and is directed towards the same outcome, the former has a greater feeling of control and autonomy to the individual. It is this greater feeling of autonomy that is sought after when trying to increase an individual's level of extrinsic motivation. (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Different types of extrinsic motivation have been put forward by Deci and Ryan (1985; 2000) these can be ordered along a self-determination continuum. From lower levels of self-determination occurring when behaviour is externally regulated, to higher levels of self-determination where behaviour is initiated within the person. The self-determination scale is (a) external, (b) introjected, (c) identified, (d) integrated regulation.

A third construct of motivation is amotivation, where an individual perceives a lack of contingency between performing an action or behaviour and the expected outcomes (Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992). They are said to be non-motivated, where there is no perception of rewards of an intrinsic or extrinsic nature, and no possibility of changing the outcome. Amotivated people either do not act or perform an activity without intent. This is resultant from the person either not valuing the activity, or the expectation that the action will not produce the desired outcome (Ryan & Deci, 2000), or not feeling that they are competent to perform the task (Bandura, 1986).

It is not expected that this study will encounter amotivated individuals participating on motivational intervention programmes. Due to the courses being voluntary, participants must have some level of motivation to attend, be it externally regulated, integrated regulation or intrinsically regulated. At some level participants will have an expectation that by completing such courses there will be some positive outcome, thus providing extrinsic motivation to participate.

Teachers who are being supportive of students increasing their individual autonomy (rather than being controlling) foster a greater level of intrinsic motivation, as well as increasing their desire for challenge. This also applies to autonomy-supportive parents and mentors who stimulate higher levels of intrinsic

motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This shows that motivational intervention programmes can foster a higher level of intrinsic motivation by being autonomy-supportive of participants.

Social environments can also have an intervening effect on individuals' levels of intrinsic motivation, by supporting as opposed to thwarting their psychological needs (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The need for social integration is also a factor in intrinsic motivation, for example completing an activity because it is interesting can be further enhanced when completing the same activity with other people who are supportive, and foster a sense of belonging (Tinto, 1993).

Facilitating integration of extrinsic motivation can be achieved through prompting or modelling by people who have a significant influence to participants. This highlights the importance for providers of motivational intervention to develop secure connections to participants in order for them to internalise a higher level of extrinsic motivation. This is due to the fact that many extrinsically motivated behaviours are not interesting in themselves, and therefore require external prompting (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

The level of perceived competence is also a moderating factor in the level of internalisation of extrinsically motivated activities. The greater the level of competence that an individual feels in performing the desired activity within the relevant social group, then the more likely it is that they will undertake such activity. An example is an unemployed person who is encouraged to apply for a position that they do not feel competent in performing; the outcome would likely not be a positive experience for them. Therefore, when facilitating the internalisation of extrinsically motivated behaviours, support for competence should be provided (Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992).

1.1.9 Motivation and Employment

To simplify and give a clear illustration of the construct of motivation with respect to employment and motivational intervention courses for the long term unemployed, it has been divided into three distinct areas: needs, values and goals.

Needs

Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory is probably the most used and the most well known needs theory, illustrated in figure 1.1. Having a foundation of physical needs, building to the more abstract and highly individual, self actualisation needs, meeting each need in turn is a prerequisite to the next and is required before the subsequent need can be satisfied (Maslow, 1970).

It is understood that the basic needs are the same for everyone in that we all have the need of food, warmth, and shelter which are referred to as the 'physiological needs'. The next level is defined as the safety needs, of law, order and the authority of society, enabling one to feel safe and protected. Next in the hierarchy is the belongingness and love needs that secure the individual to a group or family. Esteem needs are next and when satisfied lead to feelings of self confidence, worth, capability and adequacy, also of feeling useful and necessary in society. Lastly in the hierarchy is the need for self actualisation in which people strive toward doing what they are individually fitted for (Maslow, 1970).

Figure 1.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1970).



Maslow's hierarchy of needs is a useful beginning point to explain the needs part of the motivation equation in that it is a simple model. However it has the limitation that needs are linear in nature and that the lower order needs have to be satisfied before any higher order needs can be achieved. Others have noted that there is not necessarily an order to an individual's needs and that so-called higher order needs can be satisfied without lower order needs being fulfilled (Schermerhorn et al., 1994).

A more economical model is the existence, relatedness and growth theory (Alderfer, 1969). This model shows that needs can be fulfilled concurrently and lower order needs can arise again on failure of higher order needs. The three categories of needs in Alderfer's model are similar to Maslow's physiological, belongingness and self actualisation needs. Alderfer defines existence needs, those of physiological and material satisfaction, relatedness needs, which represent the desire for quality social interaction; and growth needs which are desires for continued personal growth and development (1969).

Employment is capable of fulfilling both Maslow (1970) and Alderfer's (1969) needs. By providing an income, employment meets the provision of the physiological needs. A person's workplace can also provide a sense of belongingness, relatedness and safety through stable employment, as well as gaining self respect and esteem through proving to be a capable worker. When a person's potential is matched to their employment then it is possible for them to also attain self actualisation (Maslow, 1999), or in Alderfer's model, to satisfy the need for growth.

While employment is capable of satisfying one's needs it is not imperative. New Zealand is close to the average unemployment benefit rate compared to the OECD average (OECD, 2006), enabling satisfaction of the basic needs of food, warmth and shelter. The subsequent needs are able to be attained without the necessity of employment. For example, in areas of high unemployment the availability of social interaction through contact with other unemployed people satisfies Alderfer's relatedness needs, and Maslow's belongingness needs.

Values

"Values may be conceived as general beliefs held by individuals about desirable or undesirable goals or ways of behaving" (Feather, 1992, p. 10). These values are individual, intrinsic and developed over life (Locke, 1991). They are also thought to remain stable over the course of one's life (Costa & McCrae, 1987). When relating values to an unemployed person, even if that person values employment, repeated unsuccessful job applications, and increased duration of unemployment cause a reduction in the expectation of a future successful job search (Feather, 1992).

Expectancy – value theory outlines that a person's actions are related to the expected outcomes that the individual believes will follow such actions. Also, that the outcomes of performing the task, or performing some alternative action, are subject to the values that the individual holds (Feather, 1992). Expectations and subjective values combine to determine whether a person will act in a particular way. For example, a person may view a particular job as attractive but may have low expectancy of becoming the successful candidate at the end of the

employment selection process, and therefore not engage in the selection process (Feather, 1992). This low level of expectancy can be further reduced with the increased duration of unemployment as well as reductions in self efficacy (Swinburne, 1981; Warr & Jackson, 1985).

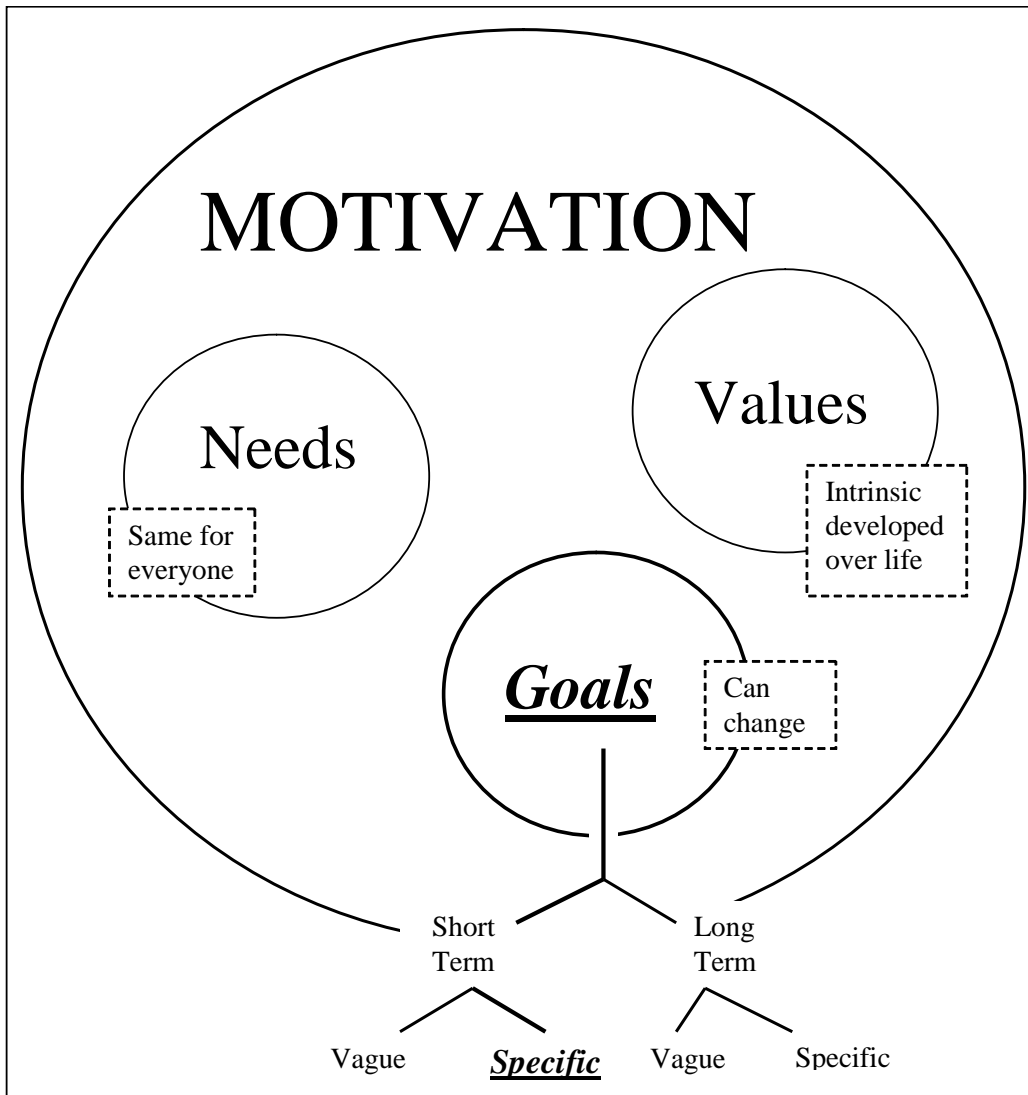
For an unemployed person to engage in a motivational intervention programme they must first value the desired outcome of work, as attendance on such programmes is voluntary. They are also screened to the extent that they are asked if they want to attend the course, and are not compelled to attend if they do not want to go. If we use Ryan & Deci's (2000) theory that intrinsically motivated participants are more likely to succeed than externally motivated participants, then participants who are forced by an external agent (for example their parent, WINZ case managers, or the justice system) to attend would be less likely to succeed than someone entering the course under their own volition.

Goals

Motivation is an internal construct and as such cannot be directly observed, but must be inferred. Locke's (1968) theory of goal setting deals with the relationship between goals and performance at a task. An individual's conscious intentions or goals are said to regulate the actions that follow. Goals provide motivation by directing behaviour, making behaviour more persistent and intensifying the desired behaviour (Komaki, Barwick, & Scott, 1978).

Setting goals is the last component of motivation and is the one most readily susceptible to organisational intervention (Locke, 1991). Figure 1.2 is a graphical representation of motivation with respect to employment. The construct of motivation is divided into the three significant areas of needs, values and goals, showing that needs and values are not readily changeable for the unemployed person. This highlights the importance of specific goal setting with respect to motivational intervention programmes, as this area of motivation is the one most likely to be able to be developed during short term interventions.

Figure 1.2 Employment motivation illustration.



An analysis of the current underlying philosophy for motivational interventions is that participants are given the tools and support to overcome increasing challenges on the course, these challenges are carefully selected and facilitated so they can succeed, while still perceived as being challenging e.g. rock climbing (Rohnke, 1989). By facilitating the success of participants in this new and challenging environment, participants typically have feelings of increased self-efficacy, confidence and esteem by the end of the course (O'Brien, 1988; Swindells, 1988). This in turn leads to the participant feeling more 'motivated' to go out and re-engage with the job search process.

This view of increasing motivation is fine while the participants are on course, but post course participants return to their home environment with little support.

Feeling

more motivated or confident in the short term may be all some participants need to re-engage into the work force, but the longer-term employment results (Johri et al., 2004) do not show that this increased motivation is necessarily effective. It is proposed that participants not only need to feel more confident or ‘reinvigorated’ upon completion of motivational intervention programmes but also need some practical goal setting skills in order to achieve greater success in their employment status after the course.

1.1.10 Goal Setting

“If you are unaware of where it is that you are headed, then you will probably end up somewhere else” (Anon).

Effective goal setting is paramount to the success of youth development programmes, with literature stating that goal setting coupled with high-quality feedback is a “simple and powerful motivator of human action” (Roberts-Gray, Steinfeld, & Bailey, 1999). Locke and Latham in a comprehensive review of studies have shown that positive goal setting effects have been evidenced in 90% of investigations with respect to task performance (1990). A number of studies have revealed that both individual and group goal setting are critical components of adventure education programmes (H. W. Marsh et al., 1986; Meyer & Wenger, 1998; Schoel et al., 1988).

Goals can be divided into proximal (orientated on course) or distal (post course orientated) goals, also vague or specific goals. Research shows that when participants set either proximal or distal goals, this does not have an effect on course outcomes (Crane et al., 1997; Locke, Shaw, Saari, & Latham, 1981). Locke and Latham (1985) have hypothesised that using proximal plus distal goals will lead to better outcomes than using distal goals alone. Firstly, to have a proximal goal to work towards while participating on a course, and secondly, a distal goal in

which learning's from the course are transferred post course to facilitate later achievement. Distal goals can be further divided into short term and long term goals. Bandura and Cervone (1986) have argued that short term goals are far more effective as they provide more immediate feedback concerning an individual's progress.

Many students do not know what they want to do when they commence a course, and exposing them to many different options may help them find what they want to do. Therefore, having more focus on goal setting sessions would be advantageous to enable participants to set more goals as they become aware of them and to refine goals throughout the course. Goal setting close to course commencement enables participants to set proximal goals which facilitate course attendance, and also start to form distal goals which they may want to pursue upon course completion. Further goal setting sessions during the course enable participants to set more goals and refine goals for post course.

Setting a mix of proximal and distal goals implies that more than one goal should be set by participants (Crane et al., 1997), studies show that only setting a single goal does not adequately account for the multiplicity of goals that motivate behaviour (Wentzel, 1989). Crane et al.'s study showed that the highest rated participants on an outdoor adventure experience set twice as many goals as the least rated participants (1997) .

Participants who have specific and challenging goals are shown to consistently out perform those with vague, non-challenging or no goals across a wide variety of work, sport and personal development tasks (Bandura, 1989; Locke et al., 1981; Roberts-Gray et al., 1999). It is also shown that, setting freedom/autonomy type goals such as "having fun" does not lead to success in programme participation (Crane et al., 1997; Wentzel, 1989). Kirschenbaum (1985) claims that goals which are too specific restrict individual choice and hence debilitate the self regulatory processes which are required to attain goals. Kirschenbaum suggests that moderately specific and flexible goals are most likely to be attained, and that the participant should have the opportunity to select his or her own goals, as

externally appointed goals can not only restrict choice, but also offer little intrinsic motivation (1985).

An effective method of obtaining participant commitment to specific goals is through participative goal setting sessions (Latham & Saari, 1979). The people or staff on an outdoor education programme best suited to facilitate a participatory goal setting session are the contact instructors, as they are the people who spend most of the time with the participants (Crane et al., 1997). Feedback on goal attainment assists in the attainment of goals', this feedback can be facilitated by instructors, the individual or through the attainment of intermediate, indicator goals (Bandura, 1986).

Crane et al. demonstrated that if participants set specific and challenging goals, then their self efficacy and sense of accomplishment is more likely to be enhanced, and further that commitment to these goals by not only the participant but also instructors and staff can lead to increased outcomes, and extending the longevity of the effects post course (1997).

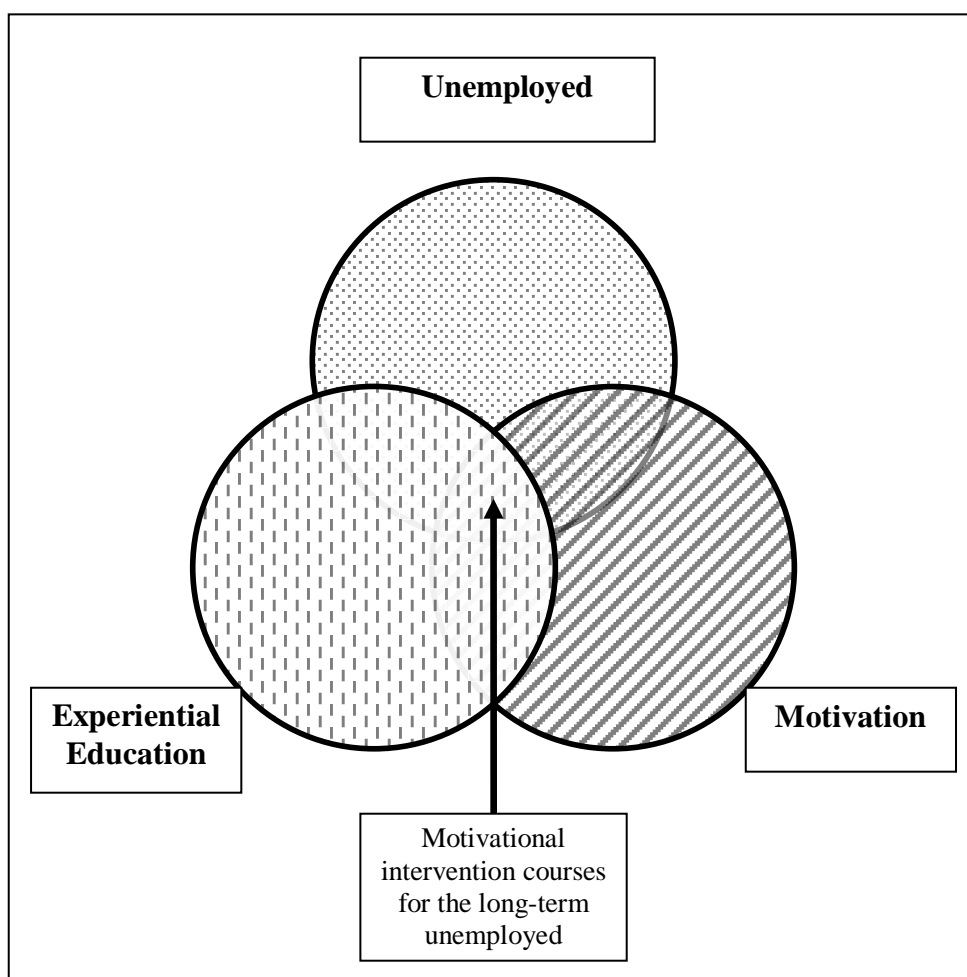
Research shows that participants are more likely to experience psychological success if they are able to define their own goals, which relate to their needs and values and are able to define paths that lead to goal attainment. "The extent that members participate in their own goal setting they will be more active learners, be more invested in the process, and be less likely to scapegoat or act out" (Lewin, Lippett, & White, 1939, p. 271). These goals need to be realistic, but also high enough to challenge the participant.

A range of literature on goals has been reviewed and synthesised in respect to the long-term unemployed population group. It has also been shown that the formation of specific, short-term goals is important in the development of effective motivational outcomes for long-term unemployed participants on motivational intervention programmes.

1.1.11 Outdoor Experiential Education

The Venn diagram shown in Figure 1.3 illustrates the three overlapping domains of the unemployment, motivation and experiential education fields that fit within motivational intervention programmes for the long-term unemployed.

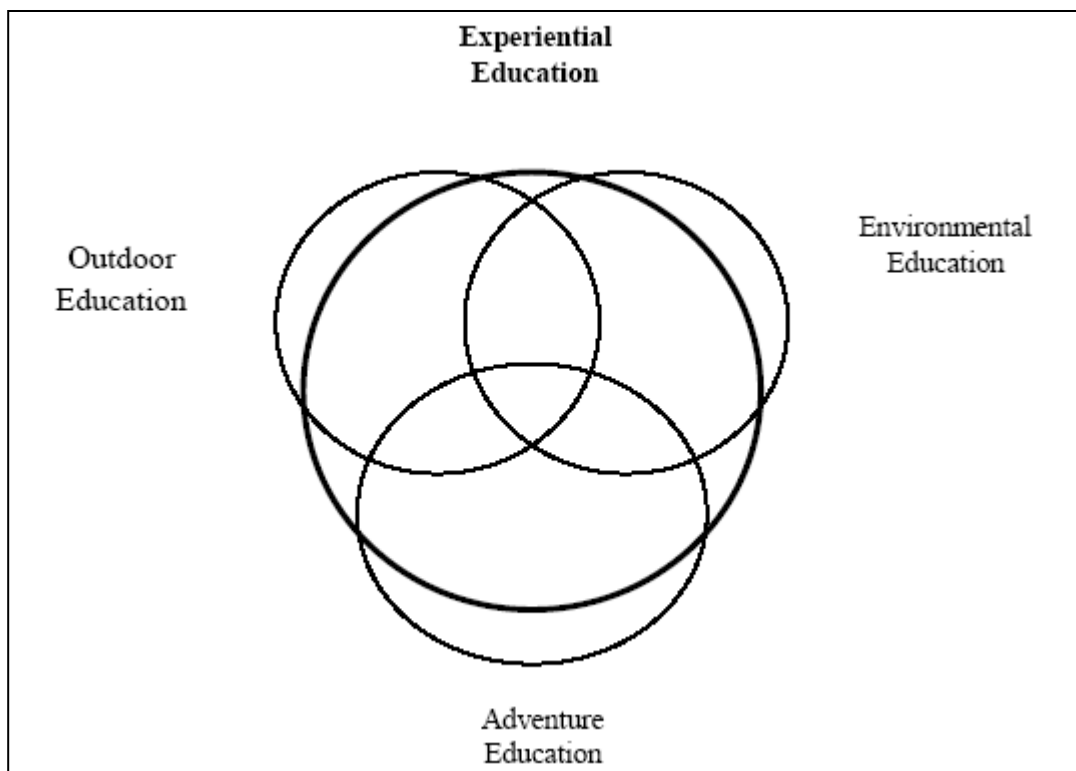
Figure 1.3 Venn diagram representing motivational intervention domains.



The positioning of the study is set primarily within the experiential education field, as this is the primary area that the two course designs fall within, and is the principal field of research that is concerned with outcomes and processes from courses conducted in the outdoors.

Experiential education covers many different programme types including adventure-based learning, outdoor education, environmental education, and adventure education. These programmes focus on using adventure activities as an alternative to classroom based learning and traditional methods of teaching. ‘Experiential education’ has become the umbrella term that covers all activity based education fields. Figure 1.4 outlines the overlapping, inter-related fields that constitute experiential education as a whole.

Figure 1.4 A summary of the relationship between the different inter-related fields of Experiential Education (Martin, 2001).



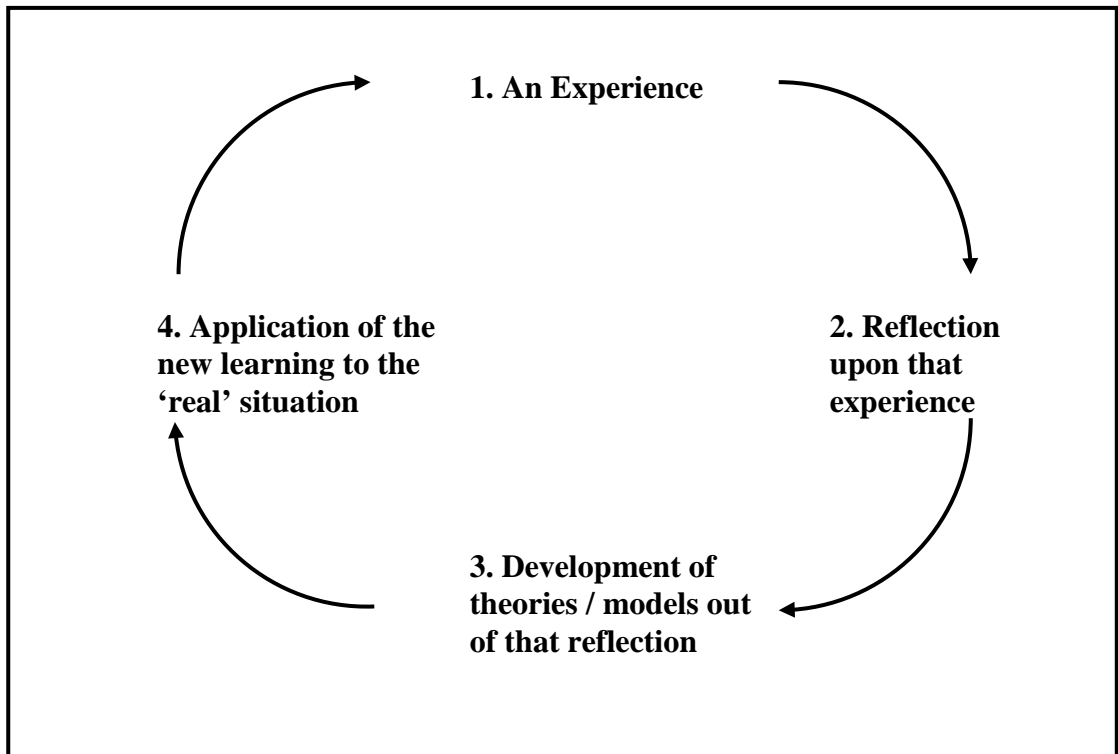
The concept of experiential education has been developed to provide a philosophical basis to understand the use of experience in the learning process. The ‘experience’ is broken down into two parts: the primary experience is what happened to the participant and the secondary experience is what the participant does with what happened to them. According to Dewey, the initial primary experience is “non cognitive” (1926, p. 23), just the act of doing the activity, or ‘raw experience’. However, the secondary experience involves reflecting on and understanding what happened during the primary experience. Therefore, upon

reflection the raw experience is transformed into a refined and precise form (Dewey, 1926).

The primary experience is grounded in the activity or event that an individual participates in and is the context for learning. The secondary experience is how the individual has interpreted the primary experience, and provides the significance and meaning of the experience. It is the reflection that transforms the experience into experiential learning. While activities can be somewhat replicated to provide similar primary experiences, participants may interpret the experience in many different ways. The process of reflection can be facilitated by an ‘instructor’ or ‘teacher’ and their involvement in directing the reflection can also have an effect on the secondary experience. Therefore “the meaning of experience will vary according to different discursive practices, as will the particular significance given to learning derived from experience” (Usher, Bryant, & Johnson, 1997).

A number of interactive models have been put forward in an attempt to provide a visual equivalent of the experiential education process (Burnard, 1988; Itin, 1999; Joplin, 1981; Kolb, 1984; Wyatt, 1997). Stehno (1986) reviewed seven experiential education models which showed similarities including a cycle between: 1) participation of a tangible experience, 2) reflection of the experience, 3) abstraction to shape theories from the reflection, 4) utilising the theories in a new experience (Itin, 1999). Kolb’s (1984) model illustrates a cycle that contains the four key elements listed above and is illustrated in an orderly format which is easy to follow (Figure 1.5).

Figure 1.5 A model of the experiential learning cycle (Kolb, 1984).



1.1.12 Adventure Education Programme Development

Adventure education programmes build upon this single cycle model by repeating the cycle from one adventure education activity to another. The sequencing and selection of activities is important to achieve the desired outcomes for the specific group (Rohnke, 1989). Sequencing of programmes typically progresses from simple activities with basic outcomes to more complex and challenging activities with more significant outcomes.

Programme activities can be divided into seven main categories: ice breakers, de-inhibitors, trust, communication, decision making/problem solving, social responsibility, and personal responsibility. These categories overlap each other and can be sequenced in various ways with respect to the group needs. These categories are used in the following ways:

- 1) Ice breakers provide opportunities for participants to get to know each other.
- 2) De-inhibitors enable participants to take some risks in the group.
- 3) Trust activities offer participants opportunities to entrust their emotional and physical safety to the group through activities that involve an increasing amount of risk.
- 4) Communication activities focus on increasing participants' skills for communicating during the group decision-making process.
- 5) Decision making / problem solving activities provide the group with opportunities to work co-operatively using effective communication.
- 6) Social responsibility activities enable participants to be reflective by assessing strengths and weaknesses within the group.
- 7) Personal responsibility activities enable participants to set individual goals and develop skills to achieve those goals (Ellmo & Graser, 1995; Rohnke, 1989; Schoel, Prouty, & Radcliff, 1988).

The effect of programming activities in a suitable progression can help build a sense of community and team support. "Higher group cohesion leads to sharing, openness, acceptance and support of others." (Johnson & Johnson, 1982). Furthermore, successful programming can provide the reinforcement and group support needed for participants to perceive and accept successful experiences.

Carefully sequenced programming of courses allows for group development stages to be accommodated and acknowledged (Rohnke, 1989).

1.1.13 Stages in Group Development

There are a number of developmental models that can be used to describe the development that participants go through on outdoor adventure programmes, Weber's (1982) model with the stages of "forming", "storming", "norming" and "transforming" is described. Weber's (1982) model utilises stages from other researchers (Tuckman, 1965; Bion, 1961), and accommodates change that is present during courses due to the individuality of participants and programmes.

Forming: When groups form, members are often scrambling for leadership. There may be confusion, anxiety, willingness to please, along with glimpses of what the group will be like. At this early stage it can be important for the group to achieve something; this success can be used as a base for later development stages.

Storming: Also referred to as the “control” stage, this can be the most challenging stage of a course. Social connections have been formed which have the possibility of generating negative behaviour, that can prove testing to instructors.

Participants are essentially reacting to the unfamiliar situation, with little initiative or independence being exhibited. They are trying to ascertain if the environment is safe, and if the experience is of value to them.

Norming: The group is beginning to operate as a cohesive unit, utilising its strengths and taking pride in completing tasks. At this stage independence from the instructor occurs, taking initiative and responsibility for their actions elevates their sense of pride in group accomplishments. As a result, participants are more able to confront each other in terms of goals and behaviour.

Transforming: Also referred to as “termination”, this is what a group must do when it has accomplished a goal or run out of time. When the group has run out of time to complete a task there are often three choices; to redefine their goals, start again or to stop where they are.

The above developmental stages are listed in order from the lower level of group development through to the higher levels of group development. In reality as groups face a myriad of challenges during the progress of the course, the group may in fact leap forward to an advanced stage or return to an earlier one. This movement from one level to another and back again is often the case for group development, and successful group development can still be achieved as long as difficulties are addressed (Weber, 1982).

1.2 Motivation for the Research

1.2.1 The Outdoor Instructor

The decision to embark on a Ph.D followed over thirteen years experience as an outdoor professional. During this time it became apparent to me that courses for specific population groups are not always as effective as they could be. Often specific population groups are delivered a standard course with instructors required to modify the course as they see fit, as different demands are made of them. It seemed to me that this approach is at best haphazard, and there is usually little formal training or sharing of knowledge about dealing with specific population groups. Observation suggests that the poor practice occurs for many reasons, for example: high staff turnover, lack of knowledge, and a belief that the standard course design is capable of producing quality outcomes for all population groups.

My observations were not specific to New Zealand. I delivered many courses for different population groups in the UK, Zimbabwe, USA, Canada, Thailand and New Zealand for various organisations including 6 Outward Bound schools. My initial years as an instructor were concerned with delivering the best possible course I could within the pre-determined course design that each organisation had developed. Included in those early years of instructing was the development of my technical skill set, and experience in each outdoor adventure activity such as rock-climbing, kayaking, hiking, rafting and canoeing to name a few. My facilitation and leadership skills were also developed during that time through professional development and by practising different techniques in the field situation with participants. I believe that my experience is typical of many experiential education professionals who have a career in the outdoors.

As an instructor delivering courses, I was aware that by far the majority of the training in the outdoor education industry was focused on mainstream general enrolment courses. During some of the training it was acknowledged that specific

population groups would have different needs, and some of those needs were identified, for example younger groups would need more supervision, deaf groups would have specific communication challenges and youth at risk would require a clear set of appropriate behaviours to be established. What was not specifically discussed was, whether specific population groups would gain the same outcomes from course components as those participating in general enrolment courses. As an instructor there were times when the activities that I was delivering did not appear to have great benefit to the participants, for example repelling for blind groups had little effect due to the lack of perception of the height, and, for many youth at risk groups the service project on Outward Bound courses appeared to be more of a punishment to them than a learning experience.

1.2.2 The Outdoor Programme Manager

Having moved from instructing in the field to managing courses, programmes and schools, I became aware of the restrictions that were placed upon course design, because of logistics, staffing, equipment constraints and organisational culture and history. Outdoor professionals frequently believe research indicates that outdoor experiential education courses are effective without questioning whether this means effective for all client groups. I was uncomfortable with this one size fits all approach, and while some organisations do adjust (and I use the word adjust not design) course programmes to account for different population groups, I was not convinced that courses were delivering the most effective programmes possible.

My experience was that courses intended for non-mainstream population groups were largely a result of a process that started with a typical general enrolment course design, underwent some modification and then through a trial and error process, relying on the instructor-skill set managing unforeseen consequences that were a result of group needs. Further development of specific course designs was also limited due to the fact that there are relatively few courses delivered to specific population groups, when compared to open enrolment courses. This is also reflected in the majority of research being conducted on general enrolment courses rather than courses for specific population groups. Recently, research into

courses for people who have a disability has been conducted (Harris, 2006; McAvoy, Holman, Goldenberg, & Klenosky, 2006), revealing that such course outcomes could be different from general enrolment courses, indicating a demand to research specific population groups within the outdoor experiential education field.

1.2.3 The Current Study

I focus on motivational interventions as my previous employment at Outward Bound New Zealand was to manage the motivational intervention contract with MSD. I had a strong connection and interest in the programme that would enable me to persist with the research to completion. My Masters research was also conducted on motivational interventions (Maxwell, 2005), which evaluated the variables that affect departures from Outward Bound programmes for the long-term unemployed. This study gave me an insight into the literature on outdoor experiential education, and a desire to conduct more research on such programmes. During my Masters study I became aware that not all the research on Outward Bound courses was applicable to motivational intervention courses aimed at a specific population group, and thus fuelled my desire to conduct more research into this programme. Having worked for Outward Bound, I had existing relationships that facilitated access to their programmes; I also had established access to the LSV programme through contact with the Major in charge of LSV.

Inter-industry knowledge sharing is limited between motivational intervention programme providers. While instructors do move between different employers and sectors i.e. education, outdoors and social services, and therefore take their individual knowledge and experience with them, to date there is little evidence of formal sharing of knowledge within the motivational intervention programme providers. It is hoped that this study will be a step towards disseminating knowledge to providers of motivational interventions, researchers and outdoor education providers in general, allowing a discussion of research methods and course design to take place.

1.2.4 The Future for Programme Design

I started out on this project hoping to make concrete improvements to motivational intervention programmes, and by increasing the knowledge base of such programmes it is hoped that providers can design courses that are specifically targeted towards their population group and desired course outcomes. As I complete the writing up of the thesis, the topic of 'boot camps' is on the agenda of the incoming National government in New Zealand, with the introduction of programmes for adjudicated youth planned to follow the LSV course design. Information from this study has been requested, and it is hoped that the knowledge gained from my research can be of use in the design of a programme that is of benefit to the population group entering motivational interventions or boot camps, and that the programme outcomes match the desired course outcomes.

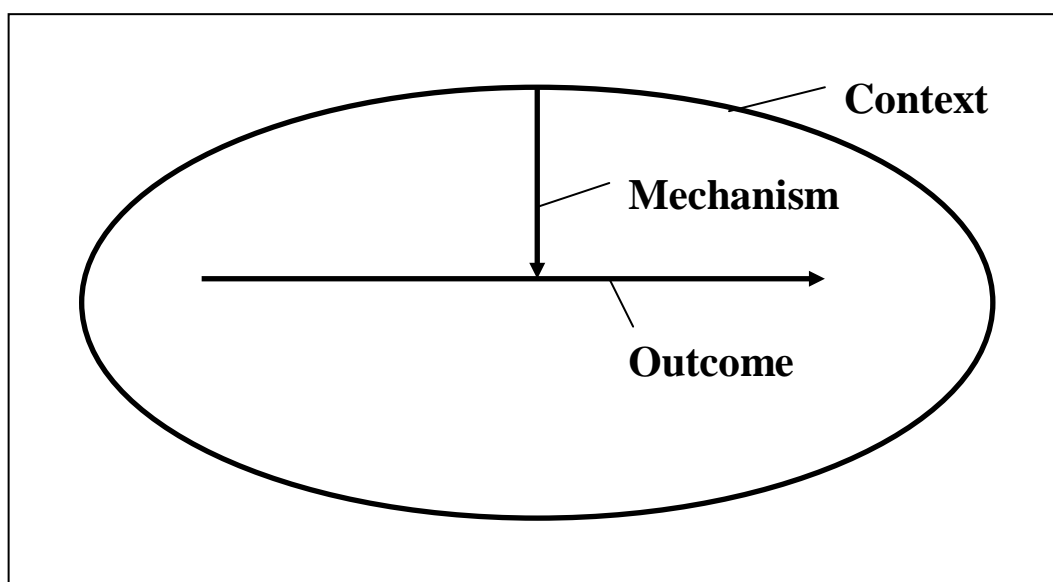
On a more practical side, it is hoped that the information produced can be used as a management resource to make improvements to courses, as a quality assurance tool, and also as a benchmark for future studies, enabling significant improvements to the delivery and design of motivational intervention courses to be achieved. This will have the flow-on effect of motivating course participants to be productive in New Zealand society, increasing their sense of identity, independence, and self-worth. Programmes to intervene in long-term, intergenerational unemployment can benefit families, communities and the whole of society.

1.3 Nature of the Research

1.3.1 Realism

Realism is utilised as the conceptual foundation within this study. The logic of realist social explanation is depicted in Figure 1.6 with the proposition that outcomes that occur in social situations are a result of mechanisms acting in particular contexts.

Figure 1.6 Basic ingredients of realist social explanation.



(Pawson & Tilley, 1997).

The basic formula of realism is presented as: **Outcome = Mechanism + Context.**

The basic task of social inquiry is to explain interesting, puzzling, socially significant outcomes. Explanation takes the form of positing some underlying mechanism which generates the outcome and thus consists of propositions about how the interplay between structure and agency has constituted the outcome. Within realist investigation there is also investigation of how the workings of such mechanisms are contingent and conditional, and thus only fired in particular local, historical or institutional contexts (Pawson & Tilley, 1997, p. 71).

Realism is a philosophy of science that is particularly suited to problems of explanation, and is therefore a useful standpoint when evaluating social interventions. Realism is a model of scientific explanation that circumvents the need to side with either the positivistic or phenomenological ontological paradigms (Robson, 2002). Data collection methods can subscribe to a range of paradigms from the traditional experimental positivistic paradigm to the social construction perspective, and therefore has the ability to use multiple methods from a variety of fields to undertake realistic inquiries.

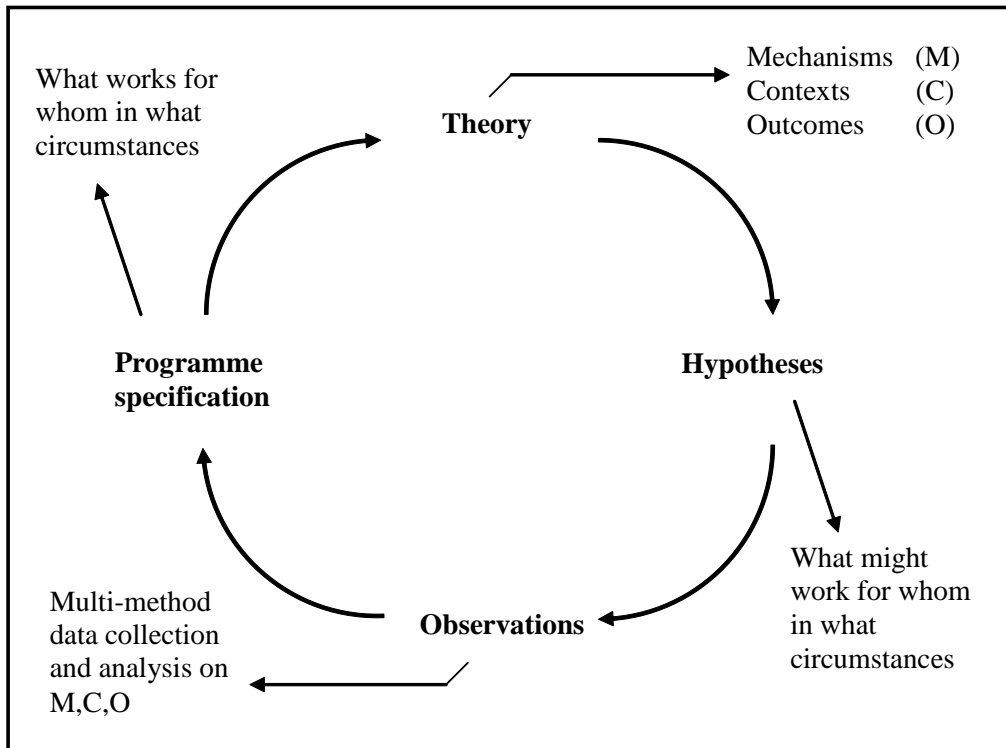
Realism departs from traditional successionist explanations of outcomes that X influences Y, and says that there may also be confounding variables that may have an effect on Y. The successionist process of finding outcomes through experimentation, control groups and the identification of confounding variables, overlooks a vital explanatory ingredient. Social interventions work by mechanisms acting in context, and it is only by identifying the mechanisms in action can causality be established (Robson, 2002).

“Realism’s key feature is its stress on the mechanics of explanation, and its attempt to show that the usage of such explanatory strategies can lead to a progressive body of scientific knowledge” (Pawson & Tilley, 1997, p. 56). The mechanics of explanation or what causes outcomes are an important building block in explaining the how and why outcomes occur in a social situation. Social systems viewed through a realistic lens reveal that there are many forces that come to play in shaping patterns of behaviour, including historical and institutional forces (Pawson, 2006). The relationship between causal mechanisms and outcomes are not fixed, but contingent on the context in which they were set in motion (Sayer, 1984). The social world is an open system (Bhaskar, 1979), thus the triggering of causal mechanisms is not always able to be achieved unlike a pure experiment where replication can happen. In a social world people create and re-create themselves, thus predicting future behaviour is not always possible, but transferable lessons are able to be learned which can be used to shape policy and practice (Pawson & Tilley, 1997).

Motivational interventions are set in a specific social context where participants are introduced to new ideas which are different from their existing social context. The context and mechanisms have the ability to break into participants existing chains of reasoning and resources, which are more important than the programme (Pawson & Tilley, 1997). It is through research that the mechanisms and context for change are discovered, that have the ability to intervene the existing social processes, which can be transferred from one programme to the next.

The realist evaluation cycle depicted in figure 1.7 show that initial theories are described with respect to the mechanisms, contexts and outcomes from which hypotheses can be made about what might work for whom and in what circumstances. Data collection is next carried out using an array of methods, enabling the identification of what works for whom in what circumstances. The cycle is then able to be repeated, enabling the development and modification of theories, which may revise the relationship between mechanisms, contexts and outcomes. It is through the repetition of this cycle that “realistic evaluators come to realise how the causal powers triggered by the programme generate their outcomes in specific contexts”(Pawson & Tilley, 1997, p. 210).

Figure 1.7 The realist evaluation cycle (Pawson & Tilley, 1997).



In this study once a set of outcomes, mechanisms and contexts are discovered; they will be compared with literature in a variety of fields to see if further refinement could be completed at that point in time. If no further refinements could be made then the resulting outcomes, mechanisms and contexts have been included in the findings chapter.

Multi-method data collection and analysis is able to be utilised within the realistic approach. This study commenced by marshalling local wisdom on motivational interventions, unemployment and outdoor education from programme providers, academics and literature which unveiled context and mechanisms that could be further explored. Initial investigations revealed potential mechanisms at work on motivational interventions including:

- Motivational interventions might increase participant’s motivation to reengage in the job search process.
- Motivational interventions might increase participant’s economic potential through skill training.

- Motivational interventions might promote social acceptability, enabling participants to act in new more social acceptable ways that enhance their employability prospects.
- Motivational interventions might lead to moral or civic responsibility. Discussions on work-ethic, making economic contributions to society and role modelling from staff may become the mind set of the participant.
- Motivational interventions might lead to cognitive change. Introducing a new set of ideas may lead to participants looking at past behaviours in a new way (Pawson & Tilley, 1997).

The list above is not intended to be a complete nor accurate account for all the mechanisms at work on motivational interventions, but more initial theories that can be developed as new data is obtained. Possible contextual conditions including what type of participant and in what type of setting also need to be identified for programmes to work (Palmer, 1975). Participant typologies attending motivational intervention include; transient unemployed, criminal, drug user, solo parent, disengaged with family or community and long-term unemployed. Settings include the military environment, outdoor education centres, classroom training and wilderness settings. Contexts also include the weather, instructors, group atmosphere and group makeup for example the mix of males vs. females, and the combination of individuals' personalities.

Stepping back to the basic formula of realism is presented as:

$$\textit{Outcome} = \textit{Mechanism} + \textit{Context}$$

Findings from this study will endeavour to present not only the outcomes but also the causal mechanism that produced the outcome and a description of the context in which the outcome occurred in. Findings from this study are at both the macro and micro level; some are conceptual while others are based on the empirical evidence collected. An example of a macro view of outcomes is:

Context	Mechanism	Outcome
Sufficient economic growth to sustain expansion in employment	Motivational interventions increase participants motivation to seek employment	Participants enter the workforce

The above example highlights the importance of mechanisms acting in the right context to produce the desired outcome. Without sufficient economic growth, it does not matter what mechanisms are applied, as there will be no jobs available for participants upon completion of interventions. All social programmes operate in the prevailing contextual conditions, which not only include the institutional setting but also the social rules, norms, values and interrelationships of the setting, outcomes are conditional upon these particular contexts and therefore may not have the same relationship in different contexts (Pawson & Tilley, 1997; Robson, 2002).

An example of a micro level view of outcomes could be:

Context	Mechanism	Outcome
Group cohesive enough to walk as a team, at a steady pace Route finding is sufficiently easy to avoid continual breaks for navigation	Hiking with pack on, at a steady pace over a period of days	Increased physical fitness

The micro level outcome highlights more than what would be acknowledged from a purely outcome evaluation, that hiking increases participants fitness. The mechanism identified is hiking with a pack on at a steady pace over a period of days, can be seen to only be activated in the favourable context that the group has the capacity to walk at a steady pace for the outcome to occur. Contextual conditions such as group conflicts or difficult route finding, causing the group to stop and start frequently can have the effect of lessening the physical fitness outcomes from the activity.

Examples of micro level outcomes related to the character of the participants could be:

Context	Mechanism	Outcome
Group is made up of all unemployed participants. Time given in programme to foster social connections	Participants are able to relate to each other's personal circumstances	Warm relationships with others
Participants choose to partake on motivational interventions that are motivated to change their situation	Motivational interventions provide direction for their motivation	Increased self confidence

In the first example it is the mechanism that is important in producing the outcome, in that participants can relate to each other through shared experiences and circumstances. In the second example it is the context of participants that are already motivated to change attending motivational interventions that is most important. In contrast to this there is the occasion when participants attend motivational interventions that are not willing to change their situation at the time. Some participants may attend for a variety of reasons case manager pressure, parental pressure, looking for a good experience or a free trip to another area, to these participants applying the same motivational intervention mechanism does not produce the same outcome as intrinsically motivated participants.

Context, mechanism and outcome findings are not proposed to be the unequivocal truth, as research conducted in a social setting is never fixed (Sayer, 1992). New ideas, evidence and the ever changing social landscape require the continual refinement and development of theories to develop the knowledge and understanding of the complex forces at play within social programmes.

Realistic findings from this study are revealed by using a variety of methods, including the means-end method to unveil outcomes, course observation and

informal interviews to reveal mechanisms and observation and literature to explain the context.

Outcomes are obtained by using the means-end method to establish the resulting attributes, consequences and values which represent the outcomes from motivational interventions. Outcomes produced by the means-end method are sensitive to situational effects (Huber, Beckmann, & Herrmann, 2004), and because situations can activate different self meanings (Walker & Olson, 1991) it is of importance to record the situation or context. A full discussion of the means-end theory and method is discussed in chapters 2 and 3.

Mechanisms and contexts are revealed from course observation data, as well as informal interviews and interactions with participants and staff. This data was collected using non-participant observation on motivational interventions provided by LSV and Outward Bound. Observations, thoughts and informal discussions were recorded in a field journal, and were later scoured to reveal mechanisms and contexts at play with respect to outcomes. Contexts and mechanisms were also revealed by referring to relevant literature on the subject at hand.

This section started by stating that realism circumvents the need to side with either the positivistic or phenomenological ontological paradigms, while this still holds true, the direction that this research has taken resonates within both the post-positivist and phenomenological paradigms. The post-positivist argument is that “knowledge can be best gained through a search for regularities and causal relationships among components of the social world” (Miller, 2000, p. 60). The phenomenological “approach stresses the subjective aspects of human activity by focusing on the meaning, rather than the measurement, of social phenomena” (Collis & Hussey, 2003, p. 53).

Each of the three phases of the realist approach collect data from various sources, outcomes obtained from the means-end method solicits participants reality and is subjective and multiple as seen by individuals, which is then surmised to present an overview from the group. Mechanisms and contexts are a result of the researcher’s observations and interactions throughout the research process, and as

such the researcher interacts with that being researched (Collis & Hussey, 2003). The chosen means-end approach and the observational data collection approaches lie predominately within the phenomenological paradigm.

Within the phenomenological paradigm the focus is on data that is typically qualitative in nature, from small samples that are concerned with generating theories. The data is rich and subjective, collected from a natural location. Results produced using the phenomenological paradigm tend to have high credibility, low trustworthiness, and are able to be transferred from one setting to another (Collis & Hussey, 2003).

1.3.2 Ontology

The ontological paradigms most suited to encompass this PhD are:

- The study investigated people and their subjective reality; phenomenology
- Data was coded in the form of content codes and variables; post-positivistic
- Literature indicated that a qualitative approach to researching outdoor experiential education was beneficial; phenomenology

This current study intends to reveal insights into groups of people. The subjective and multiple realities as seen by individuals are then summarised to present an overview from the group. The phenomenological approach “stresses the subjective aspects of human activity by focusing on the meaning, rather than the measurement, of social phenomena” (Collis & Hussey, 2003, p. 53).

Outcomes are obtained by using the means-end method to establish the resulting attributes, consequences and values which represent the participants’ reality. The data collection process condenses the volume of data into variables, in order to make meanings from combining individual responses. The post-positivist argument is “that knowledge can be best gained through a search for regularities and causal relationships among components of the social world” (Miller, 2000, p. 60). The approach taken during the data analysis stage, reduced data into content codes as well as analysing data with respect to different variables, and thus is

presented at times in number format and the use of percentages. The presentation of such numeric data has been justified due to this study accepting post-positivism as part of the ontological foundation. It is acknowledged that in a pure phenomenological study the presentation of percentages is not commonly accepted.

Literature supports the use of more qualitative methods to conduct research on outdoor experiential education programmes (Barrett & Greenaway, 1995; Bocarro & Richards, 1998). Within the phenomenological paradigm the focus is on data that is typically qualitative in nature, derived from small samples that are concerned with generating theories. The data is rich and subjective, collected from a natural location (Collis & Hussey, 2003), as is the case in this current study setting.

This discussion on the nature of the research began by stating that realism circumvents the need to side with either the positivistic or phenomenological ontological paradigms. While this still holds true, the phenomenological paradigm is thought to be the best fit to this research based on the research direction being more explanatory in nature, and the need to understand the experiences of a group of individuals. It is also acknowledged that the researcher is a vital component of the research process and cannot be separated from the collection and assimilation of data. The researcher interacts with the research subject (Collis & Hussey, 2003), which is acknowledged in the phenomenological paradigm (Pawson, 2006). The post-positivistic paradigm satisfies realism's call for revealing causal associations, but phenomenology is the predominant paradigm during the data collection stage and therefore this study lies more in the phenomenology camp than the post-positivistic. Miller (2000) states that when researching the social world, having the ability to move between paradigms can increase the knowledge gained, rather than rigidly sticking within the constraints of a single paradigm. In this regard, the research presented here should not be taken as an entirely phenomenological study, and utilises the post-positivistic perspective as required by the research design, the resulting investigation is strengthened by this flexibility.

1.3.3 Case Study

A case study approach was chosen due in part to the difficulty in gaining access to multiple groups, required of a larger scale investigation. Case study research has been established as being a meaningful design for experiential education evaluations (Kolb, 1991), and has the ability to collect detailed information about a phenomenon or case (Creswell, 2002). Case study evaluations can consist of one or more cases (Yin, 2002) and utilise a variety of methods to collect data within each case (Robson, 2002). Defining this study as a case study approach refers to the number of cases being studied, and also about the ability to transfer the results back into the larger population of motivational interventions.

Findings from case studies are primarily focused on understanding what is going on within a particular phenomenon, rather than the generalisation of results (Merriam, 1998). While it is acknowledged that the generalisation of results is limited from case studies, they can have the ability to be transferred from one setting to another (Robson, 2002). The credibility and reliability of case studies can be increased by the use of multiple research methods and triangulation of results (Remenyi, Williams, Money, & Swartz, 1998; Robson, 2002).

The selection of the particular cases studied was due to the opportunities presented to the researcher at the time. Near the start of the research, LSV and Outward Bound were approached to see if they would be interested in participating and allowing access to their motivational intervention courses. The timing of the LSV course observation was due to the Commander in charge wanting the October intake to be observed as he was in the process of handing over command to another Major. Because of this transition, the Commander could not guarantee access to a group in future, but was very enthusiastic to have a study undertaken. The timing of the Catalyst groups was the next two groups that were conducted by Outward Bound. This was done because at the time Outward Bound was not sure if they would still have the contract to supply motivational interventions for the Ministry for the following year.

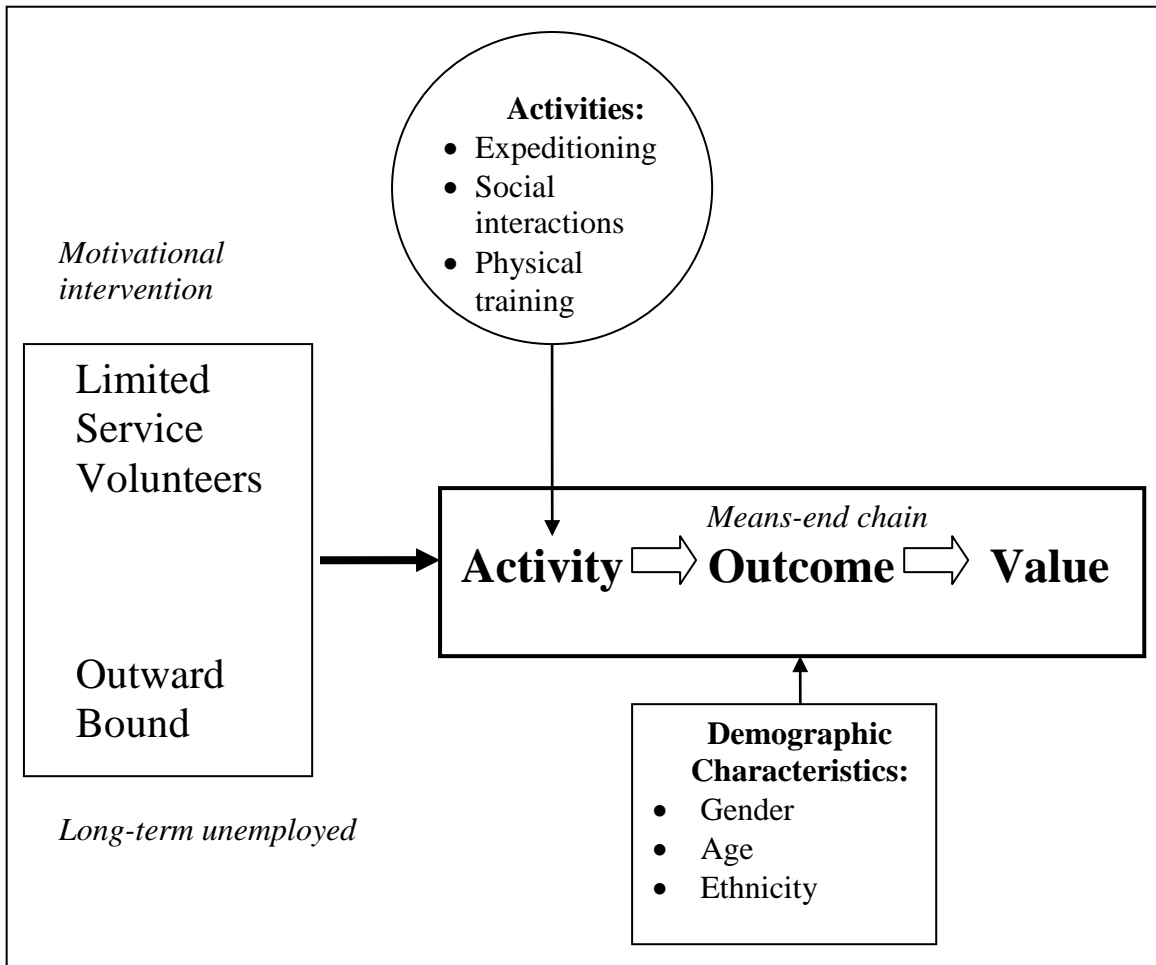
Results from case studies are subject to the particular events and participants at the time of the study, it is acknowledged that the results could have been different if other courses had been selected. Discussions with instructors and staff revealed that the courses observed were thought to be fairly typical courses, this was also observed by the researcher having previous contact with the delivery of motivational interventions. Results obtained from the two Catalyst courses proved to be very similar, reinforcing the belief that the cases studied were typical courses.

1.3.4 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework shown in Figure 1.8 is a visual representation of the variables considered. The dependent variable is the means-end chain linking activity to outcome to value. The initial two independent variables are the two motivational intervention programmes studied; Limited Service Volunteers and Outward Bound's courses for the long-term unemployed. The third group of independent variables are the course components, such as expeditioning, social interactions, and physical training.

Demographic characteristics are included as moderating variables which consist of gender, age, and ethnicity (European, Māori and Pacific Islander), which may have a moderating effect on the means-end chains.

Figure 1.8 Conceptual framework.



It was envisaged that the means-end method used in conjunction with course observation would enable the independent and moderating variables to be separated and analysed to answer the research questions.

Means-end is the main method used to evaluate motivational interventions in this study, revealing links between activities, outcomes and end values. Realism is utilised as the conceptual foundation within this study, with the proposition that outcomes that occur in social situations are a result of mechanisms acting in particular contexts. The use of means-end on a realistic foundation enables variables to be identified that may have an influence on the results, due to the acknowledgement that like most experiential education programmes, this study takes place within a social setting.

1.4 Research Objectives/Questions

1.4.1 Objectives

The main objectives of this study are to evaluate the outcomes of motivational intervention programmes in the outdoors and to identify the processes involved in producing these outcomes.

A secondary objective of this study was to review the merit of the means-end approach for evaluating motivational interventions in the experiential education field.

1.4.2 Research Questions

To obtain the objectives of this study the means-end approach is combined with participant observation to answer the following four research questions:

1. What are the outcomes for participants from participating in motivational intervention programmes:
 - a. at course end
 - b. six months post course?
2. What do the participants perceive as the most important course aspects in producing outcomes?
3. How do the means-end structures vary according to:
 - a. course components (such as hiking, social interactions, and physical training)
 - b. gender
 - c. age
 - d. ethnicity (European, Pacific Islander and Māori participants)
 - e. provider (LSV or Outward Bound)?
4. How appropriate is the means-end approach for evaluating motivational intervention programmes?

1.5 Conclusions

Unemployment has multiple effects that are detrimental to those people who are unable to secure employment. Clients of MSD that participate on motivational interventions are either disadvantaged in the employment market or have been typically unemployed for more than 26 weeks, making this a challenging group of people to work with. Motivational interventions or boot camps endeavour to provide short residential programmes that utilise physical training, skill development and personal development, in order to increase their chances of finding employment. Motivational intervention programmes to date have not shown great success; in order for them to provide more effective programmes, first they need to have a clearer understanding of the outcomes and how outcomes occur on their programmes.

Motivation to take on this PhD arose from many years as an outdoor professional, where I saw a variety of programmes that did not always appear to be providing the participants with courses matching their specific needs. I therefore decided to use my experience and knowledge to try to make a contribution to the outdoor education field. Motivational interventions at LSV and Outward Bound were specifically chosen to focus on, as I had current direct experience with these groups, as well as access to conduct research on a group that has had little previous research attention.

Experiential education is the main field of study within this current research, as experiential and outdoor adventure learning techniques are at the core of each provider's delivery of their programme. Means-end theory was chosen to conduct the research as it provided a good fit to the research objectives and the needs of the population group at hand, being relatively new to be applied to experiential education research it also showed potential to comment on the theory.

It is anticipated that the findings from this research might contribute to the delivery of motivational interventions, and may improve the outcomes for those attending such courses. A review of means-end theory for evaluating motivational interventions is also hoped to make a contribution to how future research is

conducted on experiential education programmes. Furthermore it is envisioned that this current research will act as a resource for future researchers to study motivational interventions.

Research questions were developed from the research objectives, allowing the research to focus on specific questions in order to contain the research within the bounds of a PhD thesis while still producing meaningful results.

1.6 Structure of the Thesis

Having now briefly outlined the research context and presented the reason behind why I undertook this study, as well as explaining the research objective and the research questions, a brief chapter outline is now given:

Chapter 2 is a review of the literature related to outdoor experiential education and means-end. Research on outdoor experiential education programmes is discussed and further refined to cover the areas outlined in the initial research questions, including course components, gender, age, ethnicity and the research ontology. Means-end is next presented including the philosophical groundings of means-end theory and establishment of its use in the outdoor education field. An in-depth critique of the means-end method including questions of credibility, transferability and limitations of the method are presented. This chapter concludes with a presentation of the justification for the research.

In chapter 3, the research design and procedures used in this study are explicitly outlined. Explanation of how the course observation data was collected, as well as the means-end data collection and data analysis procedures were undertaken are presented. The development of the content codes is presented in this chapter, which also includes the results from this process. Results are deliberately included in this chapter rather than in the individual results chapters, due to the results from the content coding process being similar to both LSV and Outward bound, therefore avoiding repetition in the results chapters. Next, the means-end data presentation techniques are presented, as well as the demographics and scales used. Also included in this chapter are the ethical considerations.

Chapter 4 presents an overview of the LSV programme including the short term outcomes, the target group, and the selection process and criteria. This is followed by the results from the LSV data collection phase in chapter 5, which includes an outline of the data collection process and presentation of the demographic characteristics of the participants. Both observational and means-end data is included, enabling outcomes from LSV to be presented, which in turn enables the

identification of the most important course aspects to be further explored and presented. The presentation of the results enables the research approach also to be reflected upon. Chapters 6 and 7 follow a similar format to the previous two chapters but focus on Outward Bound. It should be noted that the results chapters include descriptive material about the course programme and what was observed on each of the courses. It was a purposeful decision of the researcher to place descriptive material into the results chapters rather than in a background chapter earlier in the thesis, so that connections from the results could be made to actual events that transpired on course, facilitating a deeper understanding of the outcomes.

Chapter 8 presents a discussion of the results, beginning by revisiting each research question, followed by aligning the results within existing literature. Limitations are discussed and suggestions put forward on how to address the shortcomings.

Conclusions are offered in chapter 9 based on the significant findings of the study. This is followed by a presentation of the implications for motivational intervention courses, the experiential education field and means-end theory. Recommendations for further research are included, culminating with some final thoughts on the study.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Chapter one established the contextual information required to set the scene with respect to motivational interventions, the participants and experiential education. Motivation and objectives of the research were also presented. To move forward, a discussion of the literature on outdoor experiential education is presented, followed by an overview of means-end theory.

A review of the literature covering outdoor education programme outcomes is first discussed followed by research on Outward Bound New Zealand, which is further refined to cover research on motivational interventions. Of particular focus in this review is literature on the influence of course activities such as physical training, expeditioning, time management, personal interactions, and activity de-briefs, followed by participants' characteristics, specifically gender, age and ethnicity, thus establishing a reference point to discuss the findings of the research questions.

Next, means-end theory is discussed, with particular respect to the philosophical groundings of means-end theory within the experiential education field. Credibility and transferability issues are examined leading to the identification of limitations of the method. This chapter concludes by presenting a justification for the research, the ontological foundation and the selection of the means-end method.

2.2 Research on Outdoor Experiential Education Programmes

2.2.1 Outcomes and Processes

There has been much research in the field of outdoor experiential education concerning the benefits and outcomes of such programmes (Hattie, et al., 1997; Luckner & Nadler, 1997; Neill, 1999). Research in the outdoor education field has been based mainly on Outward Bound programmes (Neill, 2001). One review of a cross section of this literature examined the effects of outdoor adventure programmes on a variety of outcomes such as self-concept, locus of control, and leadership (Hattie, et al., 1997, p. 43).

Hattie et al.'s meta-analysis (1997), along with other results (Gatzemann, Schweizer, & Hummel, 2008; Neill, 2001; Paxton & McAvoy, 2000) show that outdoor education programmes improve a participant's self-concept, self-efficacy and team work (among other benefits) through wilderness based activities. Ewert (1989) categorised the potential outcomes from experiential education courses into four categories: psychological, sociological, educational and physical. Table 2.1 lists the benefits under these categories.

Table 2.1 Potential benefits of outdoor education pursuits.

Psychological	Sociological	Educational	Physical
Self-concept	Compassion	Outdoor education	Fitness
Confidence	Group cooperation	Nature awareness	Skills
Self-efficacy	Respect for others	Conservation education	Strength
Sensation seeking	Communication	Problem solving	Coordination
Actualisation	Behaviour feedback	Value clarification	Catharsis
Well-being	Friendship	Outdoor techniques	Exercise
Personal testing	Belonging	Improved academics	Balance

(Ewert, 1989, p. 49)

Research on outdoor experiential education programmes for specific population groups is inconclusive about the outcomes produced from such courses. Berman & Davis-Berman's (1995) paper on outdoor education and troubled youth showed that specific courses for troubled youth have resulted in positive gains in self esteem and reduction in recidivism rates, compared with participants involved in traditional programmes. Berman and Davis-Berman (1995) also make reference to a meta-analysis of 43 research studies on experiential education programmes for troubled youth; these programmes resulted in positive self efficacy effects in the moderate range (Cason & Gillis, 1994). Hattie et al. state that "there were no differences between various types of participants e.g., adjudicated, inpatients, emotionally or physically challenged, and 'normal' adolescents" (1997, p. 47). Whereas Harris (2006) and Holman, Goldenberg, McAvoy, and Rynders, (2003) indicate that people with a disability incur different outcomes from participation on experiential education courses.

Berman & Davis-Berman's (1995) study, among others (Hattie et al., 1997; Neill, 2001), reveal that there is a quantity of research into the effects of Outward Bound and other experiential education programmes for delinquent youth. Initially it was thought that "delinquent youth" would provide a similar match to the identified population group of long-term unemployed people. However, upon further investigation it was found that although the majority of delinquent youth experience durations of unemployment, this relationship does not hold true in reverse.

Analysis of a 6 month period of long-term unemployed attendance at Outward Bound New Zealand programmes showed that while 52% of the students had criminally offended at some time in the past, 90% of the offences were minor or traffic-related (Maxwell, 2005). Based on this evidence it would be wrong to assume that this places the whole long-term unemployed population into the "delinquent" or "offender" category. A study based on unemployed participants covered the impact of Outward Bound Australia challenge courses on disadvantaged youth (Neill, 2001). All participants were looking for full-time

work or were involved in further training, but may not have been long-term unemployed. This study does show that the Outward Bound course had positive effects on the students, including increased self-confidence and more positive attitudes, and changes in participants' perceptions of their personal effectiveness (Neill, 2001). The long-term effects of the course including any changes in employment status were not reported.

Two studies outside NZ involving outdoor education and unemployed participants have been found. A Colorado Outward Bound study on the outcomes of an integrated Outward Bound employment programme in partnership with Corrs bottling company showed that there was a positive outcome from participation in the course (Harmon Associates, 1974). Unfortunately the research undertaken on the Corrs – Outward Bound programme does not reveal much detail about the results, making it difficult to draw any conclusions beyond the case studied. The other study examined goal setting among unemployed youth on the Leeuwin adventure sail training programme in Australia. Results are claimed to show that the more successful participants set more goals than less successful participants and that specific and challenging goals are more motivating than easily attained goals (Crane, Hattie, & Houghton, 1997). This conclusion is based on cross sectional data whereas it might be argued that longitudinal data are needed to establish if the results would be persistent beyond course end, to ascertain if the results are still valid in the participants' home environment.

In 2008 of the 50 Outward Bound schools worldwide, only Outward Bound New Zealand and Outward Bound Hong Kong offer programmes specifically for unemployed participants. While Outward Bound Netherlands used to run programmes for the unemployed, it no longer does, and no research was able to be discovered on their past programmes, nor any research on the programme at Outward Bound Hong Kong. Outward Bound New Zealand developed the Programme Evaluation Questionnaire (PEQ) (2006) from the Life Effectiveness Questionnaire (LEQ) work of Neill Marsh and Richards (2003), as a quantitative measure of the changes in students' motivation, self confidence, social competence, environmental awareness, and compassion between course start and course end. The PEQ was developed to monitor all courses that Outward Bound

New Zealand delivers, and not tailored to account for the different population groups that attend the various courses that Outward Bound provide, including the Catalyst group under investigation in this study.

Table 2.2 summarises the results from a small selection of past studies carried out on outdoor education programmes. It can be observed that all of the studies focus on course outcome issues such as changes in participants' self efficacy and not on the programmatic issues of course structure. This is also the case for most research on Outward Bound type courses (Bocarro & Richards, 1998). Having established that outdoor education programmes make positive contributions to participants self efficacy, the next logical step is to research on the way in which these outcomes are achieved (Allison & Pomeroy, 2000; Ewert, 1989; Flor, 1991; Hattie et al., 1997; Kolb, 1991; McKenzie, 2003; Meyer & Wenger, 1998; Warner, 1984; Zmudy, Curtner-Smith, & Steffen, 2009), in order to better understand the internal processes and mechanisms that promote these positive and long lasting changes on experiential education programmes (Sibthorp, 2009).

Table 2.2 Summaries of a selection of past outdoor education studies.

Author and Year	Group studied and location	Variables investigated	Evaluation type	Results
Berman & Davis-Berman, 1995	Troubled youth International	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self esteem • Recidivism rates 	Digest	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive gains in self esteem • Reduction in recidivism rates
Cason & Gillis, 1994	Troubled youth International	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self concept • Social skills 	Meta analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Moderate effects on participants self concept at programme end (effect size.31)
Crane, Hattie & Houghton, 1997	Unemployed youth, Sail training, Australia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Goal setting 	Questionnaires and Interviews	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive attributes associated with effective goal setting
Harmon Associates, 1974	Unemployed, Outward Bound Colorado	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employment status • Participant attitudes toward work • Employers' attitudes towards the unemployed 	Participant observation and interviews	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 53% - 61% success rate in retaining employment 6 months post course • Improved attitudes from employers and participants
Hattie, Marsh, Neill & Richards, 1997	Various groups, Outward Bound Australia, and international	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self efficacy • Leadership • Self concept • Locus of control • Independence • Confidence 	Meta analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Moderate effects on participants' self concept at programme end (effect size.34) • Additional gains upon follow up, 6 months post course (effect size .17)
Neill, 2001	Disadvantaged Youth, Outward Bound Australia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self confidence • Attitudes • Personal effectiveness 	Questionnaires and instructor reports	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased self-confidence • More positive attitudes • Changes in participants' perceptions of their personal effectiveness
Paxton & McAvoy, 2000	Open enrolment courses, Outward Bound, Minnesota	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self efficacy • Transference • Longevity of outcomes 	Questionnaires and phone interviews one year post course	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increases in self efficacy and esteem • Effects long lasting (one year post course)

Results obtained in two studies carried out on the outcomes of Outward Bound New Zealand courses show similar findings to Hattie et al.'s (1997) meta-analysis, indicating positive effects in participants' self-confidence, self-esteem, improved interpersonal skills, and self-concept (Martin, 1998; Mitchell & Mitchell, 1989).

In Mitchell and Mitchell's (1989) study, 7.7% of participants were unemployed, and 18% of Martin's (1998) participants were unemployed. In neither study were participants' results analysed with respect to their employment status.

O'Brien's (1988) study of at-risk youth in Northland, who participated in a wilderness experience, showed positive results of reducing the incidence of "at-risk" behaviour amongst the sample population. Also, upon entry to the programme 50% of the participants were unemployed; this number reduced to only 20% upon follow up 6 months post course. There was no discussion on how external labour market conditions and the availability of labour market assistance may have affected outcomes. Findings to date reveal little about how or why outcomes are achieved in outdoor education programmes for particular population groups in New Zealand.

Motivational intervention courses are very similar in design to open enrolment outdoor education programmes, but it is thought to have different outcomes by the researcher and vary with respect to different measures, for instance departure rates are far in excess of general enrolment courses (Maxwell, Martin, & Perry, 2008). Staff to student ratio is different between the two types of courses, indicating that motivational interventions require more staff input than general enrolment courses. Motivational intervention courses for the long-term unemployed have specific characteristics, for example low literacy rates that require a tailored research method, that take into account this difference. Literature also indicates that diverse population groups may require alternative research methods (Henderson & Fox, 1994).

The study of general outdoor education population groups has the advantage that due to the large numbers of participants enrolling on such courses each year, large data sets are able to be collected with relative ease, enabling a wide range of

methods to be considered to conduct research. Specific courses designed for minority population groups such as the long-term unemployed have a limited number of participants attending such courses each year. This restricts the availability of subjects and suitable methods to conduct timely research. This study discusses how the particular restraints of motivational intervention courses shaped the selection of the method and at the end of the study looks back to see if the method was an appropriate choice. This information can be of help to future researchers in their method selection when looking at specific course designs.

Providers of outdoor education over the years have extended programme offerings to specific population groups, including people with disabilities (Harris, 2006; McAvoy et al., 2006), corporate groups (Beard, 2002), youth at risk (O'Brien, 1988), women victims of domestic violence (Cole, Erdman, & Rothblum, 1994; Gondolf, 2002), indigenous populations (Potter & Henderson, 2004), youth groups (Neill, 2001), school groups (Dillon, Rickinson, Teamey, Morris, Choi, & Sanders et al., 2006), parent-child groups (Huff, Widmer, & McCoy, 2003) and the long-term unemployed (Maxwell, 2005). While it may initially seem logical to transpose the results from previous studies on general population groups, which show positive results in students' self-efficacy, to other specific course designs, there is still a need to research courses designed for specific groups. Neill's paper on 'Challenge and support in Outward Bound' calls for further research on "the effectiveness of other programs in order to better assess the relative efficacy of the Outward Bound Australia program" (2002, p. 6). Fischer and Attah's article on children in foster care who attended an Outward Bound course calls for research on "tailoring the program to a new population" (2001, p. 116), and states that while Outward Bound courses have been tailored to some different population groups, further attention is needed to extend it to new population groups (Fischer & Attah, 2001), to ensure that clients are being provided with the most effective course content.

Research on different course designs is essential to give providers the information that they need to run more effective courses. Walsh and Golins state:

A knowledge of the process will permit one to strengthen the program. First, it helps refine what it is the program does, and, indeed, can do. Such refinement

increases the probability of pertinent evaluation; necessary for responsive programming. Second, the clarification of process gives the adaptor predictive criteria with which to design goals and objectives, and the possibility to reorganize them as the needs of the parties involved in the program change (1976, p. 1).

There is a common calling for more research on what influences outcomes on outdoor education courses (Baldwin, Persing, & Magnuson, 2004; Cason & Gillis, 1994; Ewert, 1983; Hattie et al., 1997; McKenzie, 2000a; Neill & Katica, 2001; Paisley, Furman, Sibthorp, & Gookin, 2008). Cason and Gillis' meta-analysis states that "researchers must do a better job of accurately describing what occurs during the adventure programming sessions in order to make research more valid" (1994, p. 46). Hattie et al. emphasised that "only some adventure programs are effective, and then on only some outcomes, and it is probable that only parts of the programs are influencing these outcomes" (1997, p. 70). Further, Hattie et al. indicated that there is a need to "investigate the relation between program characteristics and outcomes" (1997, p. 71), thus moving away from purely outcome evaluation to investigate what is happening within the course, utilising alternative research designs. Warner also states that course components should be explored to uncover which components contribute to learning experiences (1984).

2.2.2 Course Components

A typical experiential education course in the outdoors comprises challenge activities such as rock climbing, high ropes courses, expeditioning and physical training, but also the more intangible activities such as personal interactions between participants, time management and activity de-briefing.

Challenge activities (for example rock climbing, high ropes and kayaking) are the activities most commonly associated with outdoor adventure programmes, and much theory has been produced (Gass, 1995; Luckner & Nadler, 1997; Schoel, Prouty & Radcliff, 1988; Walsh & Golins, 1976) to try to understand what the

qualities of these activities are that promote positive outcomes in personal growth (Marsh, Richards, & Barnes, 1986).

A theoretical model has been used to describe the outcome of “challenge” activities on outdoor education programmes. The outcomes are achieved from the commonalities of participant reactions to different adventure activities, rather than the activities themselves. Firstly, a state of dissonance is created as a result of challenging the participant through a series of adventure activities (Luckner & Nadler, 1997; Walsh & Golins, 1976). Then, through successful completion of the challenge or mastery of the skill, the state of dissonance is overcome (Walsh & Golins, 1976). This cycle is then repeated throughout the course utilising varying and incrementally challenging activities, while replicating the sequence of challenge, mastery and success, which leads to participant growth (Conrad & Hedin, 1981; Walsh & Golins, 1976; Witman, 1995).

Most research has concluded that the course structure has a greater effect on participants than the individual activities (Sibthorp, 2003). “Findings suggested that participants value process over content, activities such as doing ropes courses or doing kayaking were less valued than taking risks, meeting challenges or support from other participants” (Witman, 1995, p. 134). Goldenberg, McAvoy & Klenosky’s (2005) means-end study of outcomes from the components of an Outward Bound experience, reveal that the course overall and interactions have a greater effect on the participants than individual high impact activities such as rock climbing and new experiences.

Expeditioning is a programme component in most outdoor adventure programmes. It is sometimes incorporated as an individual course element of a specified number of days, such as at Outward Bound New Zealand and LSV. Alternately, the entire course can be expedition based, for example at Outward Bound Canada. Expeditioning typically involves the group travelling independently in a wilderness setting under their own power (usually hiking, kayaking or canoeing), taking with them all the equipment and food needed to survive, and camping out for the duration.

Personal interactions have been recognised as an influential aspect of outdoor education programmes with respect to course outcomes (Conrad & Hedin, 1981; Gass, 1995; Hopkins & Putnam, 1993; Walsh & Golins, 1976). Both Goldenberg (2002) and McKenzie's (2003) studies on Outward Bound participants showed that interactions lead to increases in students' self-awareness, self confidence, motivation and interpersonal skills. Hastie (1995) among others (Humberstone & Lynch, 1991; Sibthorp, 2003) concluded that social interactions are an important aspect of a successful course, and that they promote responsibility, communication skills and an appreciation for others.

Timely and appropriate de-briefing is an important aspect of experiential education enabling participants to internalise meaning from activities, and therefore help shape programme outcomes (Luckner & Nadler, 1997). While there has been much theory generated on different de-briefing methods (Bacon, 1987; Priest & Gass, 1997), there is limited research conducted on the outcome effects of using different facilitation models on experiential education programmes (McKenzie, 2000b). McKenzie's later study showed that activity de-briefing "had little direct impact on course outcomes" (2003, p. 18).

2.2.3 Gender Contrasts

There is research examining how the outcomes of outdoor adventure programmes differ for females and males (Estes & Ewert, 1988; McKenzie, 2000b; Witman, 1995). Males historically have higher participation rates on outdoor adventure programmes than females. While this gender imbalance may have an effect on results, more and more females are choosing to participate in such programmes, thus re-balancing the gender equilibrium, and demand has resulted in the appearance of female-only programmes and providers (Hattie et al., 1997).

To date, the literature on the variances in outcomes between males and females during outdoor adventure experiences indicates that females place higher emphasis on group development exercises, personal, self identity and spiritual development; whereas males focus more on independent activities that involve

challenge and adventure (Estes & Ewert, 1988; Finkenber, 1994). Witman (1995) showed that males prefer physical activities that highlight their dominance, and that females place a higher value on team activities that require trust and cooperation.

McKenzie's (2003) study on Outward Bound participants suggested that females reported greater benefits from participation, in particular from the course components: rock climbing, taking care of others and challenge. The females also scored higher in overall impact on motivation, self-concept and interpersonal skills than did the males.

Hattie et al.'s (1997) meta analysis showed that the effects for both females and males were similar, but noted that most research was conducted on mixed gender groups and little research was conducted comparing single gender groups to mixed gender groups. What was revealed was that "single gender groups had a greater mean-effect size than mixed gender groups" (Hattie et al., 1997, p. 61).

2.2.4 Age

Research indicates that the variances in outcomes for younger and older participants on outdoor adventure programmes may be influenced by the way in which participants sign up on courses. Adults may be more likely to participate voluntarily and therefore more motivated to participate, in contrast to youth who may be compelled to participate through various agencies or education providers (Hattie et al., 1997). These different entry routes were also found in Jha's (1991) study on adult basic education and related to a tendency for older students to have higher motivation and therefore be more likely to succeed.

Outcomes from outdoor adventure programmes with respect to age vary between research studies, Cason and Gillis' (1994) meta-analysis of outdoor adventure programmes showed that the age of participants had a negative correlation with effect size, suggesting that younger participants received greater gains from outdoor adventure courses than their older counterparts. Witman's (1995) work

with adolescents in treatment showed that older participants did not value participation in a ropes course as much as younger participants, and that it may be due to older participants not perceiving as much challenge as the younger ones.

In contrast to the above two studies, Hattie et al.'s (1997) meta analysis discovered that while the short term effects were greater for adults than youth, overall there is little significant difference in outcome between age groups from participation in Outward Bound and adventure education type courses. This was also found by Conrad and Hedin (1981).

There were inconsistencies between age groups on the importance of individual course aspects. Ewert and Heyood's (1991) study on group development in the natural environment found that physical fitness is a more important course aspect for the younger participants than the older ones. McKenzie's (2003) study on Outward Bound participants suggested that the effects of particular course components are different with respect to the age of the participant, with older participants valuing the course end run and solo², and younger participants gaining more impact from activities in which they had responsibility for themselves.

Social interactions and group dynamics are acknowledged as being very important for the adolescent age group, as it is at this age that adolescents "often look to their peers for models to make sense of their changing world and evolving roles" (Sibthorp, 2003, p. 83).

The means-end study on Outward Bound participants conducted by Goldenberg (2002) revealed that the physical training aspect of the course was more important for the older group of participants than the younger ones. Variances between means-end relationships showed that the older participants valued "warm relationships" as an end value, whereas for the younger participants "warm relationships" led to "transference". Also for the older participants leadership was associated with "others/teamwork" while the younger participants directly associated "leadership" with "transference" (Goldenberg, 2002).

2.2.5 Ethnicity

Hattie et al.'s (1997, p.58) meta-analysis of outdoor education and Outward Bound programmes revealed no differences relating to ethnic groups, but as few studies recorded the ethnicity of participants this finding is of uncertain significance. While there is research outside of New Zealand on the effects of ethnicity with respect to outdoor education programmes (Orren & Werner, 2007), no research on variances between New Zealand ethnic groups (European, Māori and Pacific Islanders) with respect to outdoor education programmes was uncovered. Therefore, this section necessarily concentrates on the research that has been done on employment programmes in the New Zealand context with respect to variances between Europeans, Māori and Pacific Islanders.

There is clear evidence that outcomes for Māori and Pacific Island participants on employment programmes are not as good as for European participants (Fletcher, 1999; Scott & Brislen, 1998; Te Puni Kokiri, 2001). Fletcher (1999) suggests that training courses would be more effective for Māori if the training was delivered by Māori; this claim is also supported by Cowley (1998). Other studies suggest a holistic approach of not only vocational skills but also life skills is required (Hill & Hawk, 2000; Ministry of Education, 2003). Similarly it has been suggested that what needs to be taken into account is the importance of the learning environment, which includes not only the individual, but also other group members, the instructor/teacher and the wider community of friends and family (Hill & Hawk, 2000; Ministry of Education, 2003; Scott & Brislen, 1998; Te Puni Kokiri, 2001).

To summarise: although there has been some research on the effects of age, gender and ethnicity on course outcomes and impacts on programme effectiveness, the findings are inconclusive, and provide an incomplete picture of who will gain what from participation in outdoor programmes (McKenzie, 2000b; Sibthorp, 2003).

² Solo is an activity done at Outward Bound, where the participants are isolated for up to 3 days in the wilderness with limited resources in order for them to have time for reflection.

2.2.6 Research Ontology

The 1970s saw some of the first research on experiential education programmes and the positivistic paradigm was widely used as it was the dominant paradigm of the time. The positivistic paradigm was adopted by researchers to measure and account for the outcomes that experiential education courses produce (for example, Cave & Rapoport, 1977; Jerstad & Stelzer, 1973; Kaplan, 1972). Studies produced during this period utilised self reporting measures such as the Rosenberg scale of self esteem and the Tennessee self concept scale, administering tests pre and post programme to measure the size of the effect of outcomes, and usually involving an experimental group and some form of control group (Ewert, 1983). Gray and Patterson described this positivistic paradigm as being beneficial to outdoor and experiential education research because of its scientific rigour (1994). The researchers of this time were largely affiliated with psychology departments who focused on aspects of self and outcomes (Ewert, 1989). A significant goal of this outcome research was to enable providers to market and justify their courses (Ewert, 1987).

From the mid 1980s researchers suggested that it was time to embrace the post-positivistic paradigm by using a variety of measures, moving away from proving that experiential education programmes work, to uncovering how outcomes are being achieved (Allison & Pomeroy, 2000; Ewert, 1987; Ewert & McAvoy, 2000; Hastie, 1992; McKenzie, 2000b). At this time, while there was still much positivistic research being conducted, the rising popularity of the post-positivistic paradigm had researchers using mixed methods enabling multiple viewpoints to be established. The adoption of qualitative methods at this stage was primarily to support or explain quantitative findings (Gass, 1993; Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989; Warner, 1984).

During the period from 1997 to 2003 seven meta-analyses were conducted which endeavoured to summarise the multitude of outcome studies on experiential education and related literature. Hattie et al.'s (1997) study was typical of the seven meta-analyses (Bunting & Donley, 2002; Cason & Gillis, 1994; Hans, 2000; Marsh, 1999; Staunton, 2003; Wilson & Lipsey, 2000) that used a scientific

approach to generate average effect sizes from various studies utilising the positivistic paradigm.

Many of the meta-analyses revealed inadequacies in much of the research conducted previously in the experiential education field, including small sample size, varying outcome measures, lack of control group, lack of description of the programme and participants (Cason & Gillis, 1994; Hattie et al., 1997). There was also a common call among the meta-analyses for more research into what influences these outcomes (Cason & Gillis, 1994; Hattie et al., 1997). Ewert (1989) also identified that the research needed to go beyond standard research methods that relied heavily on the use of quantitative survey approaches, such as Likert scales and questionnaires, in order to establish outcomes (Bocarro & Richards, 1998), and rather conduct research to discover how the outcomes were being achieved (Ewert, 1989).

In response to calls from the meta-analyses, new methods were adopted by experiential education researchers, including in the late 1990s Neill, Marsh and Richard's (2003) development of the Life Effectiveness Questionnaire (LEQ) to assess how individuals felt about themselves. This enabled the measurement of personal changes on adventure education programmes. The development of the LEQ was from the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale, Rotter's Locus of Control and Marsh's multidimensional Self-Concept Questionnaires, which are well regarded and time-tested instruments to study individuals (Doudgerty, 2005). Since that time, the LEQ has been employed in a number of studies (Eagle, Gordon, & Lewis, 1999; Holmes, 1996; Neill, 1999, 2001; Purdie, Neill, & Richards, 2002), and also in a number of university student studies (Fabrizio, 2002; Stenger, 2001; Terry, 2002). The LEQ was again based upon the positivistic paradigm to validate programme outcomes, thus seemingly ignoring calls to break free of pure outcome evaluation research, and the scientific approach.

What the LEQ did address was many of the weaknesses of earlier outcome research; due to its popularity and ease of use it had the benefit of being able to compare results from one study to another. The LEQ has therefore been widely used to validate outdoor adventure programme outcomes (Eagle et al., 1999;

Holmes, 1996; Neill, 1999, 2001). More recently, researchers have utilised the LEQ method in conjunction with other data collection methods, including participant observation (Doudgerty, 2005; Martin, 2001), and open ended questionnaires (Martin & Leberman, 2005), to support the quantitative data produced by the LEQ, enabling triangulation of the findings.

At the same time that the LEQ became a popular positivistic method to conduct research, the phenomenological paradigm to conduct outdoor education research was also being established (Davidson, 2001; Foran, 2005), including McKenzie's (2003) case study of how students learn at Outward Bound Western Canada, using a mixed method of questionnaires, interviews and participant observation; Harris (2006) combined quantitative and qualitative methods such as participant observation, interviews, focus groups and case studies; Bocarro and Richards (1998) used group debriefing interviews to enhance and interpret the quantitative data collected from a group of at risk youth. The LEQ method was also being included in some phenomenological research (Harris, 2006; Martin, 2001).

Recently various methodological approaches have been encouraged to conduct experiential education research including ethnomethodological, (Brown, 2003), feminist (Cole et al., 1994; Warren, 1996), emergent (Martin, 2001), case studies (Boyes & Maxted, 2007; Culp, 1998), action research (Hobbs, 2007) and ethnography (Humberstone, 1995; McCulloch, 2007). By having a variety of methodological approaches, new knowledge can be created that can open up new areas of research. Allison and Pomeroy (2000) argue that experiential education by nature is based upon a constructivist epistemological vision, and therefore an outcome focused objectivist epistemological approach is not appropriate to conduct research in the experiential education field.

Bocarro and Richards (1998) argue that traditional research methods are not always consistent with non-standard programmes. As experiential education providers expanded their course repertoire to include increasingly specific groups, researchers have had to come to grips with researching various population groups such as people with a disability (Harris, 2006), women (Doudgerty, 2005),

corporate (Burnett & James, 1994), older (Brennan, 2007) and younger groups (Stenger, 2001).

Experiential education can have many objectives including skill development, (for example kayaking), physical well being (for example physical fitness) and personal development (including increasing individuals' self concept). The desired outcomes from a specific experiential education programme will also have an influence on the choice of the particular ontological paradigm to conduct the research. For example, a course aimed at learning to kayak which is primarily a biomechanical function could be investigated by way of scientific inquiry; whereas a kayaking course which aims to develop self confidence may best be researched through more subjective approaches such as utilised in a phenomenological paradigm (Nicol, 2003).

The plethora of methods and ontological paradigms that have been used to conduct research on experiential education programmes may present problems with respect to comparing results. On the other hand, the depth of information being uncovered expands the knowledge about how results occur on experiential education programmes, and thus provides practitioners with better guidance on how to conduct programmes.

It was important in the early days of research in the experiential education field to produce output that justified the existence of the discipline. This was achieved by the production of quantitative studies testing theories, and anecdotal evidence which validated the beneficial and lasting outcomes from experiential education using the positivistic paradigm predominant at that time. The results from meta-analyses and investigations on the research from those early days resulted in appeals for the inclusion of qualitative methodologies to enable triangulation and validation of results, and to look deeper into how the outcomes are being achieved (Hattie et al., 1997). Suggestions that interviews, observation, analysis, case studies, and ethnographies could be used to gain a deeper understanding of the processes that occur on courses, and to validate the quantitative data through triangulation (Conrad & Hedin, 1995) were taken up in some of the post-positivist studies conducted in the 1990s.

Recent studies have responded to requests to provide better descriptions of the courses and the participants (Wolfe & Samdahl, 2005), the “triangulation of qualitative and quantitative methods” (Galloway & Goldenberg, 2004, p. 223), and investigating how particular outcomes have been produced (Hattie et al., 1997). Emerging research in the experiential education field is becoming even more specific, including studies on various population groups (Brennan, 2007), particular programme components (Doudgerty, 2005), and specifically how outdoor experiences contribute to levels of resilience (Ewert & Yoshino, 2008).

One recent branch of experiential education enquiry has utilised the means-end method to conduct research into experiential education programmes. The means-end method shows more than just the outcomes for participants; it also establishes how these outcomes have occurred (Goldenberg, Klenosky, O’Leary & Templin, 2000; Goldenberg et al., 2005; Haras, Bunting, & Witt, 2006; Holman & McAvoy, 2005). These studies respond to calls for research on how and why experiential education programmes achieve their outcomes (Ewert, 1987; Hattie et al., 1997; Sibthorp, 2003). Means-end is predominately a qualitative method, while the data output is represented as quantitative (Gengler & Reynolds, 1995b).

2.3 Means-End

The means-end method uses a semi-structured personal interview design that probes the reasons why particular attributes are important to the respondent (Devlin, Birtwistle & Macedo, 2003). The first step is to ask the respondent what they think they gained from participating on the course, and thus a list of outcomes or “consequences” are produced. The respondent is then questioned about why each consequence on the list was important to them, building upon each answer and thus gaining a higher level of abstraction. Each successive answer to the “Why was that important?” question should be a step away from the concrete towards the more abstract value level (Klenosky, Gengler & Mulvey, 1993). This questioning is carried on until the respondent can no longer provide an answer to the question or starts to repeat themselves. The higher level of abstraction corresponds to the personal values of the respondent (Veludo-de-Oliveira, Ikeda & Campomar, 2006). Each consequence is then linked to an aspect or attribute of the course by asking the respondent “what activities or parts of the course led to that outcome?”

This method of questioning utilises a qualitative methodology called ‘laddering’ (Reynolds & Gutman, 1988). What is produced is a knowledge structure called a means-end chain or ladder (Gutman, 1982; Klenosky et al., 1993), linking course attributes to consequences to values.

Attribute → **Consequence** → **Value**

The following definitions will clarify what is meant by the terms attribute, consequence and value:

Attributes are the course activities or aspects of the course that the participants credit as being the cause of their outcomes, during a course. Examples of attributes in motivational intervention programmes include: rock climbing, hiking,

physical training, interactions, or course aspects such as time management and teamwork.

Consequences are the effects and outcomes that occur to the individual from the course activities (attributes). Consequences can occur directly from the course activity or indirectly, and can be either positive or negative in nature (Klenosky et al., 1993). Consequences may also be physiological in nature (satisfying hunger, thirst, or other physiological needs); or the nature of the consequences resulting from an activity may be psychological (self esteem, improved outlook on the future) or sociological (enhanced status, group membership) (Gutman, 1982). Examples of consequences from motivational intervention programmes include: relationships with others, teamwork, leadership, goal setting and achievement.

“A **value** is what a participant wants in life or sees as a better way of living or existence over another” (McAvoy, 2001, p. 1). Values vary from one individual to another and are viewed as being highly abstract (Goldenberg et al., 2005). Examples of values that participants in motivational intervention programmes may have are: self confidence, self reliance, and achievement of a personal goal/value.

2.3.1 Foundations

The means-end method is well established in the marketing field and has spread into a range of other areas including psychology, advertising, architecture, organisational management and experiential education to name a few (Veludo-de-Oliveira, et al., 2006). While the means-end method has become a widely accepted research methodology, Reynolds and Olson state that the means-end methodology and its theoretical underpinnings have evolved in an informal and somewhat haphazard manner (2001).

Reynolds and Rochon discuss the means-end method with respect to advertising research:

A theoretical paradigm of means-end theory provides both a cognitive and social psychological framework for understanding how consumers

differentiate between competitive products and ultimately assign personal utilities that result in choice behaviour (1991, p. 135).

Mulvey, Olson, Celsi and Walker add that “A means-end chain is the cognitive representation of the connection between a person’s knowledge about a product (salient attributes and benefits) and their self knowledge (important psychological and social consequences and values)” (1994, p. 51).

There are two views on what means-end research reveals; on the one hand a motivational view, and on the other hand the cognitive structure view (Grunert, Beckmann & Sorensen, 2001). The motivational view argues that means-end theory offers insights into the motivation linked to specific experiences. Means-end chains can reveal valuable insights, by prompting respondents to reflect on what they have learned while participating on experiential education programmes. Such insights are necessarily qualitative in character, and therefore will be dependent on situational variables to give meaning. The usefulness of the motivational view approach can be accessed if the results from a group of respondents can be observed, without going through each individual result (Grunert & Grunert, 1995).

The cognitive structure view is that the resulting means-end chains are a model of the cognitive structure of the respondents’ value forming experiences. A cognitive structure view should be able to predict or explain actual behaviour in a given situation, as it reveals the way knowledge is stored in human memory. Means-end theory could then be used as a predictive tool, producing estimates of cognitive structures from a group of respondents (Grunert & Grunert, 1995). The cognitive structure view is quantitative in character as it attempts to measure cognitive structures, and therefore predict future behaviour. One way to ascertain whether the cognitive structure view is of value, would be to test its predictive ability from the estimates of the cognitive structures obtained (Grunert & Grunert, 1995).

The motivational view subscribes to a phenomenological paradigm and the cognitive structure subscribes to a positivistic paradigm. “The literature on means-end theory does not take a clear stand on which of these two views are being

endorsed” (Grunert & Grunert, 1995, p. 210). Two different meanings of the results from a means-end study could be achieved depending on the adoption of either a positivistic or phenomenological paradigm. By adopting a positivistic paradigm the results can be used as a predictive tool for future behaviour, as the results reveal the respondents’ true cognitive structures. If the positivistic paradigm is adhered to then the validity of the results could be assessed by testing the true cognitive structures of the respondents and the results of the means-end output. Cognitive structures are mediated by cognitive processes, which is how cognitive structures are changed by new information from the environment. This means it is not possible to obtain an individual respondent’s or group of respondents’ true cognitive structure to test against (Grunert & Grunert, 1995). The only way left to test the validity of the approach is to look at the predictive validity of the method; studies to date have not used the results to predict actual behaviour, rather they have established the appearance of validity by adhering to a rigorous approach to the methodology.

On the other hand, if a phenomenological paradigm is adopted then the results can be used to reveal insights into the groups studied. As the findings are a summary of the group of respondents, enabling a type of ‘average’ to be looked at, or what are the typical outcomes from the group studied. This data can be a useful tool for end users of the results, such as managers, to gain a better understanding of the groups being studied, enabling them to make better decisions (Grunert & Grunert, 1995).

Means-end is a new method to conduct experiential education research (Goldenberg et al., 2000; Goldenberg et al., 2005; Haras et al., 2006; Holman et al., 2003), and upon investigation none explicitly state their ontological foundation. Of the four major means-end studies completed in the experiential education field, only Haras, Bunting & Witt (2005) allude to subscribing to the positivistic paradigm, in that they state that the results reveal the cognitive structure of the participants. The other three studies state that their findings are a representation of the larger population (Goldenberg et al., 2000; Goldenberg et al., 2005; Holman & McAvoy, 2005), suggesting that they are placed within the positivistic paradigm. It is important to know the ontological standing behind the

research, as this will determine whether the results are presented as a representation of a larger population (positivistic); or a summary of the means-end chains of the respondents in the study (phenomenological).

2.3.2 Means-end and Experiential Education

Table 2.3 summarises four means-end evaluations completed within the experiential education field. These studies have been successful in demonstrating linkages between activities and associated values with respect to outdoor activities. Means-end research has been used to identify the importance of specific course attributes, such as challenge activities, expeditioning and physical fitness. They have been applied across varying population groups from a wide age range of the general population to a close age range of school children and also a comparison of people who have a disability with those that do not.

Table 2.3 Previous experiential education means-end investigations.

Author(s) & date	Study focus & setting involved	Approach used in study	Sample
Goldenberg, Klenosky, O’Leary & Templin (2000)	Demonstrated how means-end approach could be used to study participation in a recreation activity. Means-end study of ropes course participation	Questionnaires	N=125 ropes course participants, 18-50 years old
Haras, Bunting & Witt (2005)	Studied which Ropes course attributes lead to what outcomes.	Survey	N= 209 Ropes course participants, 10 - 15 years old
Goldenberg, McAvoy & Klenosky (2005)	Studied the attributes, consequences and values associated with attending multi-day Outward Bound courses.	Questionnaire, and telephone interviews	N = 216 Outward Bound participants, 14-66 years old
Holman & McAvoy (2005)	Studied the integrated wilderness experience. Participants with and without a disability. Transference of the experience back into daily lives	Questionnaire and telephone interviews	N = 193, participants, 74 with a disability

Goldenberg further extended the use of means-end to examine the outcomes from a particular group focusing on social awareness and diversity (2004). This current research again extends the means-end method within the experiential education field, by application to programmes with a specific focused course objective and specific population group.

Similarity to other methods

The means-end data coding process is similar to other methods, including the constant comparative method and the repertory grid technique. The constant comparative method divides interview data into units of meaning (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). The units of meaning are then grouped thematically to become categories, which in turn are given representative titles. Through constant comparison of themes emerging from the data, main themes can be identified which are a representation of the raw data. This is similar to the coding of the raw data in means-end analysis to create content codes; unlike the constant comparison method means-end also keeps intact the linkages between content codes in the form of ladders. These ladders reveal not only content as with the constant comparative method, but also give structure to the data allowing context as well as content to be revealed. The constant comparison method has been used in experiential education studies (Davidson, 2001; Haluza-DeLay, 2001; Knapp & Poff, 2001; Thomas, 2008).

The repertory grid technique combines elements, constructs and linking mechanisms (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe, 1991). This produces outputs that have not only content but also structure similar to the means-end method. The repertory grid method can also be used with respondents who have low literacy ability, which would have made this method also suitable for the population group of this study. The repertory grid technique has also been used in past experiential education studies (Burnett & James, 1994; Farnham & Mutrie, 1997; Scherl, 1998; Wheeler, Goldie, & Hicks, 1998). Repertory grids were not selected to conduct this research as a more inductive mode of inference allowing the respondents to put forward their own content was the preferred approach. Repertory grids employ a deductive approach due to the researcher choosing the initial focus of the grid.

2.3.3 Credibility and Transferability

The means-end method has been reviewed extensively within the marketing and advertising research field (Lin, 2002; Veludo-de-Oliveira et al., 2006), but to date little credibility testing has been conducted on the studies undertaken on experiential education.

Testing the credibility of this approach can be assessed by checking the results against the initial data, and checking to see if the output is a true representation of what the respondents conveyed during the interviews. Grunert and Grunert (1995) formulated four criteria against which credibility can be checked:

1. The raw data should not be influenced by the researchers' thoughts or interpretations. Respondents should be able to express their thoughts using their own language, and not restricted to Fishbein-type rating scales, where the categories are specified in advance.
2. The test environment should resemble the data collection environment. Within a positivistic paradigm any predictive testing should take place in situations that resemble the initial data collection situation as closely as possible.
3. Coding should reflect categories used within the research discipline area, and not be idiosyncratic to the researcher. The researcher should be familiar with the categories used within the field of study prior to coding, facilitating understanding of the categories used. This also allows connections to be established to other research.
4. The data reduction algorithm should be based on the paradigm chosen to undertake the study. If a phenomenological paradigm is adhered to then the data reduction should summarise the main aspects of the respondents' raw data. Adhering to a positivistic paradigm requires that the data reduction should produce an estimate of the shared cognitive structures from a group of respondents (Grunert & Grunert, 1995).

As the phenomenological paradigm has been chosen to undertake this study; the second check is not relevant as the results are not being used to predict future behaviour. Before credibility and transferability are discussed, the terms are defined with respect to the context of the research undertaken in this study.

Grunert and Grunert (1995) use the term validity which is a quantitative term measuring how correct or true the research is; however, as this current study is primarily phenomenological in nature the term credibility is more appropriate (Robson, 2002). Credibility relates to how believable the results are, or internal validity (Bryman, 2004), i.e. is the study to be trusted as a true representation of the event or events being evaluated.

Transferability is the qualitative term for external validity or reliability, i.e. are the results applicable to other contexts (Bryman, 2004). Case studies are more concerned with understanding what is going on within a particular context, rather than producing statistical generalisation. Theories established within the phenomenological paradigm are acknowledged as being able to be transferred to help understand other cases or situations (Robson, 2002).

To test the credibility of the means-end method with respect to the current study, three of Grunert and Grunert's (1995) areas of concern are discussed along with additional questions such as:

- How many participants have to be questioned for the method to be credible?
- Is means-end a qualitative or quantitative method?
- Can the results be transferred to a greater population, across differing populations or from one case to another?
- Can credibility testing be achieved?

These questions are answered before the limitations of the means-end method are presented.

1. *The raw data should not be influenced by the researchers' thoughts or interpretations. Respondents should be able to express their thoughts using their own language, and not restricted to Fishbein-type rating scales, where the categories are specified in advance (Grunert & Grunert, 1995).*

There is a range of techniques available to the researcher to conduct means-end data collection, including open or closed written questionnaires, computerised data collection methods and oral interviews. To date, the majority of studies using the means-end method use either open ended written questionnaires or oral interviews in person, which satisfies Grunert and Grunert's (1995) first check point of credibility. It is uncommon for means-end research to utilise closed ended or Fishbein type rating scales. To date no studies within the experiential education field have used such approaches to conduct means-end research.

One major recommendation in the use of the means-end method is the importance of having a skilled interviewer to conduct interviews in person (Veludo-de-Oliveira et al., 2006). This assumes that the interview process is undertaken in person and not in the form of a written questionnaire. To date, much of the means-end research conducted in the experiential educational field has relied on written questionnaires (Goldenberg, 2002; Goldenberg et al., 2000; Haras et al., 2006; Holman & McAvoy, 2005). This brings into question the depth of data obtained as the researcher is not at hand to overcome blocks from the respondent (Veludo-de-Oliveira et al., 2006). When interviews are conducted by the respondents filling out a written questionnaire, there is a higher risk of ending up with a lower average chain length, due to the inability of some respondents to un-block themselves (Gengler & Reynolds, 1995b).

Two means-end studies have looked at the difference in output between the written and oral forms of laddering interviews and found no difference (Botschen & Thelen, 1998; Herrmann, Huber, & Gustaffsson, 1997), but it can be noted that in neither study was the population group described in any depth, and so no comparison can be made between the respondents' written versus verbal skills. Grunert and Grunert (1995) state that context can be lost according to which data collection technique is used, in that self-administered questionnaires provide little content information, and in-person interviews offer the best chance of uncovering the full context of the data.

Gengler and Reynolds (1995b) pose that the means-end structured questioning technique in itself ensures that interviewer bias is minimised, and also that the

results are not overly weighted towards the best communicators interviewed. This results in an accurate quantitative representation and analysis of the qualitative data gathered from the sample interviewed. Grunert and Grunert also agree that there are no negative implications from data collected by verbal interview as there is little possibility of the interviewer influencing the interview, as they will not put forward any content and therefore only the respondent data is obtained (1995).

2. *Coding should reflect categories used within the research discipline area, and not be idiosyncratic to the researcher* (Grunert & Grunert, 1995).

With respect to content analysis, it is noted that it is largely a subjective process open to researcher interpretation, along with the categorisation of data into attribute, consequence or value (Grunert & Grunert, 1995; Lin, 2002). In addition, the categorisation process can over-simplify the data and therefore lose the wider meaning of what the respondent was originally trying to express (Lin, 2002). Possible bias with respect to content analysis is addressed by analysing data collected from homogeneous groups, which produces an estimate of cognitive structure for the group as a whole (Grunert & Grunert, 1995). The researcher should be familiar with the literature and language used within the field of study, facilitating connections to be established to other research. For example the word “transference” is used in this study to mean that what the participant has learned on the course will be able to be used back in the home environment. Transference is a widely used term in the experiential education field (Gass, 1990), and therefore facilitates connections with other experiential education research. Throughout the content analysis stage theoretical sensitivity is required. This is achieved by the researcher giving meaning to the data, the capacity to understand and the capability to separate pertinent content from that which is not (Corban & Strauss, 1990).

There are many techniques for undertaking coding, including cut up and paste, and computer software packages like *Ethnograph* that facilitate the coding procedure. The LadderMap programme provided by Gengler and Reynolds (1995a) has functionality that facilitates the reduction of data into codes. This can help the

researcher keep track of the data reduction process and minimise the chance of errors occurring (Veludo-de-Oliveira et al., 2006).

3. *The data reduction algorithm should be based on the paradigm chosen to undertake the study. Adhering to a positivistic paradigm requires that the data reduction should produce an estimate of the shared cognitive structures from a group of respondents (Grunert & Grunert, 1995).*

With respect to experiential education, Reynolds and Rochon's view of the means-end approach serves to separate the activities and "self" (1991). Thus, defining specific attributes of the outdoor experience, and giving meaning to these attributes by establishing linkages to higher order consequences and values. Consequences are the explanation that respondents give to attributes in order to give them individual meaning. Finally, values are the end-states that represent what respondents perceive to be important to them at a social psychological level (Reynolds & Rochon, 1991). The LadderMap algorithm retains all the individual respondents' attributes, consequences and values producing means-end chains, and with use of an appropriate cut off value, the final output displays an accurate estimate of the most predominant structures shared by the group (Gengler & Reynolds, 1995b).

Not only does the data reduction step have an influence on the representation of the shared cognitive structures from a group of respondents, but also the technique to visually represent the means-end data through hierarchical value maps (HVMs) have a chance to influence the output from the raw data. The resulting HVM can be used summarise all the interviews across individuals, which is interpreted as representing dominant perceptual orientations of the respondents (Veludo-de-Oliveira et al., 2006).

The cut off value used affects the number of ladders represented on the HVM and therefore affects the complexity and the readability of the output. A low cut off level will produce a cluttered, hard to interpret diagram, whereas too high a cut off value will lose meaning from the results. Unfortunately, there are no statistical or theoretical criteria to guide the selection of the cut off level (Grunert & Grunert, 1995). When constructing HVMs, qualitative judgements must be made in order to present a map which is an accurate representation of the data, readable and

aesthetically pleasing. The construction of the HVM must be completed by a skilled analyst familiar with the data, ensuring that there is a balance between credibility and parsimony (Gengler & Reynolds, 1995b, p. 25).

To date, HVMs are the most popular technique for representing means-end data output due to the availability of the LadderMap programme (Gengler & Reynolds, 1995b). The complexity of various other techniques such as the summary ladder matrix and semantic analysis has precluded researchers from using other techniques which may have certain benefits over the traditional HVM technique (Aurifeille & Valette-Florence, 1995; Hofstede, Audenaert, Steenkamp, & Wedel, 1998; Kaciak & Cullen, 2006; Lin, 2002).

4. *Is means-end a qualitative or quantitative method?*

Unless associated with cognitive structure testing, means-end is a predominately qualitative method, as the data collected from respondents is what they think and feel about a product or experience. Content analysis is the process in which the qualitative data obtained from the participant responses is converted into nominal codes which can then be quantified (Gengler & Reynolds, 1995b). The generation of the implication matrix from the content codes bridges the gap between the qualitative and quantitative aspects of the laddering technique (Devlin, Birtwistle, & Macedo, 2003). The output from the means-end method resembles quantitative measures, having numerical values attached to the results.

The phenomenological paradigm has been selected to undertake this current study, therefore the credibility of the quantitative output cannot be calculated by statistical testing.

5. *How many participants have to be questioned for the method to be credible?*

The ontological standpoint of each individual research project will influence the sample size needed to ensure credibility of the results. If the study subscribes to a positivistic paradigm then a large sample is needed to ensure that the results accurately represent the cognitive structures from a sample of people that will then be able to be used as a predictive mechanism back into a larger population. If a

phenomenological paradigm is subscribed to, then the sample size can be limited to the group under study, as the results are used to reveal insights into that particular group and not back into the population group (Collis & Hussey, 2003).

The research method outline does not give specific numbers on the minimum sample size for the results to be credible, but as a general rule of thumb Reynolds and Olson recommend a sample size of at least 20 respondents (2001). There has been a wide range of sample sizes used in means-end research to date, ranging from 11 (Huber et al., 2004) to 1,081 (Botschen & Hemetsberger, 1998). The sample size in each study needs to be assessed with respect to the adopted paradigm, available sample size, homogeneity of group, and the data collection method adopted, to assess the credibility of the sample size.

The data collection method also has an influence on the sample size in practical terms of cost and time. Hofstede, Audenaert, Steenkamp, and Wedel suggest that conducting means-end interviews in person is more suited for small group research, and that postal surveys are appropriate for gathering data from larger representative samples (1998). The more homogenous the group is, the smaller the sample size needs to be. For example in one study it was found that “there was a considerable degree of agreement and correlation in the results after undertaking 15 interviews” (Devlin et al., 2003, p. 659). Other studies have conducted research with a larger group of respondents and analysed results by dividing the larger group into sub groups which share common traits; for example, Mulvey et al.’s (1994) study consisted of 58 subjects who were divided into 3 sub groups for means-end analysis, consisting of 17, 19 and 21 respondents each. Grunert and Grunerts’ (1995) study had 15 and 16 participants in each sub-group, totalling 31 participants.

Methods that are predominantly qualitative in nature commonly use small data sets (Collis & Hussey, 2003). This is useful when researching single groups in the experiential education field, as typical group size ranges between 8 and 14 (Gass, 1993). Means-end studies conducted within the experiential education field to date have mostly looked at open-enrolment courses (Goldenberg, 2002; Goldenberg et al., 2000; Haras et al., 2006; McAvoy, 2001). This has required a larger sample

size than would be necessary if the group consisted of a specific population sharing similar traits.

6. *Can the results be transferred into a greater population, across differing populations or from one case to another?*

Again the ability to transfer the results is determined by the ontological standpoint, in that if a phenomenological paradigm is subscribed to then the results are only a representation of the data collected and not expected to be an indication of a greater population. However, if a positivistic paradigm is subscribed to then the results should be able to be generalised into the greater population. The ability of results to transfer from one case to another would depend on how similar the characteristics of the groups were; groups with similar qualities facilitate transfer of results and dissimilar groups would not be easily comparable.

Means-end studies completed to date in the experiential education field have only just started to investigate specific population groups. Holman, Goldenberg, McAvoy and Rynders (2003) have completed research on people who have a disability (see also McAvoy et al., 2006), and these results could be used to add to the knowledge of other groups of disabled participants with similar cultural identities in the outdoors. For any means-end study to be compared from one situation to another, the sample population has to be identified, and the research paradigm needs to indicate whether the results are a summary of a group of respondents or a predictive sample that would allow the results to be generalised into a larger population.

7. *Can credibility testing be achieved?*

No convergent credibility testing has been conducted between the means-end method and other methods utilised in experiential education research to date. This is in part due to means-end output having structure as well as content. Thus, while being able to assess the credibility of content against other methods such as LEQ outputs, it is not possible to validate the structure of the means-end output, due to other methods not having such a structure to their output. In this current study, no

content credibility testing has been conducted as no comparable studies have been undertaken on the long-term unemployed population group, against which to test content. What can be noted about the content or nodes of the means-end chains network, is that there is a correspondence of data outputs and attributes with previous research conducted on general population groups in the outdoors. At this point, it would be unwise to conduct convergent credibility testing until further studies on a comparable data set are conducted utilising a similar method such as the association pattern technique (see Hofstede et al., 1998). As this current study is an initial first step in researching the long-term unemployed in an experiential education setting, replication and further research would be needed to confirm the findings.

2.3.4 Limitations

Limitations of the means-end theory and method are presented next. A fuller discussion of the limitations of this specific study is also presented in chapter eight.

Results from means-end research can vary depending on the situation and affective state of the respondent at the time of data collection. Therefore, the transferability of results is limited, as is the ability to generalise results. Situations activate differing self meanings and therefore play a significant role in any cognitive structure theory (Walker & Olson, 1991). The means-end interviews conducted at the end of each course are in a largely constant situation, one that could be replicated in future studies on a similar population group for comparison. On the other hand, the 6 month post-course telephone interviews have no situational stability and therefore the results could be biased by the situations that the respondents were in at the time of the interview.

Huber et al. (2004) state that the means-end method is sensitive to the affective state of the respondent which can influence the breadth of data collected from the individual. The consequence of affective state influence within this study could be that end of course euphoria may produce, on average, longer means-end chains

than from a course that did not end on a positive note. Therefore, it is acknowledged that in order to compare results, the affective state of the respondents should be noted; in this study all the courses ended on a positive note. It would be expected that the average length of means-end chains from a group that was interviewed in a predominately positive mood would be longer than from a group that was in a neutral or negative mood state (Huber et al., 2004).

Research conducted by van Rekom and Wierenga (2007) demonstrates that not all means-end chains are necessarily hierarchical in nature. They propose that network diagrams are a more appropriate way of representing the data than a HVM when data symmetry rather than asymmetry (hierarchical) is proven. To date, the means-end analysis method does not incorporate hierarchy testing of the data as suggested by van Rekom and Wierenga (2007), and therefore in this current study a hierarchy of results can only be assumed.

Veludo-de-Oliveira et al. (2006) discuss the limitations of laddering which include the difficulty that some respondents have in responding to questions at a higher level of abstraction, which then requires a greater skill set from the researcher to overcome such blocks. The complexity of the method itself, requiring that the researcher has a high level of skill, along with the time-consuming nature of the research method, contribute to the major obstacles for its proliferation (Gengler & Reynolds, 1995b; Veludo-de-Oliveira et al., 2006).

Gengler and Reynolds also identified three practical problems of the means-end theory with respect to the advertising field: one, the significant time and cost of conducting means-end interviews; two, the large amount of time and effort to conduct content analysis of the raw data; and three, the lack of a detailed procedure to translate the means-end output into an advertising strategy (1995b). In their article, Gengler and Reynolds address the second two practical problems by providing a computer programme that assists the content coding process, called LadderMap (Gengler & Reynolds, 1995a); they also outline a process to enable advertising strategy to be developed from the means-end data analysis (1995b). However, the benefits of the means-end interviewing technique, in Gengler and

Reynolds' view, outweigh any savings made by other methods, which may generate inaccurate or incomplete data (1995b).

With respect to studies conducted in the experiential education arena, two of the three problem areas pointed out by Gengler and Reynolds have not been sufficiently dealt with to date. The lack of a procedure to translate results into an output strategy is somewhat redundant with respect to most means-end studies conducted in the experiential education field. This is due to most studies being research-based rather than for product creation. With respect to the experiential education field, the interview process still requires a considerable amount of time and effort to ensure that accurate and in-depth data is obtained. To date, many of the studies conducted in the experiential education field have been utilising a written survey method of obtaining participant means-end data. This survey method opens up questions about the depth of the data collected in that manner, as it precludes the insightful probing characteristic of the means-end verbal interviewing technique (Gengler & Reynolds, 1995b). The last area of concern about the complexity of content analysis, is addressed by using the LadderMap programme (Gengler & Reynolds, 1995a), which is a valued tool for means-end data analysis and content coding in any field of study.

Although LadderMap is a valued tool for analysis and content coding, the programme is out of date with no graphical user interface, is cumbersome to install and operate and has no backup or support. The programme therefore requires a considerable amount of time before a user can become proficient at operating it, which limits the selection of means-end as a research method.

There were limitations of the observational data coding, including coder reliability. This reliability would have been increased if the results were communicated to the participants and staff, soon after they were analysed. However, this did not happen until three years after data collection and at that time contacting participants was difficult. Only four of the students who were contacted were able to offer much usable reflection about the outcomes of their course. Meetings were held with five staff from LSV and two from Outward Bound, the

observational data and the means-end analysis were discussed with them to check reliability of the researcher's outcomes.

Another method to strengthen the reliability of the observational data would have been to include a second researcher at the courses and independently record observations. This was not done due to resource constraints. The use of video could have been another option, by having a second person view the video from the course and comment on the reliability of the observational data. This option was also not used again, as resources were not available.

2.4 Justification for the Research

A key finding of the literature indicates there is little doubt that outcomes such as increases in self-concept, locus of control, and self-efficacy occur on outdoor experiential education courses. It is now claimed that the focus of research needs to shift to the explanation of how outcomes are achieved on outdoor experiential education courses (Hattie et al., 1997; Cason & Gillis, 1994). Such research needs to consider how the types of activities, group composition, format and environment influence outdoor educational outcomes (Anderson, Schleien, McAvoy, & Lais, 1994).

It's been a long time since Ewert first stated "In essence, we have discovered an educational black box; we know something works, but we don't know how or why" (1983, p. 27). Since then, various attempts have been made to discover what goes on in outdoor education programmes that affect change (McKenzie, 2000a, 2003). Paisley et al., further suggest that only "when we understand the mechanisms through which learning and development occur in outdoor education" (2008, p. 202) can we maximise outcomes.

Research on experiential education and adventure based learning has typically concentrated on mainstream groups (Luckner & Nadler, 1997). What the research does not reveal is whether the outcomes generated from general population courses are transferable to courses provided for specific population groups. Studying different groups may provide new insights which may also be transferable to other populations (Henderson & Fox, 1994). This current research will be a step towards filling the current gap in the literature on the outcomes from the specific courses provided for the long-term unemployed.

There have been a few studies that have looked at the linkages between individual course components and outcomes, such as ropes courses, high adventure activities, physical training, activity de-briefs and personal interactions (Conrad & Hedin, 1981; Goldenberg et al., 2000; Goldenberg et al., 2005; Hastie, 1995; Hopkins &

Putnam, 1993; McKenzie, 2003). The results from this current study will expand the literature on how course components affect outcomes.

Literature on participant demographics of gender, age and ethnicity, and how these variables impact on participant outcomes are inconclusive, and provide an incomplete picture of who will gain what from participation on outdoor programmes (McKenzie, 2000b; Sibthorp, 2003). Therefore, the question of how participant demographics affect course outcomes is also asked in this current research.

Ontology

The literature presented in this chapter was drawn from a wide array of ontological paradigms and methods, leaving the researcher a multitude of options available to conduct research in the experiential education field. It has been suggested that qualitative methods be used to investigate why course outcomes are achieved (Barrett & Greenaway, 1995; Bocarro & Richards, 1998), moving away from the more quantitative approaches of many outcome evaluations which may “inadvertently miss the influence of outdoor adventure programs” (Garst, Scheider, & Baker, 2001, p. 42).

Outcome evaluations represent a significant quantity of research output in the experiential education field. Included in this grouping is the quantitative method, LEQ which has been established as an important tool to conduct experiential education research (Eagle et al., 1999; Holmes, 1996; Neill, 1999, 2001; Purdie et al., 2002). Quantitative outcome analysis does have some advantages in that the scientific approach using pre/post intervention testing, incorporating a control group also testing at various times post interventions, provides some very robust outcome measures if correctly conducted. The results of quantitative outcome analysis have the advantage of being able to establish standardisation between different studies (Valette-Florence, 1998). The sheer volume of prior outcome research conducted in the experiential education field would make it easy to replicate prior studies on the unemployed population group, and then make comparisons between the various population groups. The last advantage of the

LEQ and other such measures is that they are very simple to conduct, as they do not require specialist knowledge to administer.

Disadvantages of outcome evaluations include the uncertainty that the adopted measures would be valid when used on the long-term unemployed group who are the focus of this study. The utilisation of an instrument designed for use in one cultural context but deployed in another, and comparing results is called a pseudoetic approach (Triandis, 1972). Without testing the measures used to conduct an outcome evaluation, the results may be subject to pseudoetic error, by assuming that the results are comparable.

Outcome evaluation research using the positivistic paradigm was not chosen for this research due to the realisation that such an analysis would only have the ability to quantify the outcomes from motivational interventions, and thus only a small opportunity to uncover a deeper understanding into the processes involved. Positivistic outcome evaluations tend to be method driven, fattening out results in the process of discovering the pure impact of the programme, reducing influences of confounding variables, which inhibit the ability of such evaluations to discover why programmes work (Pawson & Tilley, 1997). More qualitative methods allow subjects to express their own views, values and motivations, rather than be rated on a predetermined list of items (Valette-Florence, 1998). The control group approach was not used, as is not always done when conducting qualitative research, due to the multitude of variables involved in a social environment (Remenyi et al., 1998; Weinbach, 2005). Bocarro and Richards also highlight that traditional research methods are not always consistent with non-standard programmes (1998).

Means End Theory

The means-end semi-structured verbal interview technique was believed to be the most appropriate fit to the members of the group under study as they are assumed to have a low literacy ability (OECD & Human Resources Development Canada, 2000; Statistics New Zealand, 1995).

Means-end is a relatively new method to conduct research in the experiential education field, and therefore there is the opportunity to contribute to the body of

knowledge about using this method. Specifically, due to the lack of discussion around the ontological positioning of the means-end method and experiential education research, there is an opportunity to engage in this discussion. The identification of the ontological positioning of means-end studies conducted in the experiential education field provides a starting position for future research. The recognition that means-end theory can subscribe to either the positivistic or phenomenological paradigm, also enables the current research to be positioned within the most appropriate ontological paradigm.

The means-end method was found to be suitable for a PhD study within the time and financial constraints, including the low cost of administering post-course telephone interviews and the time-saving aspect of the LadderMap programme provided by Gengler and Reynolds (1995a) to calculate associations between concepts.

Various options for collecting data were reviewed with the means-end method standing out as the most appropriate method to accomplish what the research set out to achieve for a number of reasons. First, the method went beyond the standard outcome evaluations and was able to explore what was going on within programmes. Second, the method was assumed to be the best fit to the population group involved; third, there was an opportunity to add to the understanding of the methodology of means-end. Last, the suitability and compatibility of the method to conduct a PhD study by the researcher, in addition to time and financial constraints.

Summary

Given the paucity of studies on motivational intervention programmes, more research is essential in order to design courses with maximum effect for the participants. In particular, research is required that focuses on the actual activities and the related outcomes that occur on courses for the long-term unemployed population group. This will enable a more complete picture of the internal processes and outcomes to be formed, and the resulting data can be utilised at an operational level to fine tune programmes. Research focusing on the processes rather than measuring outcomes alone, will enable action to be directed at specific

course components to improve course delivery, and thus outputs. By having a better understanding of how programme components affect course outcomes, course planners can focus on targeting specific outcomes (Sibthorp & Arthur-Bannings, 2004). This can be of particular interest when due to weather, financial or logistical restraints there is a programming decision to be made as to which course component to conduct. New providers can also use this information to develop course programmes that are most effective. Results from this study may have wide reaching significance, not only in the field of outdoor education, but may also transpose to other fields of research.

Now that the study has been located within the literature and the methodology and method have been selected, it will be applied to one LSV and two Outward Bound courses. Before the method can be applied, an explicit presentation of the research design is needed.

Chapter 3 Research Design

3.1 Introduction

Chapter two discussed the findings of the literature with respect to the outdoor experiential education field, setting out the context and the positioning of this study. The key foundations of the means-end approach were also presented, and a justification for the research has been established. This chapter outlines the procedures used in the data collection phase of the study.

Data was collected for this current research in two key ways, course observation and participant interviews. The course observation procedures are first revealed, followed by the interview procedures used at course end and again six months post course to collect means-end data. A description of how the content code development was undertaken as well as the technique to visually represent the means-end data through hierarchical value maps (HVMs) is next described. The content codes obtained from the data are presented in this chapter rather than the findings chapters; the mixing of design and results was decided upon, as the same process was undertaken for both providers with similar outcomes, thus avoiding duplication in the separate provider results chapters.

The demographics and associated scales that were collected from the respondents are then presented; the chapter finishes by outlining the ethical considerations relevant to the study.

3.2 Course Observation

Course observation was an important aspect of the research methodology which had three major functions: firstly, to observe the process and content of the courses; secondly, to undertake informal discussions with participants, staff members and other interested parties; and thirdly, to establish relationships with the participants in order to facilitate the means-end interviews held at course end, and at 6 months post course.

Three courses were observed, starting with an LSV course in October 2006, followed by two Outward Bound courses in April and August 2007. Upon commencement of the courses the researcher was introduced to the participants as a PhD student from Massey University, undertaking research on motivational intervention programmes, his role as a non-participant observer was communicated, and it was explained that interviews would be conducted at course end.

The researcher attended the courses and stayed in accommodation on-site, separate from the participants. Meals were eaten with the participants, and the courses were observed in as non-intrusive a manner as possible. While the researcher was a non-participant on the course, he did join in on some of the course components. These included most of the physical training exercises, including all the PT sessions at LSV, and the morning run and swim at Outward Bound. Class-based lessons were observed by sitting in the back of the class quietly observing and taking notes in a field journal. Course activities such as rock climbing, high ropes, marching and team building activities were observed and again notes were taken in the field journal.

Coder reliability issues were dealt with by acknowledging the researcher's possible bias. By being aware of the possibility of bias it was at the front of the researchers mind to conduct the research in a professional manner.

Four participants were contacted; two in person and two by phone, three years after the data was collated. The two participants contacted in person reside in the Wellington region and have been seen by the researcher from time to time since their course finished. The researcher attempted to contact the remainder of participants by telephone, however the ability to connect with past participants was very limited, with the majority of the phone numbers no longer in service or not connected to the original person. Two participants who were contacted agreed to talk about their motivational intervention course. The interviews were held in May 2010. The key course observations were discussed with them as well as the outcomes from the data analysis. Specifically, the HVM for all participants collected from the means-end analysis was presented to them (the LSV HVM to the LSV participants, and the Outward Bound HVM to the Outward Bound participants), and they were asked if they thought that this was a good representation of what occurred on their course, and whether they would add anything. The most important course aspects i.e. physical training and participant interactions that were revealed by the HVM for all respondents were further presented to them to ascertain if they thought the links between the course activities and outcomes were correct. The participants agreed that the observations and outcomes that were obtained were a good representation of occurrences from the courses that they had participated on.

Follow-up contact was made with the instructors and staff from LSV and Outward Bound. The researcher re-visited LSV in May 2010 and spoke to 5 staff; one Outward Bound instructor was met in person and another was contacted by phone to conduct follow up interviews. All seven staff contacted agreed with the conclusions made from the course observational data and means-end data that were presented to them in the same way as to the students listed above. The recollection of events was not very good, especially for the staff that may have merged outcomes/events from a wide collection of motivational intervention courses that they had previously worked on. The reliability of the observation data is enhanced by confirming the research results with past participants and staff, but it is acknowledged that it would have been even further enhanced if they were contacted closer to the time that the data was collected.

Field journals that contained observations from the course were read by another person who was familiar with the research, to identify any areas that they thought were missing or mis-represented in the research findings.

Hiking, sailing and kayaking expeditions that typically span 3 days or more and involved camping out overnight were not participated in. The logistical burden to the course instructors would have been an issue, as well as the possibility that outside participation on these activities would have an effect on the course outcomes. The time that the participants were away from the base was used to transcribe and analyse the notes in the field journal, and also to engage in discussions with people associated with the courses. Upon return from expeditions the researcher talked to both the staff and participants about what they did and how they performed while on the expedition. The researcher was able to call upon his extensive prior experience taking groups on very similar expeditions, and therefore make conclusions about what the staff and participants had communicated.

Informal encounters took place throughout the course with staff, students and other associated parties. Discussions on various themes provided a useful insight into how different people viewed motivation intervention programmes, unemployment and related research issues. Informal encounters with the participants had a dual purpose; to discover their thoughts about the course they were on, and also to establish a rapport with the participants in order to facilitate the means-end interviews at course end (Cooper & Schindler, 2001).

The relationship with the participants was assisted by the researcher's informal attire, language used, and participation in the physical training activities. The fact that the researcher had extensive experience as an instructor on outdoor adventure programmes meant he was able to relate to them as a non judgemental and interested party, which facilitated the development of open and frank relationships with the participants. The means-end interviews at course end and at 6 months post course were greatly aided by the relationships that were developed while on the course.

3.3 Interview Procedure

Participants were interviewed utilising the means-end approach within the last 2-3 days of their course. The timing of the interviews was negotiated with the course manager and instructors so that there was minimal disruption to the course programme, which at course end has a full agenda. Due to such time restraints the interviews were required to be kept short. The structure of the means-end questioning technique was also thought to be the most appropriate method within the time constraints, as opposed to more open ended questioning which would have had greater time requirements.

The means-end semi-structured interviews provided the respondent with a framework to answer the question, more so than when presented with open ended questions that can either be hard for the respondent to answer or allow them to go off on a tangent without answering the original question. The verbal questioning method also allowed the interviewer to rephrase questions during the interview process when requested by the respondent, or to help unblock the respondent which is harder to achieve using written questionnaires. The method of interviewing verbally allowed the use of language that was appropriate and understandable to the participant.

Six months post course a second set of means-end interviews were conducted by phone, which followed the same format as the course end interviews. Participants were phoned and asked if they had time to conduct an interview. If they did not have time they were asked for a more appropriate time and were phoned back. A number of the participants were unable to be contacted with the phone number supplied at course end. New contact numbers were acquired for some of the participants through family members or other course participants.

The ability to conduct telephone interviews to collect data post-course was favoured over a postal survey due to the difficulty in achieving a high return rate because of the population groups' assumed high mobility and low writing ability (Cooper & Schindler, 2001). Previous research also indicated that the group has a

low return rate for postal surveys (Maxwell, 2005). Telephone interviews were also favoured over postal methods as a richer context is available to the researcher from a telephone conversation than can be achieved from written forms of communication (Grunert & Grunert, 1995). The need to be able to replicate the interview process as much as possible (within financial constraints), 6 months post-course when the participants have returned to their home regions throughout New Zealand was also facilitated by the ability to conduct phone interviews.

The interview data was initially written on the means-end interview form (Appendix 3) and then coded for content as soon as possible after the interviews, thus enabling accurate coding of the data. Interviews were conducted verbally, because the long-term unemployed population group was assumed as generally having a low literacy level (OECD & Human Resources Development Canada, 2000; Statistics New Zealand, 1995). The researcher wrote down what the participant was saying, and at the same time put what the participant said into key words to speed up the writing process. Also at this stage some content was coded when applicable, for example if the participant said that what they learned on the course they could use back at home, “transference” was recorded. Thus, data collection and analysis became a simultaneous process (Merriam, 1998).

Question sequence included:

- Q Participant demographics recorded: age, gender, ethnicity, smoker and which region they were from.
- Q What outcomes did you observe from the course? (Consequence)
- Q Why each answer is important to you? (until clarification of the resulted value was achieved or until the participant could not verbalise an answer) (Value)
- Q What activities or parts of the course led to that outcome? (Attribute)

What follows is a typical transcript of an interview between a participant at LSV, “Simon” (not his real name, or details) and the researcher. The interview setting was in an empty room in the participants’ barracks; the participant was selected by asking the group who would like to be interviewed. The timing of the interviews was done when the group had free time, and the participants were generally

relaxing, socialising or catching up on their personal duties. The group as a whole was informed that interviews were going to take place for those who wanted to participate, and that the researcher would come around and ask individuals to take part. A similar process was undertaken at Outward Bound, but the interviews were conducted outside in a space away from the other participants.

The participant was first told what the interview was about, that the research aimed to find out what they had gained from participating in the motivational intervention programme. Next the participant was informed that they would not be able to be identified in the results in any way, and then asked for their consent to participate in the research. The participant was not asked to fill out a consent form, as the researcher wanted to keep the interview process as informal as possible, thus allowing the participant to feel relaxed. The interview process, including the use of verbal consent to participate, was discussed with the programme manager, and deemed appropriate. In addition, a low risk ethical approval was gained from Massey University.

Due to the relationships established through interactions and shared experiences during the course, rapport between the researcher and interviewer was quickly established in each interview. The interviews were approximately 15-20 minutes in length. To initiate dialogue the researcher started by asking general questions on how they were feeling, and if they had any questions about the research. Then the interview questions commenced:

Researcher: What outcomes do you think you gained from participating in the course?

Simon: I feel good. Got my fitness up. Waking up on time. I learned how to survive in the bush if I got lost.

The researcher transcribed in short form onto the means-end form, 'feel good' 'fitness' 'waking up on time' and 'survive in bush if lost' (see Table 3.1)

The participant was then asked about each individual outcome in turn and why they thought that that outcome was important to them:

Researcher: Why do you think it is important to you that you feel good now?

Simon: So I can push myself more.

Researcher: And why is that important to you?

Simon: To never give up.
Researcher: And why is that important to you?
Simon: Because I know I can do more... I'm more confident.
Researcher: And why is that important to you?
Simon: ...don't know...

This questioning procedure is repeated with each outcome that the participant stated, by repeating the "why is that important to you?" question until the respondent can no longer give an answer or starts to repeat themselves.

Next the participant is asked what activity or part of the course led to each individual outcome in turn:

Researcher: What activity or part of the course led to the outcome of feeling good?
Simon: The PT, other people and the other trainees.

The participant demographic details of age, location, ethnicity and if they were a smoker or not, were recorded and their responses along with their gender and group number were recorded on the interview form (Table 3.1). Each participant was asked if they would like to take part in a follow up study in 6 months time that involved similar interview questions by means of a telephone interview. Those that wished to be involved had their contact phone numbers recorded. They were then thanked for their time and asked if they had any questions.

After the interview, the researcher finished transcribing or expanding any information that was not written down during the interview. The resulting values were interpreted from the interview material when the final link in the "why was that important to you?" question was not an obvious value, and recorded.

Table 3.1 Means-end interview form.

<i>Student means-end interview form</i>							
Group	Individual	M / F	A g e	Location	Smoke/No	Ethni city	
2	Simon	M ale	2 3	Waikato	Yes	Euro, Māori	
						PI, Asian, Other	
Consequence What outcomes did you observe from the course?		<i>Feel good</i>		<i>Fitness</i>	<i>Waking up on time</i>	<i>Survive in bush if got lost</i>	
Step Why was that important to you?		<i>Push one's self</i>		<i>Never felt awake, lazy</i>	<i>For a job in the future</i>	<i>New skills</i>	
Step Why was that important to you?		<i>-Never give up -Can do more</i>		<i>-Now feel energised -enjoy your day</i>			
Value Why was that important to you?		Self confidence		Self improvement	Transference , job	Self reliance	
Activity What activities or parts of the course led to that outcome?		<i>-PT -Other people -Trainees</i>		<i>PT</i>	<i>Routine</i>	<i>FTX 1 & 3</i>	

3.3.1 Content Code Development

The development of content codes was an iterative process, undertaken by entering the initial responses from the interviews into the LadderMap programme using key words or phrases. The content codes bore resemblance to previous means-end research conducted on experiential education programmes, and as such the headings were adjusted to use similar terminology when appropriate. Preliminary lists of content codes established an initial vocabulary (Veludo-de-Oliveira et al., 2006). This was done in order to describe the results from the interviews in a language that facilitates the comparison of these results to previous studies and also to future research.

The preliminary list of attributes was developed from the participant responses corresponding to the activities that are included at both LSV and Outward Bound, including not only the physical activities such as rock climbing, solo, marching and hiking, but also using terminology for the aspects of the course that have been established as being accountable for course outcomes from previous research such as interactions, course overall, time management and instruction (Goldenberg, 2002; Hattie et al., 1997; McKenzie, 2003).

The preliminary list of consequences from the interview data was complemented by Goldenberg’s (2002) list of consequences (Appendix 4). Again this list was used as a reference point to enable a common vocabulary to be used.

Goldenberg’s (2002) list of 8 value content codes was used along with the list of 9 values established by Kahle (1983) in order to refine the list of values from the data. Table 3.2 highlights the similarities between the list of values from Kahle, and Goldenberg’s value content codes, to the codes used in this study.

Table 3.2 Development of value content codes.

Kalhe, 1983	Goldenberg, 2002	Maxwell, 2009
A sense of accomplishment	A sense of accomplishment	A sense of accomplishment
Security	Achievement of a personal goal/value	Achievement of a personal goal/value
Fun and enjoyment of life	Fun and enjoyment of life	Fun and enjoyment of life
Excitement		
Self respect		Self respect
Self fulfilment	Self-Awareness/Improvement/Fulfilment	Self-Awareness/Improvement
Being well respected	Self-Confidence/Esteem	Self-Confidence/Esteem
	Self-Reliance	Self-Reliance
Sense of belonging		Sense of belonging
	Transference	Transference
		Transference to work
Warm relationships with others	Warm relationships with others	Warm relationships with others

The LadderMap programme was then used to make a list of the attributes, consequences and values along with the corresponding frequency count of each code. This established which codes were frequently mentioned, which codes were not frequently mentioned, and if there were codes with similar meaning.

The next stage involved grouping similar codes into sub-categories. This was achieved by assigning similar content codes to a code that had a high frequency count, for example the sub categories of ‘overcoming fears’, ‘motivation’, ‘endurance’, ‘perseverance’ and ‘determination’ were all coded under ‘determination/perseverance’. Similarly, codes that were initially coded as one concept were split to establish two separate codes as required, for example all types of ‘transference’ were initially coded as such, but after further examination during the coding process ‘transference to work’ was established as an separate code. Each time a category was divided or re-coded as a sub-category the original interview record was re-read to establish if the participant’s original meaning could be preserved in the new category. This was done iteratively until a representative and manageable list of 36 content codes was established.

The interview data, and the interpretation of that data, were reviewed by another person, who is familiar with the research being undertaken. There was agreement that the resulting data was a good and true reflection of the interview notes.

In the above example from the interview with “Simon”, the respondent’s data was coded into the following means-end chain. Attribute ‘Physical Training’ and ‘Interactions’ leading to the consequence ‘achievement’ leading to the value ‘self-confidence’. While this is a fairly simple example of a respondent’s means-end chain, the interview data does not always directly link to a chain of one attribute, consequence and value. An attribute can link to many consequences or directly to an end value; also there can be more than one attribute, consequence and value that make up the resulting means-end chain.

A total of 36 content codes were generated from analysing the data which included 15 attributes, 10 consequences and 11 values. Several of the content codes also included sub-categories which helped further define the codes. The following three tables list the attributes (Table 3.3), consequences (Table 3.4) and

values (Table 3.5) utilised in this study. Also listed are the sub-codes, and a description for some of the content codes, some of which were gained from Goldenberg et al. (2005) and Priest & Gass (1997).

Table 3.3 Attributes content codes and sub-categories (alphabetical listing).

Attributes	Sub-category for the attribute	Description
Activity De-briefs		When formal or informal discussions are held after an activity to extract the learning from undertaking the activity
Course Overall		When a participant has either stated this or when they cannot pin-point an activity or activities and refer to most of the course
Expeditioning	Navigation Hiking Camp craft	Includes the hiking and camping portion of FTX1 and FTX2 at LSV and Bush One and Two at Outward Bound
Instruction	Instructors	
Interactions	Group conflict Group interactions People skills Free time Meals	When a participant mentioned interacting with another individual, including meal times, smoking breaks, free time etc
Leadership Opportunities	Leader of the day	
Lessons	Drug and alcohol lesson Communication skills First aid course Interview skills Goal setting	
Marching	Military Drill	
New Experiences		Activities on the course that they have not experienced before and associate the consequences as stemming from the opportunity of the new experience rather than from the experience itself i.e. from rock climbing
Physical Training		Includes not only activities like running and push ups but also the physical components of the field training exercises (FTX)
Rock Climbing	Abseiling High ropes	
Solo		An activity done at Outward Bound, where the participants are isolated for up to 3 days in the wilderness with limited resources in order for them to have time for reflection
Teamwork	FTX 2 Group tasks Trust activities	Being able to participate and contribute in a team environment
Time Management	Course structure	
Water activities	Rafting Kayaking Sailing	

Table 3.4 Consequences content codes and sub-categories (alphabetical listing).

Consequences	Sub-category for the consequence	Description
Achievement	Pride Discipline	
Determination and Perseverance	Determination Overcome fears Motivation Endurance Perseverance	The ability to complete tasks, overcome fears, and being motivated
Efficiency	Craftsmanship Responsibility	Completing tasks to the best of their ability, and being well organised
Goal setting		The ability to actively set goals
Job skills		Skills that could directly be used in the workplace
Knowledge and Awareness	Knowledge Awareness Open Minded Appreciation	Includes gaining knowledge in general, learning about outdoor adventure activities, learning about ways to improve their chances of securing employment, and learning about oneself
Personal Growth And Challenges	Awareness of abilities New opportunities Personal challenges Personal growth Problem solving Leadership Independence	Includes developing skills and new opportunities to grow and challenge themselves
Physical fitness		The increase in fitness that the participants perceive from participation on various course activities
Relationships with others	Awareness of others Build relationships Communication Compassion Cooperation Encouragement Being Positive Friendships Respect Teaching Trust	
Teamwork		

Table 3.5 Values content codes and sub-categories (alphabetical listing).

Values	Sub-category for the value	Description
A Sense of Accomplishment		A feeling of achievement from completion of course activities
Achievement of a Personal Goal/Value	Personal goal Personal value	
Fun and Enjoyment of Life	Excitement	
Self respect	Give up drugs	
Self-Awareness Improvement	Self-Awareness Self-Improvement Self-Fulfilment	
Self-Confidence Self-Esteem	Self-Confidence Self-Esteem Being well respected	
Self-Reliance		An increased sense that the participant can rely on their own abilities to accomplish tasks
Sense of belonging		Participant feels connected to their community, family, friends or other participants
Transference in General	Transference in General Transference to Activities Transference to Life	Refers to transferring the skills or the learning from the experience back to everyday life, other activities or other courses
Transference to Work		When skills or knowledge from activities can be related in the future to the workplace or in the search for employment
Warm Relationships with Others		The ability to establish friendships with other people

3.4 Hierarchical Value Maps

To visually represent the means-end relationships between the attributes, consequences and values identified, hierarchical value maps (HVMs) were developed. This process was performed by the computer programme LadderMap (Gengler & Reynolds, 1995a). Implication matrices are first developed which summarise the frequency of associations between concepts, and must be produced for each HVM. The implication matrix illustrates the sum of the direct and indirect associations between concepts (Goldenberg, 2002). To illustrate the distinction between direct and indirect associations, consider a means-end chain of $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$. This chain consists of direct associations between A and B, and from B to C, and an indirect association from A to C (Klenosky et al., 1993).

To illustrate the results from the implication matrix, HVMs have been created which characterise key meanings within particular domains. To produce the HVM, a cut off level has to be established; the cut off level is the minimum number of times concepts need to associate together to show up in the HVM (Goldenberg, 2002). A cut off of 1 means that all associations mentioned by at least one respondent would be represented in the HVM, a cut off level of 4 would only show associations mentioned by 4 or more respondents (Goldenberg et al., 2000).

To give the clearest HVM while still conveying the data in an accurate manner, a cut off level of approximately 5% of the HVM sample size has been suggested by Gengler and Reynolds (1995a). HVMs can be produced for each sub group from the data, including: gender, age, ethnicity, and for each course component including course overall, rock climbing, physical training, interactions etc. For each HVM produced, a cut off level is selected that produces the clearest illustration, while keeping in mind the suggested 5% by Gengler and Reynolds (1995a) and also using a similar cut off level to facilitate the comparison of various groups.

The HVMs produced from this data set generally have a higher cut off point than the recommended 5%; this has been done due to some of the data sets having low

numbers. For example the LSV female HVM has 18 respondents which by following the 5% guide line would therefore have a cut off value of 1. The resulting HVM would be cluttered with such a low cut off value, and therefore the resulting HVM has a cut off value of 3, producing a more readable and clearer representation of the resulting means-end chains and thus facilitating the data analysis.

The resulting HVMs show the associations between the attributes located towards the base of the map which are the starting point of the ladder (all in lower case). Above are the consequences (Initial Capital Only) and the resulting values placed towards the top of the map (ALL UPPER CASE). The attributes, consequences and values are represented by circles of various sizes representing the number of times the particular concept has been mentioned, from small circles representing concepts that have not been mentioned often to larger circles for concepts that have been mentioned more frequently. The thickness of the lines linking concepts is proportional to the frequency of links between concepts, with thick lines representing strong links between two concepts. The placement of the concepts has no particular meaning other than for clarity within the diagram.

On the resulting HVM with a cut off level greater than 1 there is the possibility that the resulting visual representation of a chain may start at a consequence and not at an attribute. This may come about because on the particular HVM with a cut off above 1 the number of attributes linking to the consequence was below the cut off level. For example if the cut off level was 4, and there was a combination of the two attributes 'marching' and 'teamwork' both having a count of 3 leading to the consequence 'relationships with others' having a total count of 6. On the resulting HVM neither of the attributes would show up on the diagram, having a count smaller than the cut off value, and the resulting HVM would show that a start point would be the consequence of 'relationships with others'.

HVMs display data output which is also described by Easterby-Smith et al. (1991) as cognitive mapping. The mapping technique is a powerful way of presenting and displaying large amounts of data (Easterby-Smith et al., 1991); HVMs show structure as well as content, enabling the key meanings of a particular domain to

be revealed (Klenosky et al., 1993). The formation of the HVM is an important step in crossing over from the qualitative interview data to the quantitative primary output of the HVM (Reynolds & Olson, 2001).

Interpretation of the HVMs is both objective and subjective in nature; the initial objective interpretation takes into account the numbers presented and the linkages between the content codes. The subjective interpretation takes into account not only the means-end data and the participant observation data collected in the field journal, but also the extensive experience that the researcher has in this realm, the literature review that has shaped the thoughts, the informal encounters from being involved in the motivational interventions and in everyday life when talking to colleagues at the university and friends. All of these have a role in forming ideas, thus enabling differing ways of interpreting the meaning behind the data produced from the means-end interviews. As this study is phenomenological in nature, it is acknowledged that the subjective interpretation by the researcher is an important aspect of the research process (Collis & Hussey, 2003).

3.5 Demographics and Scales Used

Six demographics were collected for each participant, with the initial data manually entered into an Excel work sheet. This data was then transferred into SPSS for data analysis; a further demographic was created by re-coding the age demographic (Table 3.6). Data analysis revealed average age, gender, and ethnic ratios that are presented in each provider's respective chapter. Collection of the group demographic enabled the separate analysis of the LSV and Outward Bound data, and separating each group also facilitated data input and checking. The decision to choose the gender, age and ethnic demographics was because they are common to experiential education research. The location demographic was collected in case it turned out to be significant, but possibly because location was restricted to a region it proved to not be significant and therefore it is not included in the analysis presented in the results. The smoker demographic was selected on prior evidence of its impact on early departures from motivational interventions (Maxwell et al., 2008). In this study smoking was not found to be significant and it is also excluded from the analysis and results sections.

Table 3.6 Descriptions of demographics.

Demographic	Scale	Comments
Group	Nominal	LSV platoons 1, 2 & 3 Outward Bound (group 4 & 5)
Gender	Nominal	Male or Female
Age (Years)	Scale	Also re-coded into age categories
Ethnicity	Nominal	European, Māori, Pacific Islander, Other
Smoker	Nominal	Smoker or non-smoker
Location	Nominal	Participant's home region
Demographic created by re-coding		
Age categories	Nominal	Younger (17-18 years) and Older (19-25 years) participants

The age demographic was recoded into two categories of older and younger participants, as the means-end approach can only analyse nominal data (in fact age categories are ordinal, but in this instance the data is treated as nominal). Other demographics, for instance instructor experience, measurable by the outdoor leader experience use history (Galloway, 2002) were considered, that could have effect on the group outcomes, but were not collected due to the limited number of instances that were observed.

3.6 Ethical Considerations

This study meets the requirements outlined in the Massey University Ethics Guidelines (2003), by treating every participant's questionnaire as confidential. The results do not identify any individual, and participants could withdraw from the research at any stage. A summary of the results was also made available to participants upon request.

A low risk notification application to the human ethics committee was completed. This project was reviewed, judged to be low risk, and approved by the researcher and supervisors under delegated authority from the Massey University Human Ethics Committee.

One ethical situation to be considered is that the student may have felt compelled to participate in the study. This was addressed by making the student aware that there would be no consequences for not taking part in the research. This information, along with an assurance that the results would be anonymous, and have no effect on their welfare benefit, was communicated to them verbally prior to their decision to participate in the study. Participants were also made aware that they could withdraw from the study at any time.

3.7 Conclusions

Course observation and participant interviews using means-end are the methods adopted to undertake this study with the intention of connecting course components to outcomes to end values, i.e. what do participants perceive as increasing motivation, self confidence, goal setting etc. The means-end method uses a semi-structured approach, asking questions about what the perceived outcomes are from participants' course experiences, and further linking them back to course components as well as to end values. One LSV and two Outward Bound courses were observed, to collect data, as well as enabling relationships with participants to be established in order to facilitate the means-end interviews which were conducted verbally at course end and again six months post course.

The content codes were iteratively refined during the data analysis process, interview data were analysed using the LadderMap programme, as well as referring to existing literature to establish a common vocabulary, which resulted in a final list of 36 content codes comprising 15 attributes, 10 consequences and 11 values. From the resulting data output, implication matrices were produced summarising the data and enabling the production of HVMS which provide a visual representation of the results.

Participants' demographics were collected to enable separate analysis, to establish whether they were important with respect to course outcomes (as well as separate analysis of the course attributes). Massey University ethical procedures were followed to ensure there were no adverse effects on the people involved in this study.

Before the results from the LSV data collection are presented, a description of the LSV course is offered in the following chapter to place the results within the context of the particular courses studied.

Chapter 4 Limited Service Volunteers

4.1 Introduction

This Chapter presents an outline of Limited Service Volunteers (LSV). An overview of the New Zealand Military Doctrine is briefly outlined, being the larger context in which LSV operates. Next, the LSV programme is discussed, followed by the programme outcomes and the how participants are selected to attend LSV.

4.2 New Zealand Military Doctrine

Military Doctrine is the fundamental principles which guide military action in support of objectives, and provides a common philosophy, language, purpose and a unity of effort (Defence Force, 2004). The New Zealand Military Doctrine describes the culture of its personnel as being shaped by the four values of: courage, commitment, comradeship and integrity. These values are the tenets of the organisation that is: united, professionally trained, competent and appropriately equipped (Defence Force, 2004). Doctrine in New Zealand has been largely adopted from the Australian Military Doctrine.

With respect to the LSV Company, Military Doctrine defines the value of courage as including “being accountable for one’s actions, doing the right thing and challenging others to do likewise, and accepting responsibility for achieving a task” (Defence Force, 2004, p. 1.15). The teamwork aspect of LSV was most related to the value of commitment, as well as setting and achievement of challenging goals. The value of comradeship also relates to working together as a team, as well as respecting and supporting each other; being supportive of the different ideas and feelings of others. The value of integrity as stated in the Doctrine, is more related to the armed services than LSV including acting in

accordance with the laws of Armed Conflict, and acting honourably to bring credit to the New Zealand Defence Force (Defence Force, 2004).

For further discussion on the military philosophy and organisational structure see “Foundations of New Zealand Military Doctrine” (Defence Force, 2004). While the LSV programme is immersed into the military environment in so much as the timings and protocol of the army base are adhered to and the marching activities follow military protocol, the majority of the course runs independent of the remaining base operations. Participants dress in army type clothing, but in fact do not adhere to correct Army issue standards, e.g. no markings of rank are attached.

4.3 Limited Service Volunteers Courses

The current LSV programme commenced in 1993 (originating from a 1983 initiative named Project Krypton) in partnership with MSD (Swindells, 1988). Participants are referred and operational funding provided by the MSD, with facilities and staffing from the New Zealand Defence Force utilising the New Zealand Army protocol. LSV is the original provider of residential motivational training in New Zealand, and its personnel come from the tri-services of the New Zealand Army, Navy and Air force.

LSV participants are subject to military law, but no martial or combat training is provided. The level of discipline and order, while appearing to be at times quite stringent to the participants, in fact are not as rigorous as is the case in a true military environment (Personal communication, 2007). The programme is to a degree immersed into the military environment, in that while it is located on an Army base camp, and utilise Army facilities, LSV operates independent of the other Companies situated on the base. There is a maximum of 144 participants per intake, with an average of 100, and LSV is currently delivering 5-6 courses per year. LSV is the largest provider of motivational intervention training in New Zealand. The course duration is 6 weeks; the participants reside on the base for the duration of the course, with the exception of field training exercises.

The LSV Company is split into three Platoons of approximately equal numbers with a mix of both male and female participants. Each Platoon is further divided when the need arises into four Sections consisting of 8-10 participants. Lessons are primarily conducted at the Platoon level, but occasionally at the Company or Section level.

The LSV mission is: “To develop participants in order to increase the numbers of young New Zealanders entering employment or further training” (Personal correspondence, 2006). The course provides motivational training, in that it is not directed at specific job training but at developing attitudes and behaviours that lead to employment.

LSV values include:

- Courage
- Commitment
- Comradeship
- Integrity
- Teamwork
- Professionalism

Attitudes and qualities developed:

- ❖ Self discipline, cooperation, confidence and pride
- ❖ Accepting responsibility/consequences
- ❖ Respect for self and others
- ❖ Motivation to succeed and goal setting
- ❖ Perseverance and determination
- ❖ Working in a team environment
- ❖ Following instructions
- ❖ Time management
- ❖ Personal presentation
- ❖ Healthy and positive lifestyle
- ❖ Initiative (Personal correspondence, 2006)

4.3.1 Programme Outline

Upon arrival at the base, the participants undergo a rigorous 6 week military/outdoor adventure training programme. A basic outline of the programme includes:

Week 1-2

Imposed discipline, (*dependence*)

Military law and rights, barracks routine, drill, physical training, goal setting, drug and alcohol awareness, first aid training, rock climbing, health awareness.

Week 3-4

Development of self and team (*interdependence*)

Introduction to the outdoor environment, rafting, team challenge activities, high ropes activity, New Zealand police presentation, MSD presentation (drill and physical training continue).

Week 5-6

Self discipline and team membership (*independence*)

50 km tramp, job searching techniques, grooming, graduation parade (drill and physical training continue).

The daily routine is described in more detail in the LSV results chapter, in order to better understand the programme and activities that a participant undertakes.

The process that participants go through on the LSV course is similar to the process that Outward Bound participants experience, as described in the Outward Bound chapter. The sequencing of activities begins with the instructors teaching the participants the basic skills needed in order to live efficiently on the military base. Participants are introduced to increasing levels of challenge in outdoor activities which follows the experiential education progression. Physical fitness, teamwork and job search skills are also developed throughout the course. As the course progresses the participants move from the initial dependence on the instructors to guide them through activities, to independence where the participants take on more responsibility for their learning.

Different methods of delivering particular activities are utilised throughout the course. Physical training and marching is delivered using the military model of very rigid authoritative commands, which facilitates individuals to extend themselves while still working within a team environment. Traditional classroom teaching is used to deliver lessons such as interview skills, drug and alcohol and health awareness. The experiential education model is used to deliver the team challenge activities.

Course components are delivered by LSV company staff, non-company staff and external providers. Non-company military staff provide lessons in specific areas such as health, cooking and physical training; external providers deliver lessons in goal setting, first aid, family planning, budgeting, rock climbing and ropes course. Upon completion of the course, those who have successfully attended the first aid course receive a comprehensive first aid certificate from Red Cross.

Company staff deliver lessons in their particular area of expertise, while Platoon corporals accompany the Platoon to each lesson ensuring discipline and timings are adhered to. Each Platoon is supervised 24 hours a day by one of four corporals assigned to that Platoon. Platoon corporals instruct marching which is practised throughout the course developing participants' skill and precision, culminating in the march-out parade on the final day.

platoons are split into smaller Section groups for various lessons and instructed by the corporal assigned to that Section. Lessons at the section level include, team building, Field Training Exercise 2 & 3 (FTX) and sports games.

4.3.2 Short-term Outcomes

During 2005-6, the three month outcomes were that 84% of participants gained full time employment or full time study and 80% of participants who started the course completed the course. Medical issues were the main reason cited for early departure (Personal correspondence, 2006).

Approximately 5% of participants go on to gain employment with the New Zealand Defence force. A large majority of the participants do not meet the recruiting criteria for the New Zealand armed forces, due to either minor criminal convictions or lack of educational achievement.

4.3.3 Target Group

The target group for the LSV programme is Work and Income clients who are unemployed and currently registered as seeking work with MSD. Participants

chosen are those who are or who have been identified as at risk of long-term unemployment, also those who are recognised as being disadvantaged in the labour market. Participants are also referred by the justice system, including police, Parole Officers and by the courts to attend LSV in order to correct unlawful behaviour before they become embedded into the correctional system, (Participants referred from the justice system also have to be registered as being unemployed with MSD). Participants need to be free from serious convictions with the LSV commanding officer having the final say on attendance. Participants at LSV are between 17 and 26 years old. The average unemployment duration is 22 weeks (Personal correspondence, 2006).

4.3.4 Selection Process and Criteria

To gain entry onto the LSV course participants must be medically fit for “moderate” physical exercise, within the normal body mass index and be dependency free from drugs and alcohol. Unlike the Outward Bound selection process, there is no mandatory pre-course interview by a LSV staff member conducted with participants; there is a MSD staff member dedicated to enrol Work and Income clients who if deemed necessary undertakes interviews to ascertain suitability to attend LSV. The officer commanding LSV has final say on attendance and removal due to the military nature and risks of the course. On average only 47% of the participants who have been referred by WINZ case managers are accepted on the course (Maxwell, 2007).

4.4 Conclusions

The New Zealand Military Doctrine states the guiding principles in which the armed forces operate within. Military personnel operate as a united, professional, trained, and competent force, and are appropriately equipped to undertake the requirements of the New Zealand Government. LSV is located on the Burnham military base, but is largely independent of the other companies on the base, and as such delivers a specific course programme.

LSV is the original provider of motivational intervention in New Zealand, delivering a range of activities within the military, outdoor and classroom environment, promoting personal development, and job search skills by way of a structured course programme. The sequence of activities builds upon previous ones, enabling the participant to develop the skills and physical fitness required to achieve success. This sequence largely follows the experiential education process that is described in the chapter on Outward Bound.

Unemployed clients of Work and Income who fit within the physical requirements and are between 17 and 26 years old are referred to attend the LSV course. Screening of the referrals is conducted largely by administration data, and on occasion interviews are conducted to assure suitability to the programme.

Chapter 5 Limited Service Volunteers Results

5.1 Introduction

Now that the LSV programme has been outlined in chapter 4, and the research design has been explained, this chapter sets out to communicate the observational and means-end results from the LSV data collection phase of the research.

This results chapter also includes descriptive material about the LSV programme; while not strictly results, this information has been placed here to facilitate linkages between actual course events and the results from the means-end data. The inclusion of this material enables a richer description of the results to emerge from the data.

The LSV course data is first presented along with a brief review of the data collection process. Course observations are next presented, and these loosely follow the LSV programme in chronological order from course start to course end, following notes from the field journal. Topics such as participant interactions, goal setting, early departures and areas considered to be worthy of extended examination are highlighted and explored in more depth. Links to relevant research are also established where required to highlight the point. Next the means-end numeric data such as the number of ladders completed by each participant, frequency of content codes and means-end associations are presented, before the results are examined. The results are presented visually with the aid of HVMs alongside observational data and links to literature, further discussion is presented on the four course attributes recognised as being most noteworthy, and an initial argument is put forward about the research approach adopted.

Findings directly related to the initial research questions are not specifically addressed in this chapter; they are examined in chapter 8 after the results from Outward Bound are revealed in chapter 7.

5.2 Data Collection

The participants for this section of the research attended the October 2006 intake of LSV, course number 02/07. Course duration was from October 2nd, to November 13th, 2006. Data was collected and observations made whilst the researcher was living on site. One week prior to the course start the researcher attended LSV instructional staff training. This was to inform the staff of the research intentions, introduce the researcher, and ask permission to research their groups. The intention during data collection was to observe the courses as a non-participant in a non-intrusive manner. Participants were interviewed at the end of the course about their experiences and the outcomes that they perceived from the course activities.

The October intake consisted of 106 participants, divided into three Platoons of approximately 35; 85 participants completed the course.

During the course, the researcher talked to the trainees on an informal basis establishing a rapport with them, thus building honest and open relationships with the trainees, which was done in order to facilitate the means-end data collection interviews at course end. Course end interviews were conducted with 85 trainees following the method discussed in the research design chapter.

Upon conclusion of the course, trainees were asked if they would like to participate in a follow up phone interview 6 months post course. Of 60 trainees that gave contact phone numbers 28 were contacted after 6 months. The questioning was the same as for the initial means-end interviews.

5.3 Demographic Characteristics

Ages ranged from 17-25 years old with a mean of 18.9 and standard deviation of 1.9. The gender split was 66 males and 19 females. The ethnicity of the participants was made up of 47 Māori, 29 European, 6 Pacific Islanders and 3 Others. Participants came from all over New Zealand.

The respondents for the 6 month phone interview data collection stage had very similar demographic characteristics to the initial data collection stage. Ages ranged from 17 to 25 years old, and the same mean age of 18.9 years old and a standard deviation of 2.0. A gender mix of 22 males and 6 females, and an ethnic mix comprising 17 Māori, 7 European, 3 Pacific Islanders, and 1 Other.

5.4 Course Observation

Observation of course activities was undertaken, supplemented by conversations with interested parties including LSV staff and participants. Interpretations of what was observed were recorded in a field journal. The researcher's own experiences with the long-term unemployed, motivational interventions and outdoor education courses have also influenced these notes. The researcher was aware that his presence and experiences could influence the course and research outcomes, and was mindful to have as minimal affect as possible. The possibility of bias is acknowledged in the limitations section, presented in the literature review chapter.

The remaining course observation section structure loosely follows the LSV programme in chronological order from course start to course end. Topics such as goal setting and early departures are discussed in more depth, as they were considered able to provide the reader with a richer description of particular course aspects that are not discussed in the results section, but considered useful to enhance knowledge of the trainee experience at LSV. This section is not intended to be a complete account of what transpired on the course, but rather gives insight into the participants' experience of the course. Quotes from trainees and instructors are presented though pseudonyms have been used to protect identity. Links to relevant research are also established where required to highlight the point.

5.4.1 Course Start

The trainees started arriving at LSV's base on Monday 2nd October from 10am, and by 3pm most of the trainees had arrived. The remaining few trainees overdue by delayed or missed travel connections arrived later that night or the following day. The majority of trainees were transported to the base via a half hour bus trip, after being met at the airport, bus terminal or train station. Many of the trainees had travelled for a long time from all over New Zealand and were in various states

of tiredness, excitement and uncertainty as to what to expect. Some of the trainees were driven to the base by friends or family members and dropped off; the family members were encouraged to say their good byes and depart as soon as possible. The day required many trips by LSV staff to various places over a number of hours to collect the trainees, which resulted in the inevitable long periods of waiting around until there were enough trainees to start familiarising them with the base in which they would spend the majority of the next 6 weeks.

Trainees certainly knew that they had entered a new environment as soon as they arrived (stepped of the bus/dropped of by family). Right from the beginning trainees were directed to stand in a particular area, smoke only in a designated area, and ask a staff member permission to have a cigarette. No leaning against the wall, spitting, or using mobile phones was allowed without permission, though many called home to say they had arrived safely. Listening to personal music devices was also forbidden and these measures ensured that the trainees knew right from the start that there was a new set of rules to be adhered to and an expectation that these would be followed. Some of the trainees appeared to be stunned, and nearly overwhelmed by the experience. This may have been due in part to fatigue from the travelling, waking up early, or a sense of uncertainty of what awaited them. The trainees were observed to be quiet and reserved as they patiently waited to be directed to their barracks in groups.

Staff noted names and talked to the trainees, answering questions and letting them know what they should or should not be doing, and then once there were sufficient numbers from one of the platoons, that group would be marched (actually walking in some resemblance of order rather than marching) to their barracks. Once at the barrack, trainees were allocated a room that 4 would share, their gear was searched for prohibited articles such as drugs, and their personal gear was unpacked to their room with valuables such as money, travel documents, music devices and phones collected and locked up in the staff barrack room, so that the trainees could access these when appropriate. It was noted that the assignment of 4-person bunk rooms could assist with the trainees' adjustment from former environments/associations and social integration that is recognised as being

important for participants, fostering commitment to stay on the course when they feel challenged and may want to depart (Maxwell et al., 2008).

The remainder of day one was spent familiarising the trainees with the routines and expectations while they attended LSV; lunch and dinner were provided at the usual set times for those that had arrived, and food kept aside for late arrivals. All the males were given military short number 2 haircuts; this was to help immerse them into the course environment. Many of the trainees arrived with various long hair styles, which meant that some had to part with their identity. When asked if he minded having his hair cut off, one trainee responded, “Na, it’s ok I can grow it back after (the course) and it’s the same for everyone,” (Ehaka). The females had to wear their hair tied up at all times above the collar and off their face.

After breakfast, day two started with an address by the Company Commander both welcoming and setting out the purpose, agenda and expectations while on the programme. Various staff then gave introductions and instruction on such things as barrack routine, marching formation and behaviour expectations. Lunch was followed by kit issue where the trainees were allocated the various clothing items that they would wear for the entire programme. Once the trainees changed into the issued clothing it felt like many could drop the guise that they had arrived with, and conform to the course environment that they were now immersed in.

The first week was filled with a variety of tasks, lessons and training that is required to effectively proceed through the course. The trainees were very much deep-ended into the course culture from day one, which enables standards to be set that are non negotiable while on course. Discipline is swift; warnings are given followed by the allocation of extra duties; finally a formal hearing is conducted with the trainee accompanied by supporting staff to determine a course of action. Trainees are subject to military law while on base, and a severe breach of this can lead to the trainee being detained on base for a short period, or even dismissed from the course. Physical training was introduced during the first week; this was done at a low level to reduce the incidence of injuries. Physical training sessions were generally conducted at a platoon level, requiring the platoon to exercise at the level of the least fit person. Some of the fitter trainees initially became

frustrated at the lack of personal physical challenge; at times frustration would be verbalised as anger toward other trainees. This behaviour changed over time as the trainees came together and were more supportive of one another. The first week aims to instil discipline, self-respect and respect for others into the participant.

Talking to the trainees revealed that they arrive with their own pre-conceived ideas of what the course would consist of, with many of them expecting a very physically demanding programme, and others not really knowing what to expect. A small proportion of the trainees arrive with a negative attitude with the majority of these trainees departing the course early. This aligned with previous research on incongruence between participant goals and institutional goals increasing the chance of dropout (Maxwell et al., 2008). About half of the trainees are quite positive upon arrival; these are the trainees who usually excel on the course and achieve top honours at course end, according to LSV staff. The remaining trainees are passive about the course and do enough to get by; it is these trainees that tend to have the biggest change by the end of the course and can come away with a large sense of achievement. Of these passive trainees, some come to the programme because they were getting into trouble with the law, or trying to become independent of alcohol or drugs. For these trainees, staff commented that time in a controlled environment away from temptation can have a very positive effect on them.

Staff can be divided roughly into two groups; those who have experience delivering the LSV programme and those who are new to the programme. There is quite a high turnover of staff in the LSV Company, with one in five instructors being new. For the new staff, the week of training before the trainees arrive is an important time to set expectations, and for the more experienced staff to pass on information that will enable them to adjust to the different type of people from those they usually encounter in the armed forces. Techniques to prepare the trainees for post course employment are a particular focus during the staff training week, which carries on into much of the programme. On the occasions when activities are de-briefed, future employment is always a focus; for example, discussions on acceptable behaviour, punctuality, communication and work effort are addressed. An observed example of this was when trainees act out negative

behaviour; they were often challenged by staff as to how future employers would react to such behaviour.

It was observed that the staff/trainee relationship operates on two levels: the macro level, where staff give orders and trainees are expected to comply with them without question, and the micro level, where interactions between trainees and staff consist of more personal interactions. At the micro level, staff can share experiences or give guidance to one or more trainees. These micro personal interactions can be very motivating to trainees, establishing trust and respect which in turn enables them to listen to new ideas.

LSV was seen to use a variety of teaching styles throughout the course, including experiential learning, formal classroom lessons, demonstrations/role plays and repetition, for example marching was taught to the trainees by repetition; over the course of the programme new manoeuvres and skills were introduced and practised until skill mastery was obtained. At staff training there was a lesson on the experiential education learning method for the new staff which covered how to practise it and what activities it applied to. The staff only directly used the experiential education learning technique on the team building and FTX 2 activities, and not on many of the outdoor adventure activities that experiential learning is readily applicable to. However, the experiential education cycle was observed to take place from one activity to another, due to the sequencing of activities that built upon each other.

Senior LSV staff conveyed that none of the staff involved in delivering the LSV programme were specifically employed (by the armed forces) to instruct the long-term unemployed population group. In general, the staff were based at the LSV company only for a short period of time out of their core jobs in the armed services. None of the staff that were delivering this LSV programme had experience delivering motivational interventions for other providers, such as Outward Bound. There is no inter-industry collaboration or training on how to deliver motivational intervention for the long-term unemployed, and, as such, LSV exists in somewhat of a vacuum, reliant on internal development of their programme.

LSV has a high ratio of trainees per individual staff compared to other outdoor education programmes, and at times it was 1 staff member to 40 trainees. The high ratio could make it difficult to provide effective training when a trainee needed individual attention, taking staff away from the remaining platoon members. During potentially high risk activities the staff ratio lowered to adequately meet the demands, and external expert staff were also brought in to facilitate specific activities. There was a wide range of classroom-based lessons delivered over the course of the programme. The lessons included budgeting, cooking, time management, drug and alcohol awareness, communication skills, interviewing techniques and anger management. These lessons appeared not only to be valuable in their content, but also functioned as a break from the physical and outdoor aspects of the course. The variety of learning experiences and delivery styles at LSV appeared to ensure the majority of trainees came away from the course having taken on board some of the learning that was presented to them.

5.4.2 Week Two

In week two, rock climbing is the first opportunity for the trainees to venture off base and experience the outdoor environment. Each platoon was divided into two groups with one half completing a hike to the climbing cliffs, then the rock climbing in the afternoon, whilst the other half of the platoon climbed in the morning and hiked in the afternoon. The climbing session is run by an external provider who used to also be in the armed services, but had no knowledge of the particular trainees on the course, and it was noted that there was no introductory activity to get to know the trainees. There were staff present during the rock climbing but they played mostly a disciplinary role and were in the background. The rock climbing session involved firstly talking about safety and procedures, then instruction and demonstration of how to climb and belay safely, with the trainees belaying each other. The session proceeded with trainees rappelling, climbing or belaying until everyone had an attempt at all activities. The session was run in a very efficient manner, with little feedback given to trainees upon success or failure of activities. The rock climbing session ended abruptly upon

completion, and trainees were moved on to have lunch for the morning group or back on the bus to travel to the base for the afternoon group; no de-briefing was conducted.

Rock climbing is a high adventure activity that is usually associated with outcomes such as self-confidence and motivation (McKenzie, 2000a). The rock climbing activity on an experiential education programme is typically de-briefed after the activity to enhance trainees' learning using the experiential learning cycle. At LSV, while staff are trained in the experiential learning cycle, it is never used during the rock climbing activity, according to conversations had with staff. The rock climbing experience was left to speak for itself, allowing the trainees to sort out their own personal insights (Doughty, 1991). Research suggests that letting the experience speak for itself is fine if the programme does not have specific goals (Priest & Gass, 2005), but the researcher felt that this experience could have had more impact if it was de-briefed. Possibly as a result, the rock climbing activity did not appear to have a great motivating or confidence-boosting impact on the trainees. What could be observed as being more important for some of the trainees was the location, and the enjoyment aspect of the session.

The majority of the trainees originated from urban environments in the North Island, and as such the rock climbing setting upon the Banks Peninsula hills was a dramatic setting for them. A number of the trainees were in awe of the surroundings and it appeared to have the effect of widening their horizons as to what they wanted to experience, as an example one trainee's response upon walking to the base of the rock climbing site and observing the view from the top of the hill, "Wow I've never been up a mountain before, this place is amazing, I've never seen land like this. I want to see more of my country," (Peter).

A large number of the trainees stated that they enjoyed the climbing activity when talking to the researcher and this was thought to be attributed to the fact that they were out of the military base, the weather was good and there was a relaxed feel to the day. Many of the trainees said that the outdoor adventure activities such as rock climbing, rafting and the ropes course were the activities that attracted them to attend LSV. The researcher surmised that having fun during the rock climbing

activity appeared to reconcile some of the trainees to the fact that while the course was hard at times, there were also fun activities to look forward to. According to staff, the rock climbing day is a good retainer for some students who are finding the military routine challenging and want to leave the course.

The second week ended with a two day first aid course facilitated by external providers, using small group work as a framework for much of the learning, thus enabling different learning styles to be catered for. The external providers were familiar with teaching many different groups and therefore managed to deliver a course over the two days that the trainees enjoyed and interacted with. The first aid course was also a welcome break from the physical aspects of the course for some of the trainees, allowing them to be well rested for the next activity, the first field training exercise (hiking expedition).

The first Field Training Exercise (FTX 1) was observed to be very well delivered and the trainees voiced many positive statements about FTX 1; this exercise utilized military logistics and an environment that staff excel at, it being their primary working environment. FTX 1 involves camping out at the base of the Southern Alps, and activities such as rafting, hiking, camp craft, cooking and sleeping in the outdoors were included over three days. Many staff expressed that for many trainees FTX 1 is a “turning point” for them and during this stage they make a commitment to stay on the course. It appeared to the researcher that trainees got most out of activities that staff were most competent and comfortable in delivering, e.g. military training. Activities that staff were not so skilled at e.g. the experiential education process during the team building games did not appear to be as big a learning point for the trainees. For example, it appeared that the tug of war was a better delivery mechanism for team building than the team building activities.

5.4.3 Mid Course

Week three and four covered a variety of activities including high and low ropes course, communication skills lessons, sports competitions, confidence course, and the continuation of physical training and marching.

It is at this mid-stage of the course that changes could be seen to be occurring within the trainees, including improved social interactions both with staff and with each other. By the mid course stage the majority of early departures had occurred, therefore the remaining trainees were those who appeared more committed to the programme. For those trainees for whom drug or alcohol dependency was an issue on arrival, they have made it through the worst of the withdrawal symptoms and were able to concentrate more on the programme. At this stage the trainees knew exactly what was expected of them and could relax and enjoy the course a lot more within the now familiar environment. Trainees were observed to communicate between each other more and friendships were established.

Mid course was when haka training was introduced, and all trainees were taught how to perform the haka³. Haka training was conducted every other day and the lesson was led by trainees who are familiar with haka performance. The haka was challenging to some trainees, either a cultural challenge or an artistic challenge, especially to the trainees who have not been involved in any previous haka performances. To some trainees, particularly to some Māori trainees, the haka training was an opportunity to strengthen their cultural identity or awareness. Haka training is intended to increase trainees' cultural identity, and is in line with MSD desired outcome statement "New Zealanders share a strong national identity, have a sense of belonging and value cultural diversity. Everybody is able to pass their cultural traditions on to future generations. Māori culture is valued and protected" (MSD, 2006, p. 9).

³ "A haka is a traditional dance form of the Māori of New Zealand. It is a posture dance with shouted accompaniment, performed by a group" (Wikipedia, 2008).

5.4.4 Goal Setting

The trainees attended two goal setting lessons, one day-long session in the first week of the course and another part day lesson near the end of the course. The initial session was to teach the trainees how to set Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Realistic and Timely (SMART) goals. Upon completion of the first lesson, trainees set themselves short term goals that they wanted to achieve while on the LSV course; the majority of these goals were to complete the LSV course and to increase their physical fitness level. The goal setting lessons were conducted by an external provider, and included personal anecdotes throughout the day on the theme that trainees can make a success of their lives no matter how difficult their past circumstances have been.

The second goal setting lesson near course-end involved a review of SMART goal setting and then an opportunity for trainees to set goals for themselves post LSV. This session was very condensed with only limited time available, and very limited one-on-one time with individual trainees. As a result, many of the trainees either set poor quality goals or no goals at all upon review of the trainees' completed goal sheets by the researcher and the goal setting staff. Goal-directed behaviour has been identified as important for the unemployed and in particular, setting specific, short-term goals is the area that motivational intervention programmes such as LSV can best direct their energy to enhance desired outcomes (Maxwell, 2008).

The researcher discussed the delivery of the goal setting days with both LSV and the goal setting staff and all were in agreement that the goal setting lessons could have been delivered more effectively. A number of limitations were identified in the author's evaluation report⁴ to LSV after observation of the entire programme (Maxwell, 2007). Limitations included that the programme was not an effective use of the limited time available to the external provider who delivered this aspect of the course. There was limited reinforcement of the goal setting lesson from the

⁴ During the time this research was undertaken two reports were produced for LSV, one immediately after the course observation and one 8 months post course, once the findings from the means-end data had been analysed.

instructors between the initial day of goal setting and the follow up day towards the end of the course. The goal setting provider had limited knowledge of what was being delivered throughout the rest of the course, and therefore unnecessarily delivered material that was covered elsewhere. There was insufficient time allocated to the goal setting lessons, given that it is an important aspect of the course (Maxwell, 2008).

The limitations were discussed with both LSV and the provider by the researcher and significant changes were made to the delivery of the two goal setting days for future courses. Changes included a rearrangement of the final goal setting day programme and bringing in another external staff member to allow more efficient delivery of the programme and sufficient time for individual attention to enhance each trainee's SMART goals. The inclusion of a third goal setting session mid course may allow trainees to work on goal setting in an individual context, enabling them to be more prepared coming into the final goal setting session. The goal setting template that the trainees worked with was re-worked to better enable the trainees to complete it, resulting in a more usable resource for them. The first goal setting day schedule was also rearranged to facilitate the trainees' learning over the day.

The importance of goal setting was discussed with staff at LSV. Initially some staff would encourage trainees just to go out and get any job they could post course; however previous research on motivational intervention employment outcomes shows that there is a high number of trainees gaining employment or entering study 3 months post course, but that number drops off after 6 months (Johri et al., 2004). It is likely that gaining employment that one is not committed to leads to only staying employed for a short time. It may be better for the trainees to find a job that holds their interest, which may result in longer employment spells. This was discussed with the staff, along with how learning from the goal setting lesson could be applied into other activities throughout the programme.

As a result of the changes made to the goal setting programme, both the goal setting provider and LSV acknowledged that the goal setting lessons are of higher

quality, resulting in trainees leaving with a more usable set of goals at course end (Personal communication, 2007).

5.4.5 Closing Stage

The final two weeks of the course started with the trainees going on a four day hike (FTX 3) in a national park. This was a physically demanding hiking experience, walking 50km through native bush, crossing rivers and camping out for three nights. During the previous 4 weeks on the course the trainees had developed the skills and fitness required to complete the hiking experience. It was interesting to note very few of the trainees acknowledged the majesty of the natural environment that they walked through, and were more focused on completing the hike. At the end of the hike many trainees felt confident about their level of fitness, and that the hike was more of a test of their fitness level, than a wilderness experience, “I didn’t think I could hike for four days with a heavy pack, but it feels good to have done it now,” (Tyrone).

Cross country running was introduced in the final two weeks and by this stage the trainees’ fitness level had improved enough for all of them to complete the cross country course. A final fitness test was conducted which enabled the trainees to measure the increase in fitness that they had acquired during the course. Talking to the trainees after the final fitness test revealed that many of them intended to continue physical training upon return home, and had enjoyed the physical fitness outcomes of the course.

Job skill lessons are included throughout the course, and culminate in a job searching lesson during the final week conducted by Work and Income representatives. The final week also included a job fair, where employers and educational providers came to LSV and presented post course employment and study opportunities to the trainees. From these six presentations, a small number of jobs were offered and accepted right there and then by some of the trainees.

To a majority of the trainees, the final stage of the course was a chance for them to be rewarded for the effort that they had put in throughout the course. Marching skills were focused on at this stage in preparation for the march out parade held on the final day in front of guests and visiting dignitaries. The final parade was a chance for the trainees to showcase the skills, teamwork and discipline that they had acquired over the last six weeks by performance of the haka and a marching display. The researcher observed that the trainees felt proud to have completed the LSV course, and had also fostered close friendships with other trainees. Some trainees had friends and family attend the final march out parade, who also said they felt very proud of the trainee that they had come to see, but also that they hoped that the trainee could put into practice what they had learned at LSV, “He looks so different and confident, I only hope that when he gets back home he will actually do something with his life and not let this experience go to waste,” (Mack’s parents).

5.4.6 Early Departures

Like other motivational intervention providers, LSV lose about 20% of the initial trainees to early departures (Maxwell, 2005). Statistics show that the biggest reason for early departures is medical grounds at LSV (Personal communication, 2006), while in reality staff suggest that the reason behind many medical departures appears to be the trainees desire to leave the course, using medical grounds to preserve the payment of their unemployment benefit. Trainees who leave for discipline or non-participation reasons can have their benefit suspended.

Of the 106 trainees that started the observed LSV course, 21, or 20.2% departed early leaving 85 trainees at the end of the course. During the course it was observed that incongruence was the main reason why trainees departed early. Incongruence was outwardly manifested as negative behaviour, not following rules and generally being unreceptive to the staff. When questioned, staff observed that the majority of discipline trouble is with the younger trainees, especially the 17 year olds. An example was Bruce. At 17 he was one of the younger trainees, was physically very fit, socially fitted into his platoon and enjoyed the majority of

the physical activities. It was apparent that Bruce did not like many of the class based activities, and when questioned about what he thought about the course, his reply was “Not enough army stuff, don’t need these lessons”. Incongruence arose because Bruce expected the course to have more military type activities, and not include so much class based employment and personal development lessons. Bruce acted out his resentment of the difference between what he expected and what the course actually delivered by misbehaving. A series and range of disciplinary actions were undertaken to encourage Bruce to engage with all aspects of the course, but upon repeated non-compliance he was removed from the course and sent home.

Most departures occurred early in the course, flowing trends of previous research (Maxwell, 2005). At LSV a great deal of effort at times was expended to retain trainees; staff had energy and commitment to see that trainees who were having difficulty on the course were given encouragement to continue. At times staff would talk to individuals or groups of trainees about their own life journey and adventures, which was motivating and inspirational to many of the trainees and also fostered social connections between staff and trainees. The social connections established between staff and participant is also an established contributing factor towards participant continuation on programmes (Tinto, 1993).

5.5 Means-end Data

The means-end data is presented in three parts; first the numbers of ladders completed by the trainees are presented, revealing how many ladders were collected from the interview stage. The frequency of the content codes is presented next, displaying which attributes, consequences and values were most mentioned by the trainees. Finally after the means-end data was analysed using implication matrices, the results are presented visually, in the form of HVMs.

5.5.1 Ladders Completed by Trainees

The number of means-end chains completed by the initial 85 trainees at course end ranged from 1 to 9, with most (62%) providing 3 or 4 means-end chains, producing a total of 325 chains (Table 5.1). The 6 month post course data from the 28 trainees produced a total of 53 means-end chains, ranging from 1 to 4 means-end chains per trainee, with most (43%) providing 2 means-end chains.

Table 5.1 Number of ladders completed by LSV respondents at course end.

Number of ladders	Frequency (n=86)	Percent (100%)
0	1	1.2
1	1	1.2
2	12	14.0
3	29	33.7
4	24	27.9
5	7	8.1
6	5	5.8
7	4	4.7
8	2	2.3
9	1	1.2

5.5.2 Frequency of Content Codes

Course end data produced a total of 34 content codes, comprising 13 attributes, 10 consequences and 11 values as shown in Table 5.2. Of the attributes that were mentioned *marching* was listed most frequently (6.2%), followed by *time management* (6.0%), *physical training* (5.9%), and *interactions* (4.7%). It is these four most frequently mentioned attributes that will be further analysed in the results section. The consequences mentioned most often were *achievement* (6.8%) followed by *relationships with others* (4.6%), *determination/perseverance* (3.4%) and *teamwork* (3.3%). Of the values mentioned, *self-awareness/improvement* (7.1%) had the highest frequency count followed by *transference in general* (5.4%), *self-confidence/esteem* (5.3%) and *transference to work* (4.6%).

Table 5.2 Frequency of content codes in LSV respondents' means-end chains.

Attributes	Frequency concept mentioned	Percent of total concepts mentioned
Marching	67	6.2
Time management	65	6.0
Physical training	63	5.9
Interactions	51	4.7
Teamwork	36	3.3
Lessons	32	3.0
Instruction	30	2.8
Course overall	29	2.7
Rock climbing	26	2.4
New experiences	17	1.6
Expeditioning	5	0.5
Leadership opportunities	3	0.3
White-water	2	0.2
Consequences		
Achievement	73	6.8
Relationships with others	49	4.6
Determination/Perseverance	37	3.4
Teamwork	35	3.3
Personal growth/Challenges	31	2.9
Physical fitness	30	2.8
Knowledge/Awareness	24	2.2
Efficiency	15	1.4
Goal setting	6	0.6
Job skills	4	0.4
Values		
Self-awareness/improvement	76	7.1
Transference in general	58	5.4
Self-confidence/esteem	57	5.3
Transference to work	49	4.6
Warm relationships with others	32	3.0
Fun and enjoyment of life	18	1.7
Self-respect	17	1.6
Sense of accomplishment	13	1.2
Sense of belonging	11	1.0
Self-reliance	9	0.8
Achievement of a personal goal/value	6	0.6
TOTAL	1076	100%

Six month follow up data produced a total of 29 content codes from the interviews, comprising 10 attributes, 10 consequences and 9 values mentioned by the trainees at 6 months post course (Table 5.3). The attributes listed most often by trainees were *course overall* (11%), *physical training* (7%) and *interactions* (5.8%). The consequences most often mentioned were *determination* (6.4%), *physical fitness* (5.2%) followed by *relationships with others* (4.7%). Finally, of

the nine values identified, *self confidence/esteem* (11%) topped the list followed by *transference to work* (8.7%) and *transference in general* (5.8%).

Table 5.3 Frequency of content codes in LSV trainees' means-end chains 6 months post course.

Attributes	Frequency concept mentioned	Percent of total concepts mentioned
Course overall	19	11.0
Physical training	12	7.0
Interactions	10	5.8
Lessons	6	3.5
Time management	5	2.9
New Experiences	3	1.7
Expeditioning	1	0.6
Instruction	1	0.6
Marching	1	0.6
Teamwork	1	0.6
Consequences		
Determination	11	6.4
Physical fitness	9	5.2
Relationships with others	8	4.7
Personal growth	7	4.1
Achievement	6	3.5
Job Skills	3	1.7
Efficiency	1	0.6
Knowledge	1	0.6
Self confidence/esteem	1	0.6
Teamwork	1	0.6
Values		
Self confidence/esteem	19	11.0
Transference to work	15	8.7
Transference in general	10	5.8
Self awareness/improvement	5	2.9
Warm relationships with others	5	2.9
Fun and enjoyment of life	4	2.3
Self respect	3	1.7
Sense of accomplishment	2	1.2
Sense of belonging	2	1.2
TOTAL	172	100%

5.5.3 Means-end Associations

From the data, an implication matrix was produced listing the means-end associations between concepts for all LSV trainees and all course components.

The entries in the implication matrix indicate the number of times a concept was either directly or indirectly associated to each of the other concepts, and is the basis for constructing the HVMs (Klenosky et al., 1993). Further implication matrices were compiled enabling HVMs for age, gender, ethnicity and individual course components to be produced.

Presentation of the means-end data including the percentages of concepts and ladders was done to replicate the presentation of means-end results in previous studies (Goldenberg, 2002; McAvoy et al., 2006; Reynolds & Gutman, 1988), thus enabling comparisons to be made to previous literature. As this study is primarily phenomenological in nature, the presentation of the concepts and ladders using percentages is not seen to be particularly useful for interpreting the results; however they facilitate checking the data and are therefore another reason to be presented.

5.6 Results

Results from the means-end data and the course observation are now presented by first defining the section heading and scope, followed by the visual representation of the means-end data through HVMs and subsequent analysis. Course observation data is introduced to support or highlight areas of note, each section is connected to relevant literature and where appropriate is summarised by placing the results in a realist perspective of outcome, mechanism and context.

For clarity, all the HVMs utilised a cut off level that enabled the illustrations to be uncluttered and as readable as possible without losing meaning. Table 5.4 summarises the cut off levels for the HVMs produced from the means-end data including all respondents at course end, the course components, marching, time management, physical training and participant interactions, as well as the HVM for the trainees at 6 months post course.

Table 5.4 Summary of the cut off level for the HVMs course components.

	Course components:	Cut off level
Figure 5.1	All participants	7
Figure 5.2	Marching	4
Figure 5.3	Time management	4
Figure 5.4	Physical training	4
Figure 5.5	Participant interactions	4
Figure 5.6	6 months post course	2

In addition, separate HVMs were developed to provide a view of the outcomes associated with the separate demographic characteristics of: gender, age and ethnicity, which have been included in Appendix 5 - 10.

5.6.1 All Participants at Course End

Figure 5.1 summarises the means-end results obtained from all 85 LSV trainees at course end. This HVM includes all the course activities that the trainees had experienced on the course up until they were interviewed, thus it did not include the last day's events or the march out ceremony. The HVM includes all the attributes, consequences and values that remained using the cut off level of seven, therefore only associations that were mentioned by at least 7 respondents are shown in the resulting HVM.

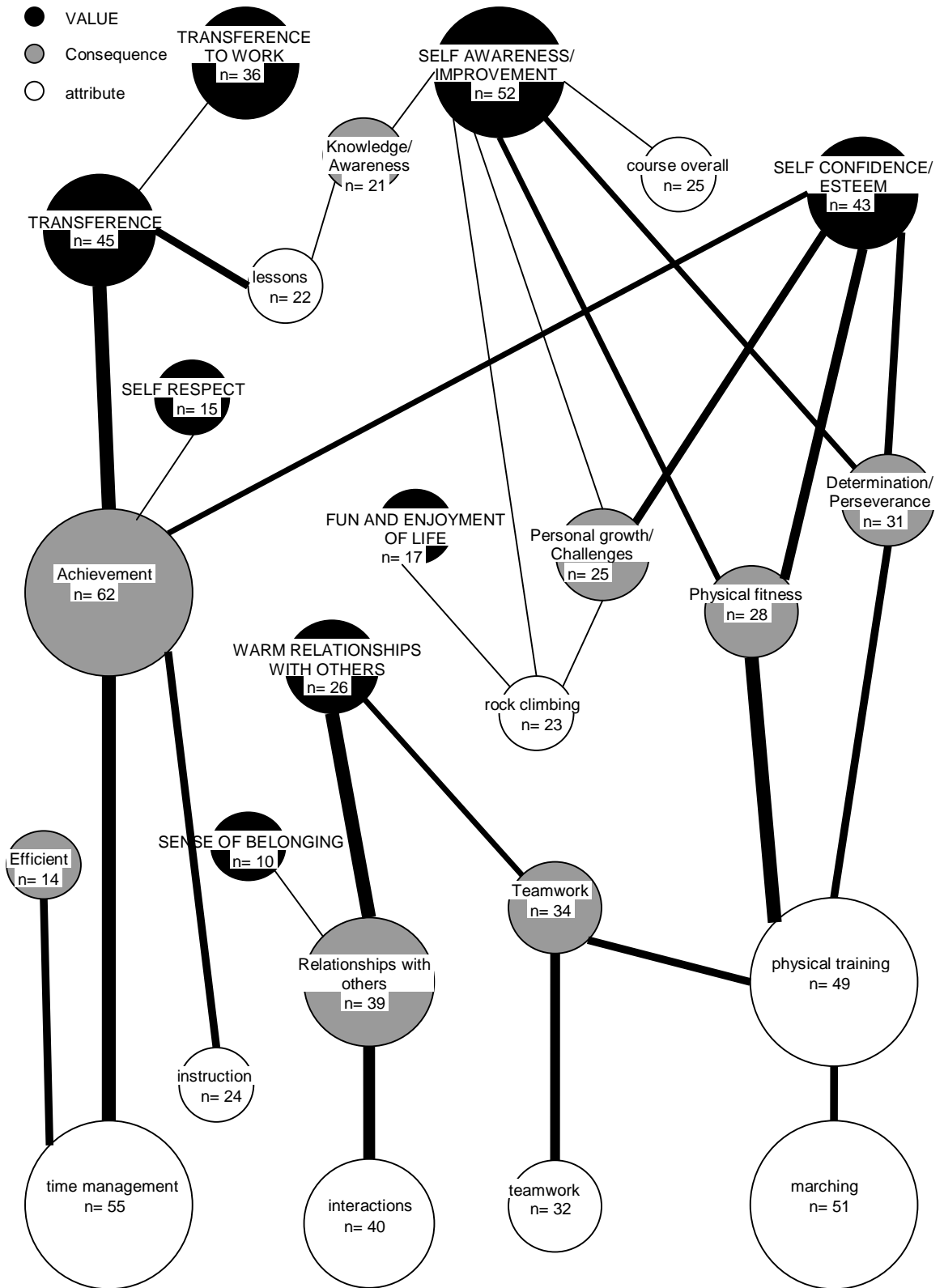


Figure 5.1 Hierarchical value map for Limited Service Volunteers course participants: All respondents (n = 85).

It can be seen in Figure 5.1 that the predominant attributes (course components) are time management, marching, physical training and interactions. Other represented course components include teamwork, course overall, instruction, rock climbing and lessons. The consequences/outcomes that were mentioned most frequently were achievement and relationships with others. Other notable outcomes were teamwork, determination/perseverance, personal growth/challenges, physical fitness and knowledge/awareness. The values most often mentioned were self awareness/improvement, transference in general⁵, self confidence/esteem and transference to work. Additional values include warm relationships with others, fun and enjoyment of life, self respect and a sense of belonging.

It is notable that several of the trainees linked time management to a sense of achievement and the importance of being able to transfer that sense of achievement back to life in general, and to work. Another strong link observed in the HVM involved the links between interactions, teamwork and the resulting value of warm relationships with others; this shows that as the trainees progressed through the course they formed close friendships with each other. The most important values of self awareness/improvement, self confidence/esteem and transference in general, show that the course helps the trainees realise their own abilities and that they believed they had the confidence to apply this back in their home or future work environment.

One aspect that fostered achievement was that trainees were offered merit awards based on outstanding achievement, as well as for the most improved trainee within each platoon, and an overall Company achievement award. It is suggested that the merit awards fostered a sense of achievement not only to the recipients of the awards but also to those trainees who strived to obtain the awards.

It was evident to the researcher through course observation that the programme was designed with increasing levels of challenge, while at the same time developing trainees' skills to cope with the challenges so they can experience

⁵ In the HVMs transference in general is labelled *Transference* and participant interactions are

success; this sequence is also typical of outdoor adventure programming (Rohnke, 1989). Upon course completion, the trainees have been introduced to new skills including job interview skills, inter personal communication and grooming skills that could help them in their search for future employment. Overall the behaviours of the majority of the trainees were observed to have changed from course start where many trainees were not willing to accept new challenges without staff encouragement, to the end of the course where trainees were keen to tackle new tasks with the confidence that they would succeed. After success completing activities trainees would communicate positive emotions such as “that was a buzz, I didn’t think I could have run that far before,” (Morgan) and after a presentation to the rest of the platoon one trainee stated “I feel a lot more confident now to speak out, before I did not like talking much [in interviews],” (Tom). The trainees outwardly displayed feelings of pride and confidence; this was observed in the way they interacted with people and also in the way they held themselves high as opposed to the less confident stance they held upon arrival at LSV. By the end of the course, when trainees met new people they would look them in the eye rather than look away, this was another outward display of how the trainees had increased their self esteem. Increased self confidence was also observed by one of the case managers who stated “you can tell there has been a positive change in the clients when they walk in the door... they appear more confident...” (Personal communication, 2007).

Literature reveals that the outcomes from this LSV course are similar in nature to that reported from military style boot camps, such as increased discipline, responsibility and self-esteem (Hengesh, 1991). Increases in participants’ self efficacy are also supported by the literature on experiential education programmes (Hattie et al., 1997). Unemployment literature makes links between the increases in the self-confidence and efficacy of the long-term unemployed to what is thought to lead to an increase in their level of intrinsic motivation and as such a corresponding increase in their chances of securing employment (Marston & McDonald, 2008).

labelled *Interactions* due to space constraints.

Previous means-end literature reveals that similar end values such as self confidence, esteem, awareness, improvement, as well as transference and warm relationships with others were found to be outcomes of outdoor adventure experiences (Goldenberg, 2002). Goldenberg's (2002) findings, however, show that the attributes and consequences leading to the end values differ both in the links between concepts and type of concepts mentioned, of which some variance could be accounted for in that not all course activities were shared by both studies. The only attribute important in both Goldenberg's (2002) study and this study was interactions which revealed similar conceptual links. The attributes of course overall, expeditioning and rock climbing that showed up as being the most important in Goldenberg's (2002) study, while also major parts of this LSV course, did not show up as being important in the means-end data.

5.6.2 Subgroups

Separate HVMs were developed for the subgroups of: gender, age and ethnicity, (Appendix 5-10). Brief overviews of the means-end results are presented accompanied by links to relevant literature to support the findings. This section on subgroups ends with a discussion on the appropriateness of the means-end approach taken to reveal differences between various subgroups attending the LSV programme.

Gender

The HVM for males (Appendix 5) is very similar to the HVM for all trainees, in that many of the means-end chains were similar. There are two noticeable differences; firstly, for the males, interactions link predominantly to teamwork rather than relationships with others. Secondly, for males physical training had a strong link directly to physical fitness which then leads to determination/perseverance, unlike for all trainees where physical training had links to both physical fitness and determination/perseverance.

The HVM for females (Appendix 6), again has similarities to the HVM for all respondents, with strong links from time management to a sense of achievement

and being able to transfer knowledge/skills back to their home or work environment. What is noticeable for the females is that physical training had more outcomes leading from it than for all respondents or the males alone. This may indicate that the physical side of the course had a high impact in many areas for the females. Another difference is that marching led directly to a sense of achievement and self confidence/esteem for the females, and did not have a link to physical fitness. This indicates that marching was important for the females in that they felt good about accomplishing marching as a direct outcome.

Literature on the variances in outcomes between males and females in outdoor adventure experiences indicate that females place higher emphasis on group development exercises, whereas males focus more on independent activities (Estes & Ewert, 1988). In this study teamwork is held in higher regard for the females than the males, indicating that like Estes and Ewert (1988), group development is more important for the females than the males. The greater importance of the consequence of physical fitness for the males than for the females in this study is supported by Goldenberg's (2002) study of Outward Bound participants, as is the greater complexity of connections from attributes to consequences for the females, whereas the males had more direct connections to the consequences.

Age

The HVM for the 17-18 year old age group, or the 'younger' trainees (Appendix 7), shows that that the predominant attributes/course components were time management, marching, physical training and interactions. The consequences/outcomes that were mentioned most frequently were achievement and relationships with others. The values most often mentioned were self awareness/improvement, self confidence/esteem, transference in general and warm relationships with others.

The HVM for the 'older' group of 19-25 year olds (Appendix 8) has similar attributes and values to the younger group HVM. The consequence of a sense of achievement again is predominant on the HVM. Other attributes include teamwork, determination/perseverance and physical fitness.

The differences in HVMs between the younger and older trainees indicate that relationships with others were more important for the younger group, and that working as a team was more important for the older. Transference to work can be noted as not being as important for the younger trainees and also that it is a direct outcome from the time management aspect of the course. However, transference to work is an important value for the older trainees. Also of note was that physical training is not as important for the younger trainees as for the older ones; this may be because the younger trainees still have a good natural level of fitness due to their youth, and therefore the physical aspects of the course did not have such an impact on them. The HVM for the older trainees has more connections between the attributes, consequences and values producing complex relationships.

The results with respect to differences between age groups from this study differ from Ewert and Heyoods' (1991) study on group development in the natural environment, in that physical fitness is a more important aspect for the younger trainees than the older ones in their study. The findings of this present study are similar to those of Goldenberg (2002) who found that the physical training aspect of the course was more important for the older group of trainees than the younger ones. The resulting values were similar between age groups in this study which is similar to the findings by Hattie et al. (1997) in that there is little significant differences between age groups from participation in Outward Bound and adventure education type courses.

Ethnicity

HVMs were constructed for Māori participants (Appendix 9) and for European participants (Appendix 10). No HVMs were produced for the ethnic groups of Pacific Islander and Other due to the low number of participants in each group, which would have made it difficult to make comparisons or draw conclusions from these groups.

For both ethnic groups the predominant attributes/course components were time management, marching, physical training and interactions. The consequences/outcomes that were mentioned most frequently were achievement (again the predominant consequence) and relationships with others. The values

most often mentioned by both groups were self awareness/improvement and self confidence/esteem. Where the two groups differ is that the Māori trainees place higher value on warm relationships with others than the European trainees. Another difference is that while the two sub groups place similar value on transference to work, the European trainees' HVM shows more links to transference to work than the Māori trainees' HVM.

There was little research uncovered on variances of the outcomes between European and Māori ethnic groups in the experiential education literature. One meta analysis of employment and training programmes with respect to Māori participation and outcomes indicates that employment outcomes are not as good for Māori as for non-Māori (Fletcher, 1999). This study did not discuss how or why Māori participants have differing outcomes from non-Māori, and therefore the results cannot be compared to the literature.

Observational data for the subgroups of age, gender and ethnicity did not reveal any particularly insightful data into the means-end findings, nor does it support or rebuke the associated literature. This may be explained partly by the effect of the uniformity of the military environment, which in effect tries to negate individual differences and treat each individual as one and the same as their fellow team member. At times during observation it was hard to distinguish which trainees were the younger ones and also their exact ethnic identity. Many of the female trainees possessed physical capabilities equal or greater to that of many of the male trainees, and little separation of the sexes existed outside of the bunk house.

The lack of pertinent observational data and the similarities of outcomes between each subgroup has not made it feasible to present the subgroup findings in a realistic framework of outcomes, mechanisms and context. Due to the limited useful meaning gained from the data analysis of the different demographic subgroups, no further analysis has been undertaken of these results. Furthermore, it is suggested that the means-end approach taken in this study and the small sample size is not the appropriate approach to be taken to highlight differences between the demographic variables among the LSV trainees. An approach that is able to identify cognitive structures using a larger sample is thought to be more

appropriate to distinguish differences between subgroups; this is to be discussed in more depth in chapter 8. The next set of results is in relation to the four attributes that were revealed as having the most impact for the LSV trainees.

5.6.3 Marching

Military drill is where the trainees learn to march in a co-ordinated way as a platoon, and significant time and effort is placed on skill development in this area. Trainees were expected to master marching over the course of the programme, culminating in a march-out parade on the final day which showcases the skill level that they had achieved over the previous 6 weeks. The aim of drill is to produce a trainee who is proud, alert, obedient and to provide the basis of team work (LSV training poster, 2006).

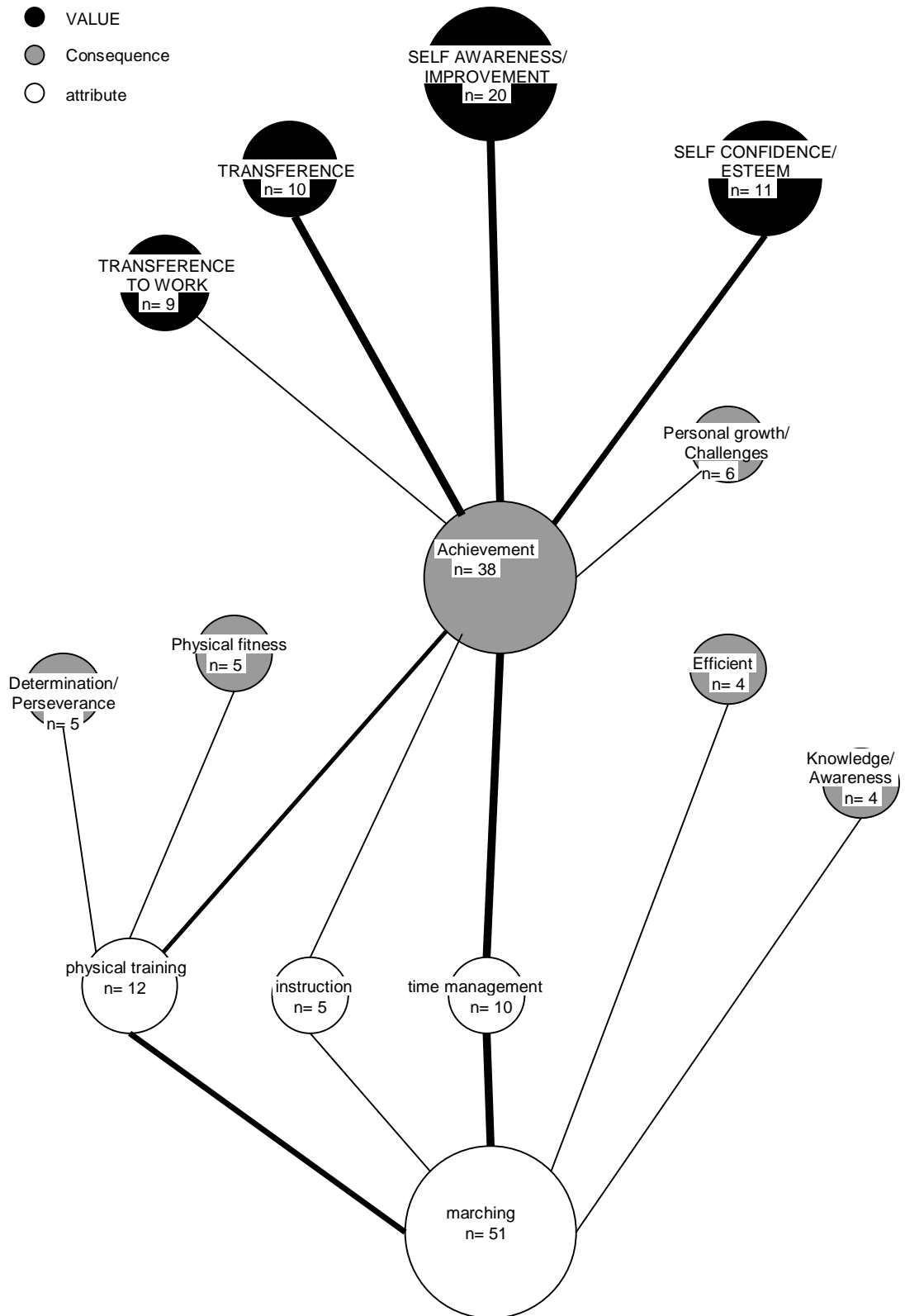


Figure 5.2 Hierarchical value map for Limited Service Volunteers course component: Marching (n=85).

The HVM for marching, shown in Figure 5.2, showed that a sense of achievement was the predominant outcome, and that the attributes also associated with marching were physical training, time management and instruction. Other consequences linked either directly or indirectly to marching included personal growth/challenges, determination/perseverance, physical fitness, efficiency and knowledge/awareness. The values that linked with these outcomes most frequently included self awareness/improvement, increased self confidence/esteem and transference to both work and transference in general.

It was observed that the trainees enjoyed marching and put considerable effort into performing the task to a high standard; this was shown by many of the trainees practising marching in their free time. Trainees would on occasion ask their staff member to run a marching skill game in their free time, also indicating that marching was an enjoyed activity. Through a review of the experiential education literature, skill mastery is thought to be the mechanism at work with respect to marching. Marching is a new and challenging skill introduced to the trainees, instruction is given so that progressively the trainee is able to practice each element building upon each previous skill until mastery is achieved; this is similar to the prescription of challenging tasks in such a way that mastery is achieved on experiential education programmes (Bacon, 1987; Walsh & Golins, 1976).

Literature highlights that the instructors have the ability to structure the course challenges in such a way as to build up the participants' knowledge and awareness of their abilities, so that they are able to succeed at increasing challenging activities (Bacon, 1987). What was observed of the marching activity was that new elements such as marching on the spot, about turn and slow marching were introduced one at a time and practised until the trainees could perform each individual element, before moving on to the next more challenging element. There were more than 20 elements that the trainees had to master by the end of the course and also they had to be able to link all the elements together, requiring a high level of skill to competently perform marching. The introduction of each new element was a combination of the predetermined course programme and the ability of staff to evaluate their trainees' ability and readiness to accept new elements.

The means-end data showed that physical training was linked to marching; this was also observed in that the marching activity by the end of the course was a physically demanding workout when done consistently for a length of time. The physical training aspect of marching has the effect of building upon the self efficacy end values of self awareness, improvement, confidence and esteem that will be discussed in the physical training section. Transference both in general and to work was also recognised as an important outcome to the trainees, though no observational data supports or opposes this means-end outcome.

A search of the military environment literature did not reveal any specific, relevant research on the outcomes or effects of marching. To place the findings within a realistic framework, the marching outcomes of increased self efficacy can be attributed to the mechanism of mastery of a challenging skill which lead to positive feelings of achievement or success. The outcomes of marching were thought to be able to occur in the context of a structured programme and instruction that built upon the skill level of the trainees in a progressive manner until success was achieved.

5.6.4 Time Management

Time management was an important aspect of the course which was run to a specific timetable. The daily routine consisted of being woken up at 5.30 am, after which participants had to shower, shave (for all the males), dress into clothing as directed by staff (the entire platoon dressed the same), complete their chores such as cleaning the bathrooms, and make their beds to an exact standard. After this the platoons fell into formation⁶ outside the barrack, ready to march to breakfast at 6.30am. Straight after breakfast, the platoons formed up and marched back to their barracks to finish any duties before the barrack was inspected by a senior staff member.

⁶ Formation (form up, formed up or fall into formation) in this context is when the trainees line up into two or more equal spaced lines, preparing to march as a group.

Various activities, lessons and physical fitness sessions would be conducted during the day, which was divided into nine 45 minute sessions with breaks. Activities could last for one 45 minute session, for the five sessions from breakfast to lunch, or for 3 days, such as the hiking activity. Between sessions, trainees could relax and have a cigarette, write, or socialise with other trainees; the time was also used to transfer to the next activity when necessary. Lunch was taken at 12 noon, and dinner at 5pm. In the evening, generally on alternate nights, trainees either had formal lessons, or free time. Evening free time was spent socialising with other trainees, phoning home, listening to music, reading, writing, performing personal duties such as washing clothes, polishing boots and ironing (every part of their clothing had to be ironed) and some trainees did extra physical exercise. Evening time was sometimes also used to prepare for the next day's activity such as packing for the hiking portion or allocating gear. Lights out was dependent on the individual platoon, but usually occurred around 10pm.

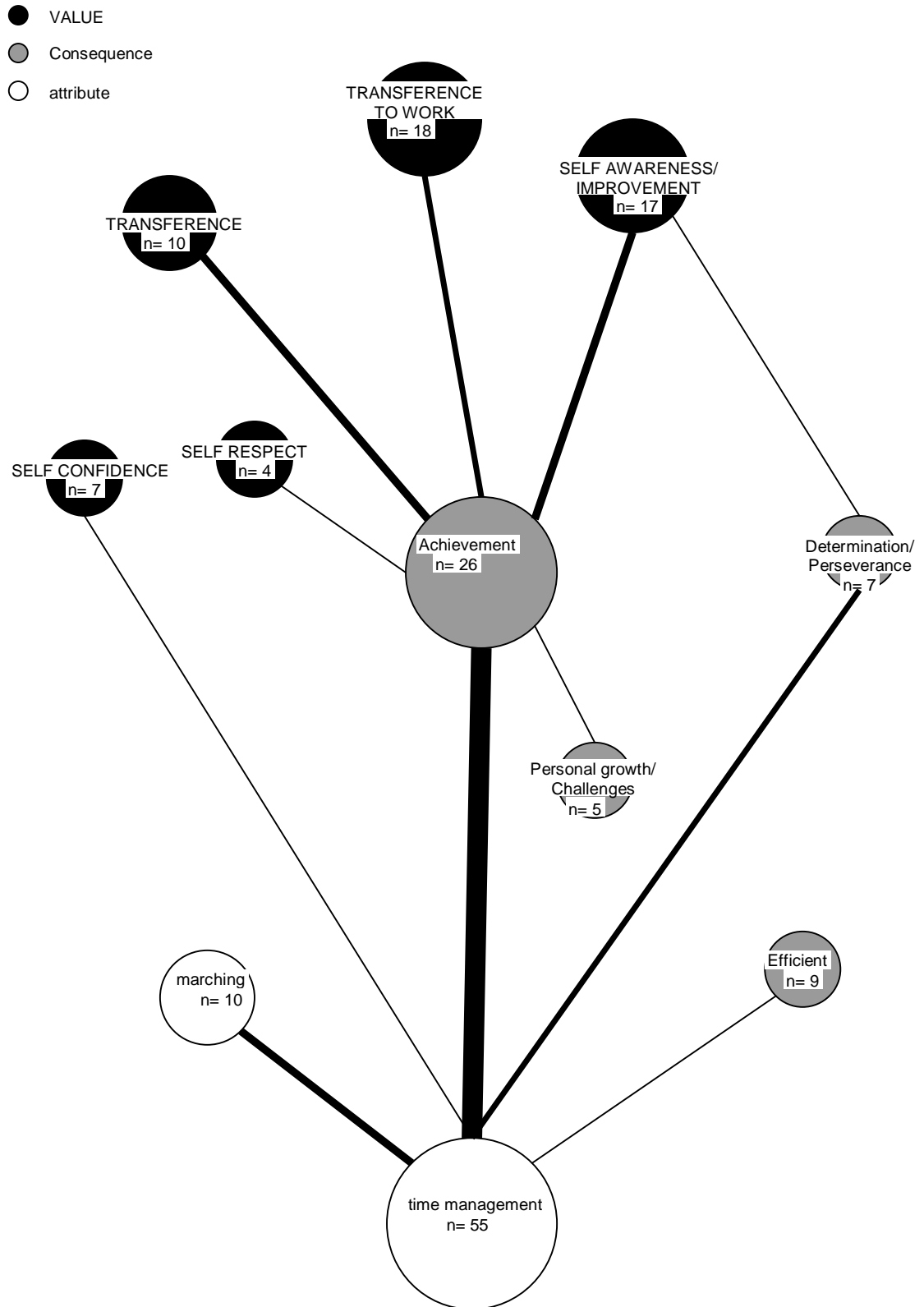


Figure 5.3 Hierarchical value map for Limited Service Volunteers course component: Time management (n=85).

The HVM for time management, shown in Figure 5.3, highlights that the most prominent consequence was a sense of achievement, and this had a strong direct link from time management. Transference to work was the value most reported from trainees with respect to time management, followed by self awareness/improvement and transference in general. This HVM underlines the importance of time management within the LSV course; and as future employment is one of the main aims of the course, it is suggested that activities that contribute to this outcome should be a major part of the programme.

Both the researcher and LSV staff noted that the daily routine, time management and sequencing of the LSV programme was of great importance to the success of the course. The daily routine was thought to help on two levels; first, the trainees are able to break free from previous habits of late nights and late awakening, and over the course become accustomed to what is a typical work day schedule. The enforcement of the day routine also helped with discipline, in that trainees get to know where they are meant to be, and also assists trainees in getting used to taking instructions from other people i.e. future employers.

Trainees were frequently reminded about their personal time management skills, whether that was preparing clean and ironed clothing for the next day, completion of chores before enjoying free time or tidying their bunk room in time for inspection. Mastery of time management was observed as some trainees took pride in completion of chores and tasks on time and to a high standard. By course end some trainees talked of keeping up with what they have learned on the course, by helping out in daily household tasks rather than let other people do everything for them, “When I get home I’m going to help my family out more ... and I’m going to get up early as you can get more done, [rather] than staying in bed all day,” (Frank).

Staff reminded trainees that the lessons learned on the course are applicable to them in the future when looking for work and when in the work force. Examples include staff saying that no employer wants you to turn up to an interview late, or turn up to a job interview untidy because you did not have the time to iron your clothes. Staff also talk about the importance of turning up to work on time every

day, as employers want workers that they can rely on so their business can function properly. There was also a lesson in time management delivered to the trainees within the first week of the course that emphasised the importance of time management both on the course and back into the trainees' home environment.

An example of a day with strict time management was during week four; an intensive personal challenge event (FTX 2) was undertaken that involved the trainees in a very demanding day of challenges that are conducted in groups of 8 – 10 trainees. The day started at 3am with a hike in the dark carrying packs and half a telephone pole, thereafter time-restrained challenges were completed by the groups including bagging sand to make a barricade, laying out fire hoses and aiming water at a target, constructing with limited resources a bridge over a stream to transfer them from one side to the other. Meals were eaten in the field, with the day end at 8pm. The long day of challenges was both physical and intellectual in nature, and each group was awarded points for completed tasks, thus including a sense of competition to the day. For some individuals, tension occurred during the day, which negatively affected how the group performed. Issues/tensions that arose were discussed, led by the staff, who facilitated de-briefing at the conclusion of each activity, using the experiential learning cycle. Staff talked about the personal challenge event as being the “most effective activity” and that it “can be a turning point for trainees” meaning that they start to acknowledge what the course is trying to achieve and try to make the most of what the course has to offer. In order for this day to be a success, logistics were precise in nature relying on effective time management for the day to be completed to plan.

Literature in the outdoor education field supports the significance of time management as an important outcome, including the meta analysis by Hattie et al. (1997) who identified time management as having immediate effects on adventure education programmes. Also, Neill (1999) concluded that time management was the most important outcome from Outward Bound Australia courses. What the literature does not say is how or why time management is important, rather simply conveying the results from participant questionnaires that identify time management as an important aspect of the course for them.

The means-end data revealed that the outcomes of transference to work, transference in general, and self awareness/improvement were identified from the time management aspect of the course, as being important outcomes for this group of LSV trainees. The context that this outcome was observed in was the structured course outline that was adhered to throughout the course. Staff explained the importance of time management to the trainees, enabling them to take on board the consequences able to be achieved from good time management skills. This was thought to be the mechanism at work facilitating the outcomes in this LSV context.

5.6.5 Physical Training

Physical training in one form or another was included throughout the programme, with physical training sessions conducted by the physical training instructors (not the trainees' every day staff) approximately every second day. These sessions typically included running, push ups and sit ups. Also included in every session was a mixture of physically challenging exercises that ensured variety in delivery. The physical training sessions were held in a variety of outdoor settings in and around the base camp; only once during the course was the training conducted inside, in the base gymnasium. The physical training sessions are run in true military manner; discipline is strict including correct and properly ironed clothing to be worn, and an expectation that commands are followed precisely.

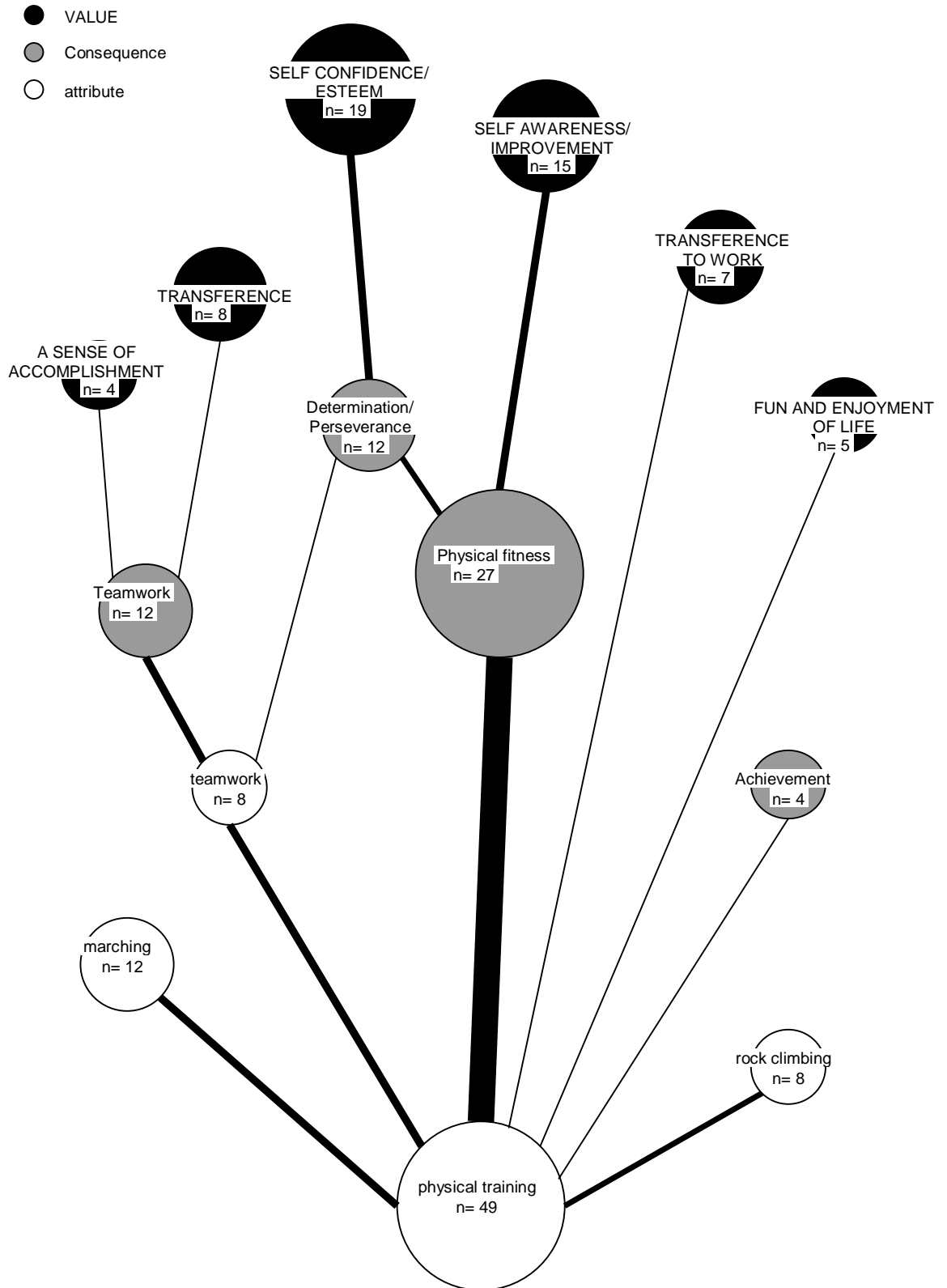


Figure 5.4 Hierarchical value map for Limited Service Volunteers course component: Physical training (n=85).

As would be expected, in the HVM for physical training shown in Figure 5.4, the most frequently mentioned concept was the consequence physical fitness. Other consequences include determination/perseverance, teamwork and a sense of achievement. It can be noted that physical training had a large number of values associated with it including self confidence/esteem, self awareness/improvement, transference in general and transference to work, also fun and enjoyment of life and a sense of accomplishment.

For some of the trainees, the initial physical training sessions were very demanding, as they had not participated in any physical exercise in a long time. While there is a body mass index cut off point in the selection of the trainees, some still arrive at the course with a low level of physical fitness. Some trainees gave up during some exercises and therefore had to be encouraged by staff to continue, while the other trainees had to wait until those trainees who were finding it difficult, joined back in and continued the training. Some of the fitter trainees initially found this situation extremely frustrating, and verbalised negativity towards other trainees, but by mid-programme the trainees took it upon themselves to help and encourage the less fit trainees.

Many of the trainees worked hard during the course to improve their fitness, with some performing extra training during their free time. Trainees were encouraged by staff to work towards individual physical fitness goals throughout the course; fellow trainees also gave support and encouragement to each other in reaching their physical fitness goals. It was observed that trainees got a great deal of satisfaction and confidence upon completion of the physical training sessions and that physical training was an important aspect of the course programme.

Some trainees talked about how their increase in physical fitness would help them back in their home environment, for work or sporting endeavours; for instance trainee Tyrone stated “I hope now I’m getting fitter, that when I get home I will be able to get into the district rep team (for rugby)”. Other trainees talked about now that they were fitter they would have a better chance of passing the physical fitness testing required to enter the forces. One trainee stated “I have the fitness

now to be able to join the police,” (Terry). Many trainees commented that they wanted more physical training sessions to be included in the programme.

A sports competition was held during week three which involved team games such as soccer, touch rugby and Ultimate Frisbee, giving the trainees an opportunity to play some team games that for some could possibly re-connect them into participation on their return home. The sports competitions were enjoyed by the majority of the trainees, even those who initially found the physical training aspect of the course challenging.

The results for physical training are as would be expected, that by increasing their physical fitness, levels of self confidence and esteem are also increased. This aspect of the course is different from many of the trainees’ home environment, where many stated that they lived a sedentary life. Research shows such inactivity can have a detrimental effect on physical and mental health (Scully, Kremer, Meade, Graham, & Dudgeon, 1998). Literature supports the positive outcomes of physical activity in outdoor education programmes (Ewert, 1987; Hattie et al., 1997) and the physical/psychological benefits (Department of Health, 2004; Pretty, Griffin, Sellens, & Pretty, 2003) and is discussed further in chapter 7 with the Outward Bound results of the physical training course component.

Placing the outcomes of increased health, self confidence and self esteem into the realistic framework, reveals that the context that enabled such outcomes to occur was the variety of physical training activities based in the outdoor environment, within a small supportive group. Course observation indicated that the mechanism at work was that the students set and strived towards individual goals.

5.6.6 Participant Interactions

Participant interactions included informal interactions between trainees, trainees and staff, and between trainees and other people that they encountered while on the course. Examples of times when trainees were able to interact with one another on an informal basis include meal times, breaks between activities, time on transport between activities, and time spent in their barracks or tent (on expedition) during the evening.

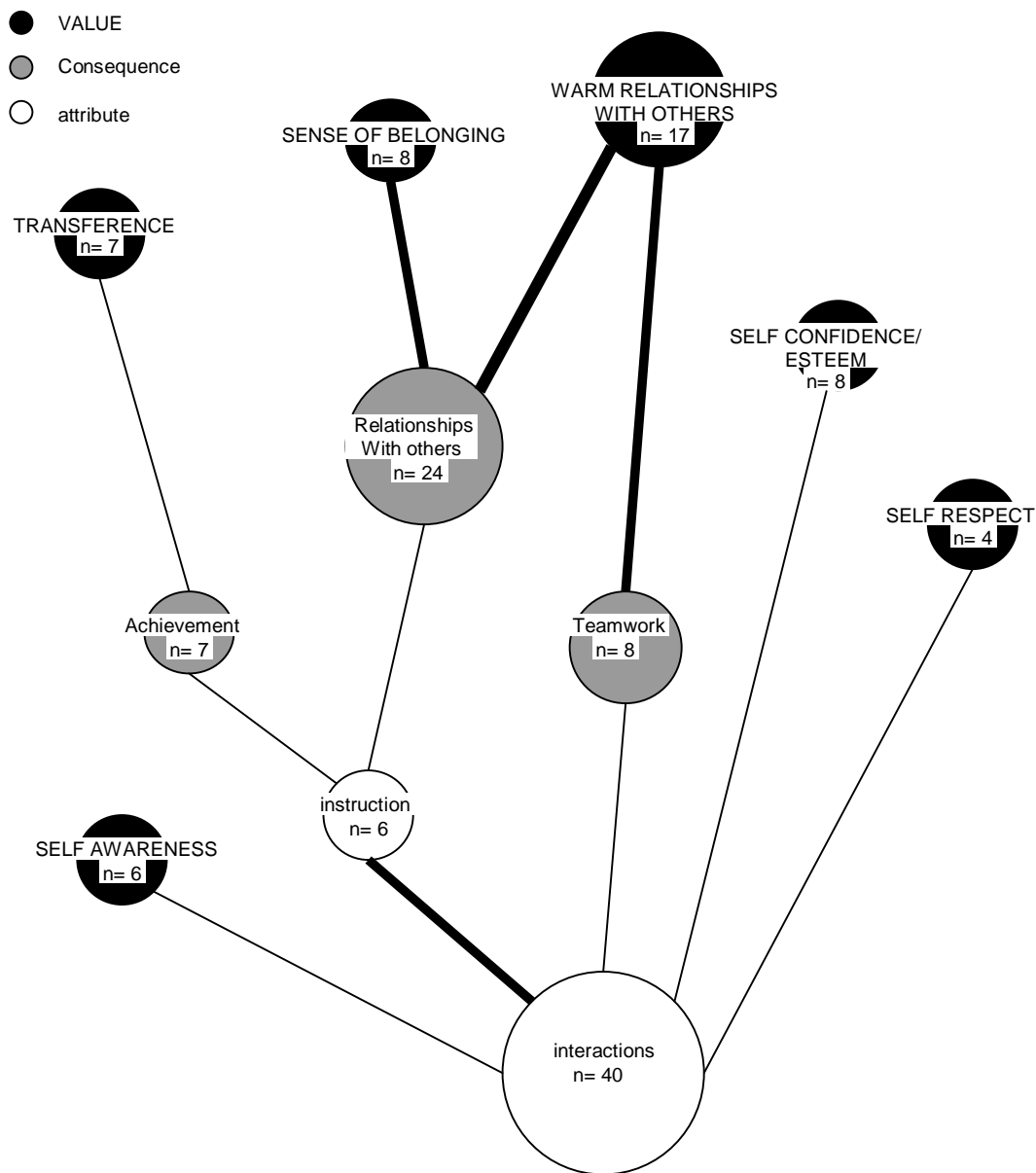


Figure 5.5 Hierarchical value map for Limited Service Volunteers course component: Participant Interactions (n=85).

The HVM for participant interactions, shown in Figure 5.5, not surprisingly reveals that the most often mentioned consequence is relationships with others, followed by teamwork. The attribute of instruction is also linked to interactions, showing that the interactions between trainees and instructors were also an important aspect of the course. The values associated with interactions include warm relationships with others, a sense of belonging, self confidence/esteem and transference in general.

Through course observation it is suggested that the trainees were able to form a new set of social connections within the group, without having to uphold previous expected behaviours. This was attributed to the effect of the standardisation of uniform and haircut, removing indicators that individuals belonged to particular sub-cultures and their associated expected behaviours. Secondly, the consequence of the staff facilitating positive interactions between trainees; this was achieved by staff setting norms for interactions, for example by stemming negative interactions and encouraging team work. The staff who had daily interactions with the trainees soon became valued role models for the trainees, comments such as "...our instructor has done some pretty cool stuff, I would like to experience some of the things he has done," (Mahara) represents a typical comment from the trainees. An example of the closeness of interactions between trainees and staff, is that one staff member set a challenge to her platoon that by the end of the course she would be able to outperform any platoon member in the number of push ups able to be done; this was seen as encouraging to many in her platoon and thus helped form a positive connection between them.

Trainees were observed to quickly form close supportive bonds between their four member bunk room group; this was thought to be achieved due to the closeness of interactions that occurred and the frequency of interactions due to living in the same room. The group of four were jointly responsible and accountable for the presentation of their bunk room, with the outcome that they cooperated in the upkeep of their room. Warm relations were also observed to develop within trainees' platoons; this was in part achieved by the shared experiences and inter-group support needed to accomplish the group tasks that were presented to them. Staff were seen as instrumental in facilitating a sense of platoon pride and identity

among the trainees by way of introducing inter-platoon friendly rivalry, for example on the parade ground demonstrating the platoons' marching ability. Trainees appeared to feel a sense of belonging to the LSV Company, which held a separate identity from the other Companies that existed on the Burnham base, and also operated independently within the armed services and as such were a unique group. This feeling of uniqueness was thought to help cultivate a sense of belonging and pride within the trainees; comments such as "I feel LSV is trying to really help me do something with my life" (Taylor), and "I enjoy being with all these other people and working as a team at LSV, it's not like other places (training courses) where you don't get to know the other people," (Mike).

The immersion into the new environment for the trainees gave them an opportunity to consider a new context for their values and norms without pressure to perform to existing expectations. This new environment allowed the possibility of trainees exploring their own identities; this is supported by literature on groups that immerse themselves into new environments such as the outdoors (Hendee & Brown, 1988). The end values of self confidence, esteem, respect and awareness that were all outcomes from participant interactions is supported in the psychological literature showing that receiving encouragement and support from valued others can positively affect individuals' self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Gagne & Medsker, 1996).

Literature within the outdoor education field supports the positive effect that personal interactions have on individuals' development (Hopkins & Putnam, 1993; McKenzie, 2000b; Walsh & Golins, 1976); also, the means-end results for participant interactions from Goldenberg's (2002) study are similar to those presented here. Links to literature are discussed in more depth in chapter 7 on Outward Bound to avoid repetition.

Outcomes of fostering warm relationships with others, a sense of belonging and self confidence/esteem highlight the importance of the social interactions that occurred on the course. The contexts that the outcomes were able to occur in were that the trainees were away from their home environment and previous social groups, thus allowing a new set of social interactions to be formed. The

mechanisms at work to produce the positive outcomes were the ability of the staff to facilitate positive and supportive interactions between trainees, allowing trainees to form positive and supportive relationships with one another.

5.6.7 Six Months Post Course

Six months after the LSV course had finished, the researcher conducted phone interviews with the trainees as described in the research design chapter. They were generally very happy to have been called from someone who had been involved in their LSV course. Only a few trainees still kept in touch with one another and during the interviews many of the respondents commented that contact was diminishing over time.

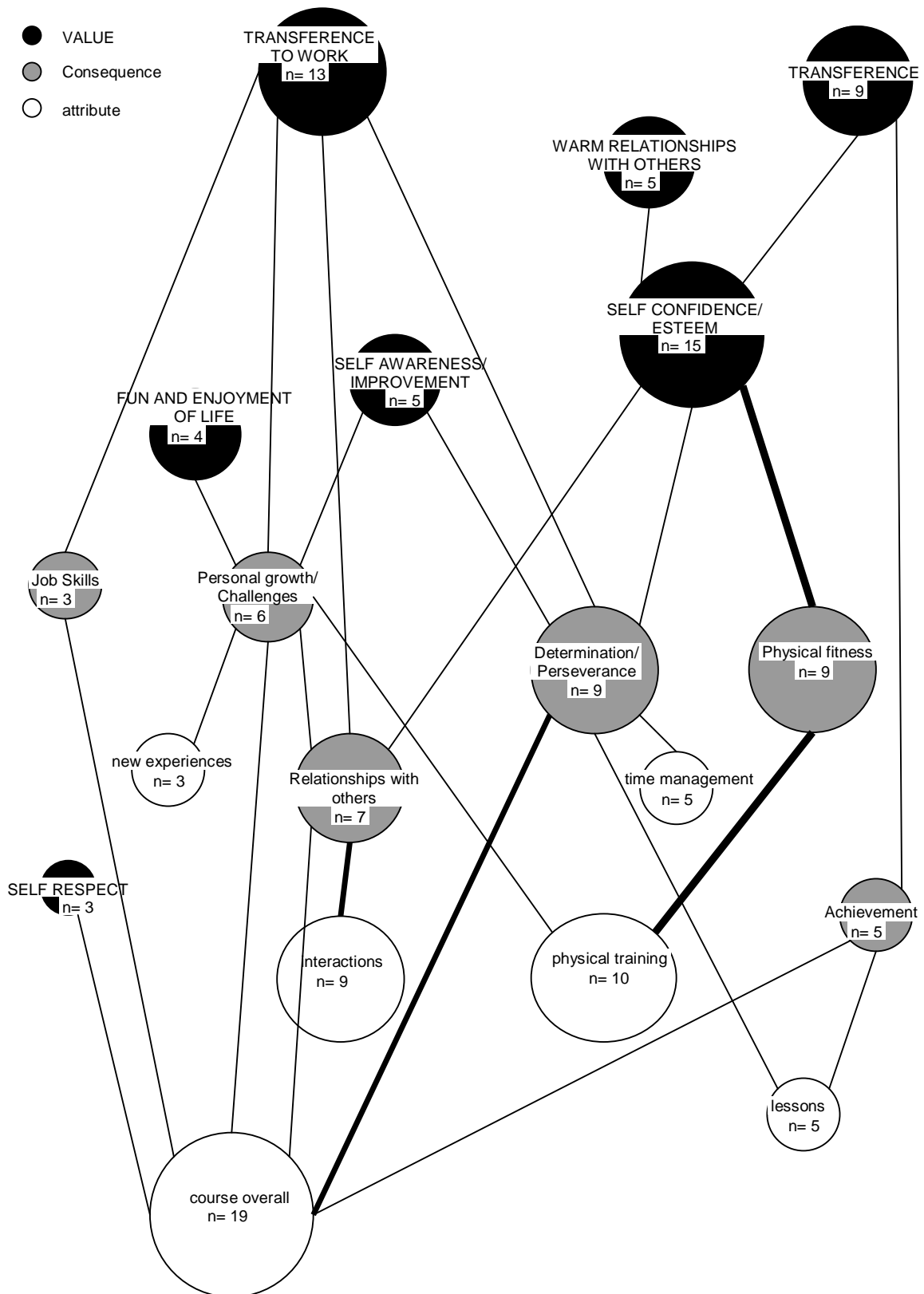


Figure 5.6 Hierarchical value map for Limited Service Volunteers course participants: All participants at 6 months post course (n = 28).

Figure 5.6 represents the data collected from the 28 respondents at 6 months post course. It can be observed that the predominant attributes/course components are the course overall, physical training and interactions. The consequences/outcomes that were mentioned most frequently were determination/perseverance, physical fitness, relationships with others and personal growth/challenges. The values most often mentioned were self confidence/esteem, transference to work, transference in general, self awareness/improvement and warm relationships with others. Again, strong links between physical training, physical fitness and self confidence/esteem can be observed, as well as a strong link between the course overall and determination/perseverance.

There are noticeable differences between this HVM and the initial HVM for the respondents at course end. Firstly, the predominant attribute is the course overall. This may be due to the respondents no longer being able to distinguish between the individual course components, because during the intervening time period they may have forgotten which individual activity led to which outcome. Also of note in the attributes is the absence of marching; this is in contrast to the results at course end where marching was a major attribute. Also, the importance of time management has reduced considerably from course end to 6 months post course.

The major difference in consequences at 6 months post course was the reduction in the significance of achievement. This may be due to the fact that at course end the trainees had just completed their course, and therefore the feelings of achievement were paramount to them at that time. The values mentioned are largely similar between course end and 6 months post course, with one area of note being the increased number of links connecting to transference to work.

The 6 month post course results reveal that transference of the outcomes from the course did take place; this was because 6 months on from the course the trainees reported many of the same outcomes as at course end. Literature acknowledges the importance of transferring the outcomes from experiential education programmes to participants post course environments (Gass, 1990; Miller, 2001). The course end data included the value of transference and in particular transference to work, i.e. that the trainees thought that what they had gained from

the course would be able to be used back in their everyday home and working environment. The means-end data obtained 6 months post course is consistent with prior research on the long-term effects from outdoor education programmes, showing that effects are still persistent at 6 months post course (Hattie et al., 1997).

5.6.8 Research Method

Critiquing the application and appropriateness of the methods undertaken to study the LSV group revealed that the combination of means-end and course observation had both strengths and weaknesses. The means-end approach adopted with face to face participant interviews, had advantages in that for many of the trainees on this particular course it was observed they were more comfortable with oral rather than written forms of communication. An example of this was when the trainees were asked to provide written feedback to LSV at times during the course; there were many trainees who gave very short feedback, using limited writing skills, and a few would also take advantage of help they were offered to fill out the forms. Staff also conveyed that many of the trainees who attended LSV had limited literacy skills.

The researcher/trainee relationships that were established during the course were thought to be helpful when the time came to interview the participants at course end, as all the trainees were communicative and willing to partake in the research even though it was not mandatory. The verbal questionnaire technique also allowed the researcher to re-phrase questions when requested and also the researcher could help the respondent overcome blocks by either rephrasing or coming back to the question. The verbal questioning technique had limitations in that as a technique it is very time consuming to conduct the in person interviews, and as such only one group of LSV participants was able to be interviewed due to time and financial restraints. The subgroup results highlight that the approach adopted was not able to convey a great deal of differentiation between the particular subgroups that attended the LSV programme. What may have been a more appropriate method to reveal better results between subgroups would have

been a large sample using written questionnaires that would have the ability to identify the different cognitive structures between age groups, ethnic groups and genders due to the large samples that would be able to be collected in a cost effective manner.

The approach used was effective in summarising the means-end structures of the particular LSV group studied to produce the HVM for all participants at course end. This HVM was valuable in identifying the main attributes that were important to the participants in causing outcomes to occur and likewise identify attributes that had little effect on course outcomes. It was then possible to produce the four HVMs that were most important for the group, allowing further exploration into the outcomes from those particular attributes. It is acknowledged that similar results may have been produced by using a larger sample and written questionnaires; the advantage of collecting the means-end data in person by the researcher was the ability to gain a deeper understanding of the true meaning of the results, whereas context can be lost using written questionnaires (Grunert & Grunert, 1995).

The means-end method combined with the course observation is thought to be very successful in enabling the researcher to identify key contexts and mechanisms at work that produced the outcomes revealed by the means-end data, thus facilitating the presentation of the results within a realistic framework. The results enable the research to go beyond just the presentation of outcomes; causality is able to be put forward which gives a richer understanding of the processes involved in producing such outcomes as requested by previous research (Cason & Gillis, 1994; Ewert, 1983; Hattie et al., 1997; Warner, 1984).

Collecting the 6 month post course means-end data by telephone interviews was beneficial in that a greater response rate was thought to be obtained than from a postal survey, due to the ability to ask respondents for updated contact details for other group members. The results obtained were only from one third of the original respondents and as such this was not a good representation of the original group studied, and therefore the results should be interpreted with caution. A larger sample size from many groups, perhaps using a postal survey may have the

ability to gain a large enough sample to establish the cognitive structure 6 months post course; as this was not the intent of this study this approach would not have been appropriate.

5.7 Conclusions

The course observation section reveals the developmental journey that the trainees had gone through as guided by the structure of the LSV programme. Through the sequencing of increasingly challenging activities and the development of individual and group competencies, trainees were able to succeed at many course activities. Individual course activities such as goal setting and the programme environment were acknowledged as important aspects of the course. The willingness of LSV to accept feedback to modify their goal setting programme has also shown commitment to providing the best quality course that they possibly can.

High adventure activities such as rock climbing were observed not to have the same outcomes when delivered by other outdoor adventure providers. What high adventure activities could be credited for, was as an enticement to partake on the course, and also as a fun activity to make the trainees want to continue with the course. Early departures were identified as being similar to other providers and what is described in the literature, and while efforts were made by LSV to retain every trainee, for the good of the larger group sometimes it was deemed best to concentrate efforts on the trainees who were committed to continue with the course.

The significance of the course observation reaches beyond the data collected, and also has implications for the researcher to better interpret the findings from all data collection stages. By being immersed in the course, interacting with trainees and staff alike, connections were made to theory, literature, and data collection, thus allowing a rich translation of what actually occurred on the course rather than a simple description of course events.

The results presented here indicate that the means-end approach used in this study was useful in revealing the most important course attributes and associated outcomes as perceived by the LSV trainees. Further analysis of the individual means-end structures, combined with observational data and linkages with relevant literature, enabled deeper insight into: participant interactions, marching, time management and physical training, and helped explain how and why these outcomes were most important to the trainees. Presenting descriptive material as well as results in part addresses Hattie et al.'s (1997) call for using both qualitative and quantitative methodologies, through detailing the nature of the programme to enable a richer description of the experience that a participant undergoes on outdoor education programmes.

Results from the means-end data analysis revealed the key course aspects for the LSV participants were marching, time management, physical training and participant interactions. End values of self-awareness/improvement, transference in general, self-confidence/esteem and transference to work were identified as being important outcomes from the LSV programme. Course components were further examined to reveal links between individual activities, consequences and end values, interpretation of this data was aided by the integration of course observational data, presenting a better understanding of the results.

Reflection on the results revealed that the phenomenological stance using means-end on a small sample such as this was not insightful when trying to distinguish between demographic characteristics such as age, gender and ethnicity, or make comparisons between course end and 6 months post course data. Larger scale collection techniques would have been more appropriate to make comparisons between participant demographic characteristics. The individual course component data analysis was very insightful, revealing more than just what outcomes were produced, but also the process of how these outcomes occurred, enabling a deeper insight to the key components of the LSV experience.

Chapter 6 Outward Bound

6.1 Introduction

Before considering the aims, objectives and methods of Outward Bound New Zealand, a brief review of its international history and origin are given. This is followed by the specific features of the motivational intervention programme for the long-term unemployed provided by Outward Bound called the “Catalyst” course. The short term outcomes, the target group and the selection process and criteria are also presented, thus enabling an understanding of the Catalyst course and the sequence of activities that participants perform.

6.2 Outward Bound International

Outward Bound is a nautical term used when a ship sets sail out to sea going to discover uncharted waters. Kurt Hahn chose this name for the school which he established in 1941 in Aberdovy, Wales. The school was set up in response to the British Admiralty’s concern at the large number of young seamen who died when their ship was sunk, having been forced to sea during World War II, as opposed to the older seamen who had a higher chance of survival.

Hahn came from an educational background and had already established the distinctive Gordonstoun and Salem schools in Germany, his country of birth, before fleeing due to his opposition of the war. Following discussions with Sir Lawrence Holt, Chairman of the Blue Funnel Shipping Line, which had lost many of its ships, an experiment was conducted to give young seamen a ‘short sharp’ course to increase their confidence, by exposing them to activities that placed them under extreme physical stress and required considerable social adjustment; the outcome was a much increased chance of survival at sea (Mitchell & Mitchell, 1989).

After the war, Hahn saw that Outward Bound could be developed to protect youth against what he saw as a “diseased” civilisation. He saw a decay of care and skill, of enterprise and adventure, of compassion, and thought that Outward Bound could address these issues by increasing the self confidence, self-awareness, interpersonal skills, self-reliance, initiative and development of character in the nation’s youth (Miles & Priest, 1999).

“While we believe that it is the sin of the soul to force any youngster into opinions, we consider it neglect not to impel everybody into health-giving experiences” (Hahn, 1960, p. 5). Since 1941, Outward Bound has grown internationally with 55 schools in 40 countries around the world, and has led the field in experiential education (Outward Bound International, 2007).

6.3 Philosophy and Ideals

In New Zealand, Outward Bound promotes itself as a unique provider of 'traditional values' education with a modern focus to meet the needs of New Zealanders today. Its courses provide an accelerated learning experience using the outdoors and other creative learning media (Grady, 1987).

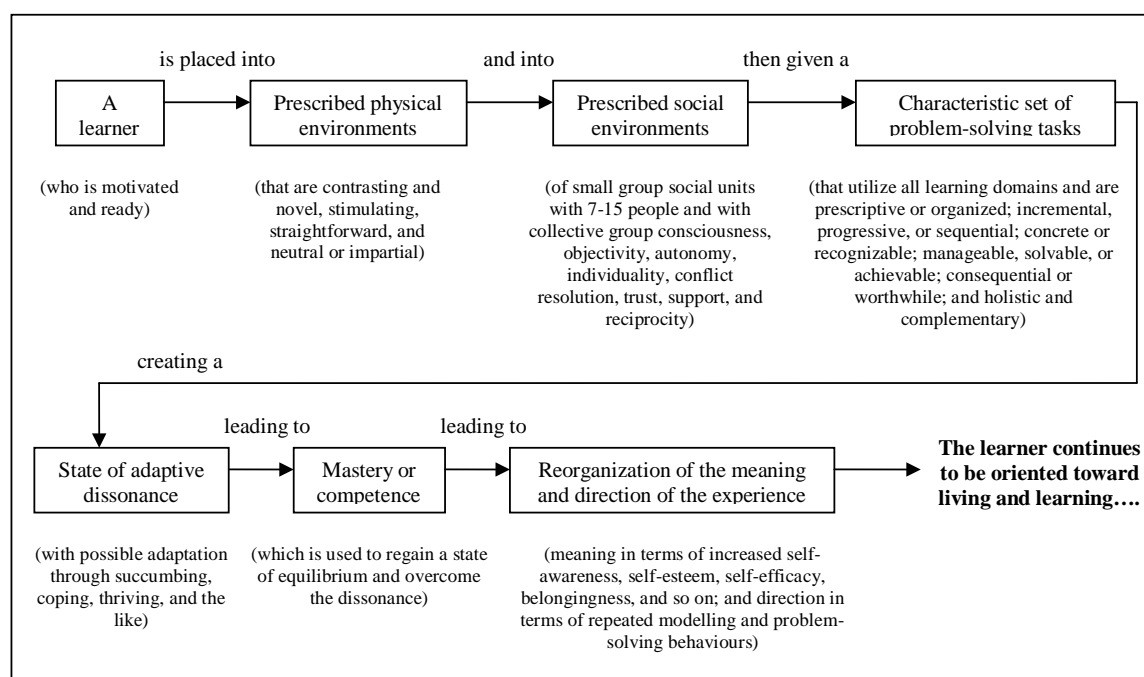
Outward Bound believes that the combination of physical, mental and emotional challenge in a safe, but unfamiliar environment leads participants to reach outside what may have become their personal comfort zone and look at options and beliefs which are new.

This challenge, coupled with appropriate opportunities to reflect and internalise the learning, leads to the expansion and enhancement of participants' personal values. Some of the values which form part of this growth are integrity, honesty, vitality, creativity, humility, compassion, courage, pride in performance and responsibility (Outward Bound New Zealand, 2003).

6.4 The Outward Bound Process

The Outward Bound process has developed over the years from the foundation work of Walsh and Gollins (1976), who made the first effort to understand and put on paper the process of learning on Outward Bound courses (Priest & Gass, 1997). Priest and Gass' description of the model developed by Walsh and Golins (1976) is depicted in Figure 6.1, the Outward Bound process model. This model simplifies the process into seven elements including the learner, prescribed physical environments, prescribed social environments, characteristic set of problem-solving tasks, state of adaptive dissonance, mastery or competence, and reorganisation of the meaning and direction of the experience (Priest & Gass, 1997).

Figure 6.1 The Outward Bound process model.

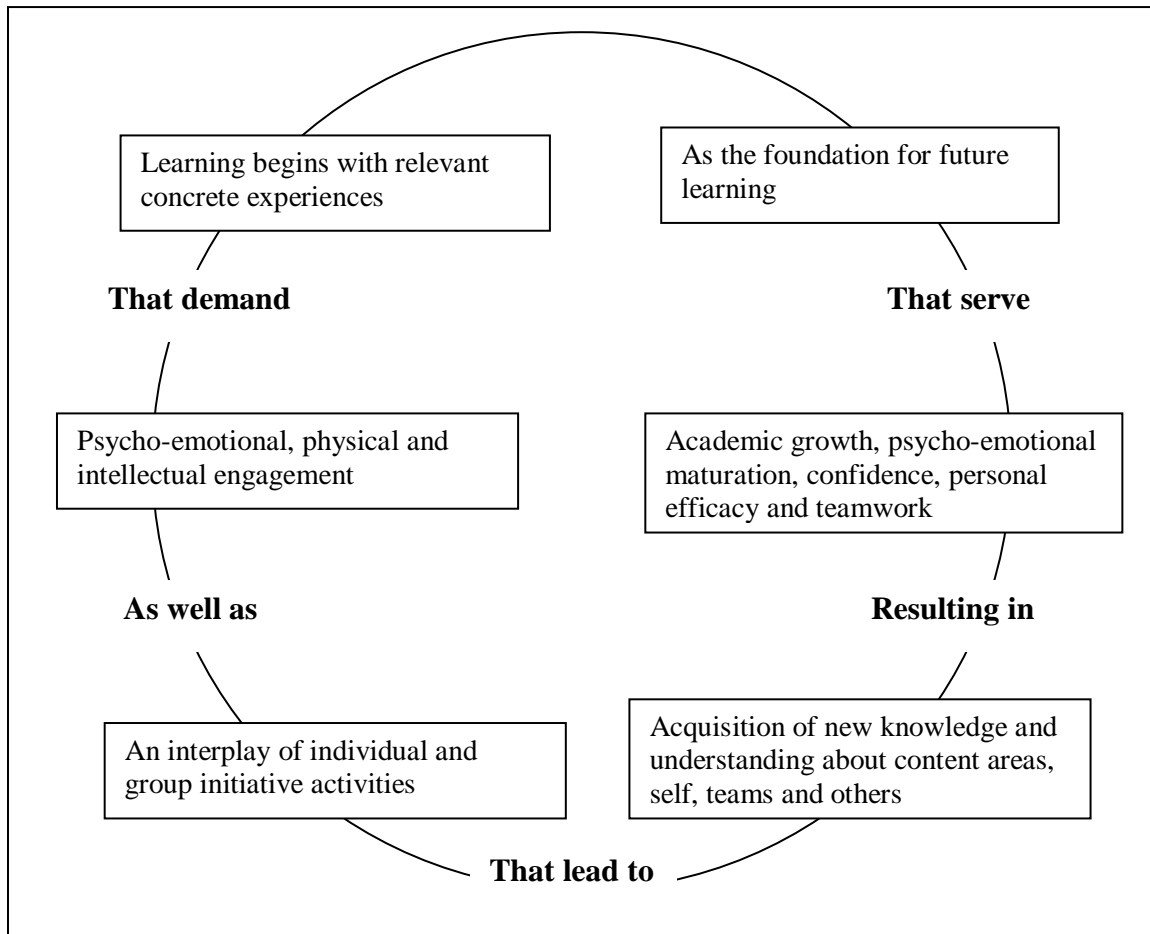


(Walsh & Golins, 1976, as cited in Priest & Gass, 1997, p. 140)

Further work on evolving the model was undertaken by Bacon (1987) in the 1980s, focusing on how facilitation of the experience using the experiential education cycle enhanced the transference of lessons. This was a departure from ‘letting the mountains talk for themselves’ and emphasised the use of the outdoors as a metaphor for learning that could be transferred back to the individuals’ home environment. Bacon described Outward Bound courses as being sequential in nature, starting with a training phase, then expedition, solo, final expedition and then the concluding phase (Bacon, 1987). Individual activities could be identified to relate to each individual stage of the programme, and thus activities could be sequenced to allow for optimum learning.

The next model in the development of the Outward Bound process is put forward by Sakofs and Armstrong (1996), in which they acknowledge the importance of the instructors’ role in facilitating the whole experience for the participant. Figure 6.2 illustrates Sakofs and Armstrong’s (1996) active learning cycle, which emphasises that learning is a result of a combination of “psycho-emotional, physical and intellectual engagement in a range of activities” (Martin, 2003, p. 1). Further, that the learning environment must be safe and enjoyable allowing participants freedom to learn.

Figure 6.2 The active learning cycle.



(Sakofs & Armstrong, 1996, p. 20)

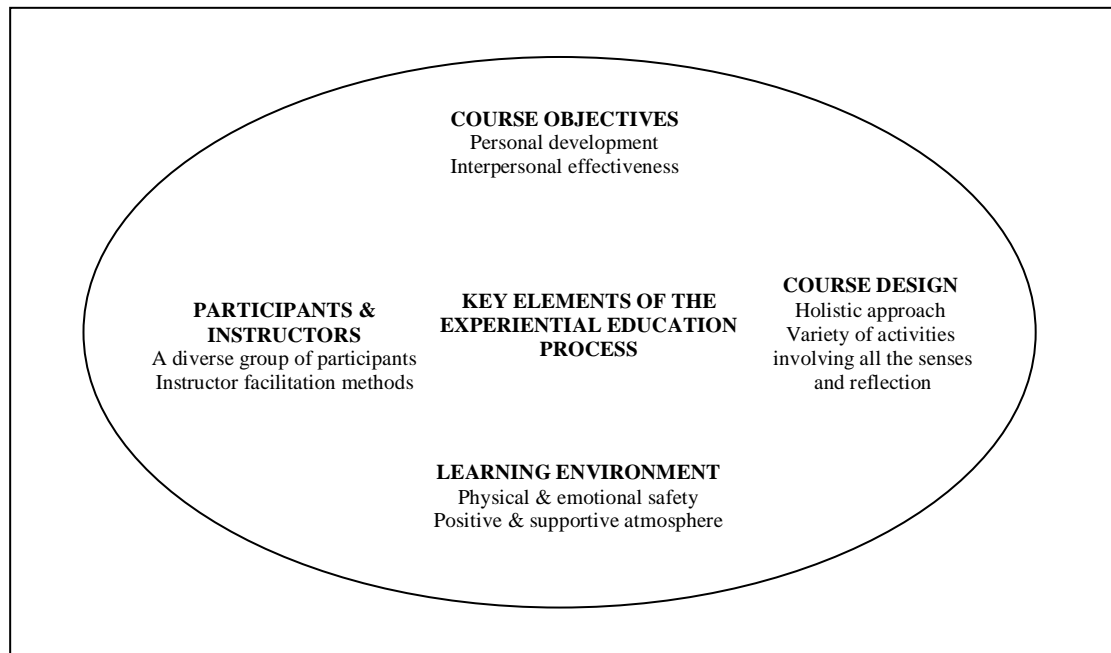
The latest model to be put forward is the holistic model by Martin (2001), which builds on work from Kraft and Sakofs (1985), describing how the learning process that individuals go through at Outward Bound is a complex combination of all the senses: physical, emotional, spiritual and intellectual, that combine to result in individual outcomes (Kraft & Sakofs, 1985).

Martin's holistic model (Figure 6.3) depicts the complex assortment of variables that are involved in the Outward Bound process.

The instructors, along with the development of trust and the group dynamics amongst participants, are important factors in the creation of a positive, friendly atmosphere and supportive learning environment that is physically, and emotionally safe. The use of a variety of activities aims to challenge participants mentally, physically, and emotionally (mind, body and soul) (Martin, 2003, p. 2).

Martin underlines the complexity of linkages between the inclusion of creative workshops, games of varying nature, and the more traditional outdoor activities, that when fostered within a safe environment culminate in the potential for personal and interpersonal development to be achieved (2003).

Figure 6.3 A holistic model of the key elements of the experiential education process.



(Martin, 2003, p. 266)

The development of models representing the Outward Bound process started with the early educational process (Walsh & Golins, 1976), where to a large extent the activities were relied upon to generate the desired effect. Next the metaphorical model (Bacon, 1987), promoted the use of metaphors to assist transference of the lesson at hand to situations in the daily lives of participants. Finally the active learning cycle (Sakofs & Armstrong, 1996) and Martin's (2003) holistic model, in which it is acknowledged that the process is one of a complex interplay of instructors and participants undergoing a range of activities within a unique environment, that result in highly individual outcomes.

The various process models offered reveal to a higher level of abstraction what are the major key processes that participants undergo on generic Outward Bound programmes. What they are not able to convey are how specific elements of such courses contribute to specific course objectives.

6.5 Key Elements in Outward Bound Programmes

While the Outward Bound process may at first appear to be complex in nature, there are key elements in the programmes that are common to most courses:

- Focus on personal and social values
- Intellectual and physical involvement
- Emotional commitment
- Social interaction
- Unity with the natural environment
- Activities that accommodate a range of learning styles: visual, auditory, and active
- Safe and supportive learning environment (Outward Bound New Zealand, 2003).

6.6 Outward Bound New Zealand

Outward Bound New Zealand is a not-for-profit charitable trust, with the core purpose of encouraging, promoting and facilitating the personal development of New Zealanders (Outward Bound New Zealand, 2003). Outward Bound was established in New Zealand in 1962 by Lord Cobham.

Outward Bound's main Campus is located at Anakiwa in the Marlborough Sounds. In addition to the main base there are also three satellite bases within close proximity to Anakiwa, that are used by various groups.

Since 1997 Outward Bound has offered a number of specific courses focused on unemployed participants, including the 26 day Catalyst programme and the 40 day Head Start programme, which have run either in part or fully within the Residential Motivational Training programme established by the Employment Service. Since the merger of Income Support and the Employment Service these courses have continued and were running bi-monthly at Outward Bound (at the time that this study was conducted).

6.7 Catalyst Courses

“Catalyst” is the name for the residential motivational training programme delivered for MSD clients at Outward Bound. The course is a 21-day multi activity course comprising 12 participants and two Outward Bound instructors. In addition to the Catalyst group, Outward Bound provides integrated places for Work and Income unemployed clients on an “as required” basis into their standard enrolment “Classic” courses (WINZ contract, 2003). The Outward Bound Catalyst course includes:

- General fitness
- Confidence building, conquering fear and responding to challenge
- Team problem-solving and group dynamics
- Planning, decision making and goal setting
- Communication skills and group discussions
- Improved job seeking skills, by transferring course learning to life situations.

Activities on all courses include (depending on weather and logistics):

- Bush hiking
- High ropes initiatives
- Rock climbing
- Sailing
- Kayaking
- Map and Compass
- Solo expedition
- First aid
- PT / Morning run and dip
- Marathon

General enrolment or “Classic” courses at Outward Bound are very similar to the Catalyst course: both are 21 days long for participants aged 18 - 26, comprise the similar activities and have the same guiding philosophies. The main difference is that the Catalyst course has only 12 participants as opposed to the Classic having 14. Also included in the Catalyst course are two reflection days which are not present in the Classic course. These days allow time for a discussion on future pathways, led by Outward Bound instructors.

Course components are delivered by two Outward Bound instructors who are assigned to the group, and are supported by other Outward Bound staff when extra expertise or greater instructor ratio is required or to cover instructors' days off.

6.7.1 Programme Outline

Week 1

Imposed discipline, (*dependence*)

Courses start with introductions to the staff and each other, and orientation to the school and surrounds, and combined with physical training activities. Students are given initiative tasks to help them get to know each other and to convey the expectations and values of Outward Bound. In the following few days students learn the basic skills needed to participate in the activities, concluding with their first overnight hiking expedition.

Week 2

Development of self and team (*interdependence*)

Combinations of activities such as hiking, rock climbing, high ropes, kayaking and solo are programmed for the group (and physical training continues).

Week 3

Self discipline and team membership (*independence*)

Final sailing and hiking expedition, culminating with a physically demanding half marathon, and leaving ceremony.

A more in-depth insight into the daily routine of the Catalyst programme is revealed in the Outward Bound results chapter.

6.7.2 Short Term Outcomes

The outcomes at three months post Catalyst course are approximately 60% gaining full time employment or full time study (during the 2005 – 2006 year), and 80% of participants who start the course complete the course. The number of early departures is four times more the number than on the general enrolment courses (Maxwell, 2005).

6.7.3 Early Departures

Early departures from Outward Bound can be grouped into four main categories. First, early departures due to “*other*” effects, including injury and illness, bereavement, fitness level and other events, are largely outside of Outward Bound’s control.

Secondly, for a participant to continue on the course requires that they successfully make the “*transition*” from their home environment to the new social environment and demands of the course. Beyond transition, persistence requires that the participant integrates themselves into the social system and the course system. Without such integration the third reason for early departures “*isolation*” can take place. For persistence to occur, every participant needs to form some kind of social connection with at least one other member of the new environment.

The final reason for early departures is “*incongruence*,” which is observed when a participant perceives differences between their goals and objectives and those of Outward Bound; early departures arise when the difference between the two sets of goals is perceived as unacceptable to the participant or by Outward Bound. Of significance with respect to the categories of isolation and incongruence, is the fact that the longer that a participant is enrolled before the course starts, the less likely it is that they will depart. This is thought to be due to the participant having a longer time to prepare both physically and mentally for the course. The duration of enrolment also appears to have an effect on the smoking variable that has

proven to be significant, in that smokers are more likely to depart than non-smokers, but the longer the enrolment period, the more likely a reduction in these early departures of smokers versus non smokers is observed (Maxwell et al., 2008).

6.7.4 Target Group

The target group for the Catalyst programme is Work and Income clients who are unemployed and are currently registered as seeking work with MSD. Clients chosen are those that are long-term unemployed or have been identified as at risk of long-term unemployment and who are disadvantaged in the labour market. Clients are 18 to 26 years old with the exception of two courses a year catering to clients aged over 26 years (which this study does not include). The average unemployment duration for participants was 13 weeks in 2006.

The demographics of a typical Outward Bound participant is Māori aged 19 years old. There are more males typically than females and participants were more likely to come from a lower social economic background and a single parent family. The typical participant was usually from the Bay of Plenty or Waikato region. The particular demographics of the two courses studied are presented in more detail in the Outward Bound results chapter.

6.7.5 Selection Process and Criteria

Each participant is required to undertake a medical examination by a medical practitioner, with final medical acceptance residing with the Outward Bound School Nurse (Figure 6.4). The minimum required fitness level is for each client to be able to run/speed walk 3.2 km in less than 25 minutes, to be drug and alcohol dependency free, willing to refrain from smoking while on the course and have no record of violent crime or sexual offences.

In addition to the above selection criteria, each client is interviewed by the Outward Bound Catalyst contract manager to ascertain suitability for selection to the programme. This interview is conducted over the telephone to determine if the client is acceptable to attend Outward Bound, and to increase the clients' awareness of the programme.

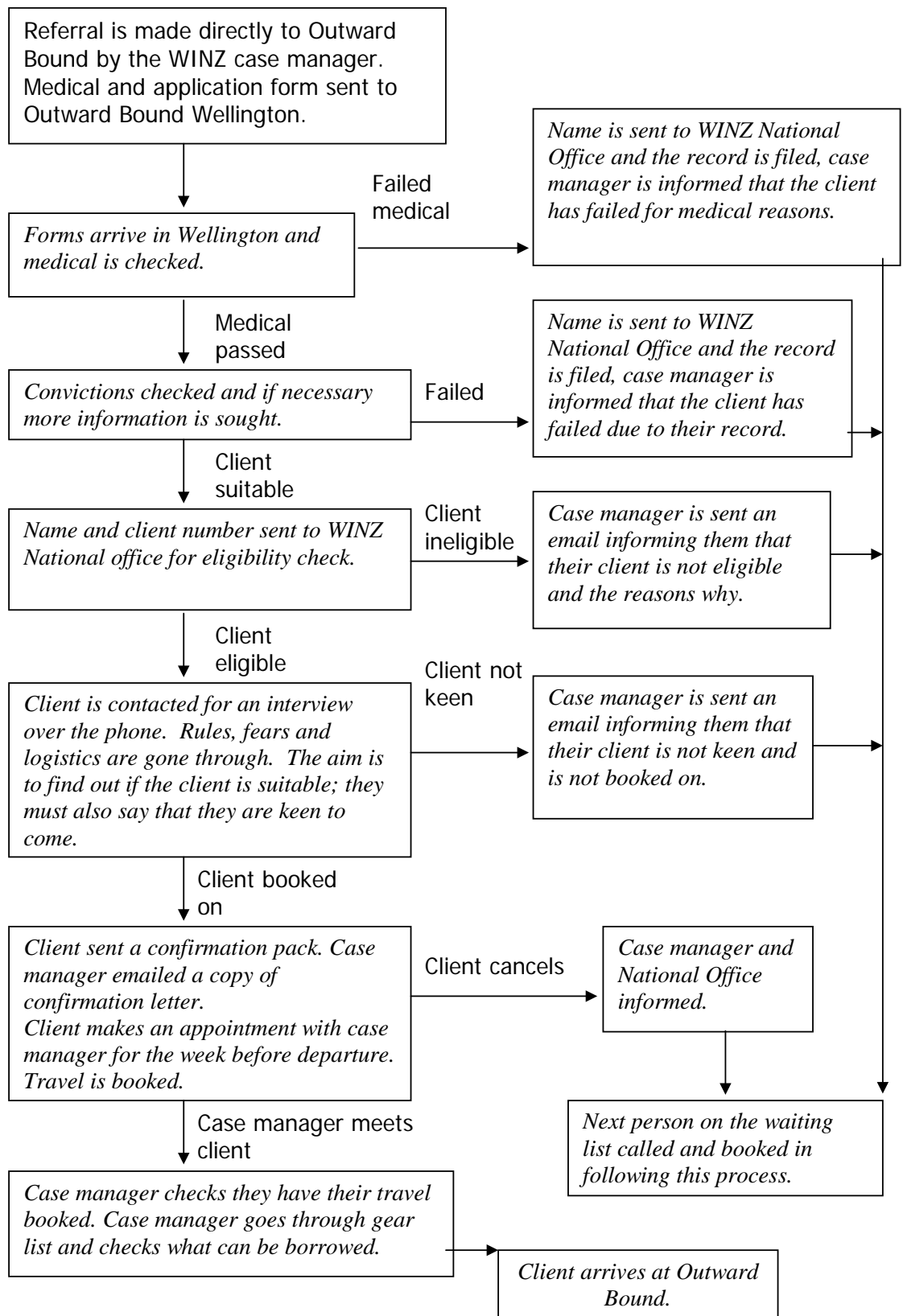
Some of the questions asked are outlined below, and depending on the responses given the interviewer will accept or decline the client to attend Outward Bound.

- Why do you want to attend Outward Bound?
- What do you know about Outward Bound? (Information is given about the programme to fill gaps in their knowledge)
- Are there any medical concerns you have?
- How do you know you can run 3.2 km in less than 25 minutes?
- Are you aware that the course is physically demanding?
- Are you prepared to give up: smoking, drugs, alcohol?
- Do you have any young children?
- Are there any questions you would like to ask?

If the client does not have a good reason to attend the course, or it appears that they have been pressured by their Case Manager then they will not be accepted to attend.

Figure 6.4 illustrates the referral pathway for a Catalyst student. It can be observed in the referral pathway that in order for a student to be accepted on a course they must be first referred by their case manager at Work and Income, obtain medical clearance, approved by MSD national office, interviewed and accepted by the Outward Bound Catalyst manager before final acceptance is granted. This process usually takes about two weeks to complete. In 2006, only 49% of those clients who have applied (or have been referred) were accepted to attend the Catalyst programme.

Figure 6.4 Referral pathway for Catalyst student.



Upon acceptance to the Catalyst course, travel arrangements are made by Outward Bound (paid by MSD) for each student. Each student is sent information packs on what they should expect and how to best prepare for the Catalyst course. To summarise: the selection process is an active management strategy by Outward Bound and MSD to reduce premature departures from the Catalyst course (Maxwell, 2005).

6.8 Conclusions

The Catalyst course at Outward Bound New Zealand is a course derived from an extensive history of Outward Bound delivering personal development programmes all over the world. Outward Bound is the leading organisation in the experiential education field, utilising outdoor education to deliver value-based programmes to a wide range of clients.

Long-term unemployed clients of Work and Income are individually selected to attend the Catalyst course which comprises a sequence of increasing challenges based primarily in the outdoors within a group environment. Activities are sequenced so that skills and physical fitness are increased in order to be able to achieve the next challenge. Participants are supported by their instructors and team mates, which combined with the successful achievement of challenging activities, has the effect of increasing participants' self concept.

Early departures from the Catalyst course have been identified in previous research (Maxwell et al., 2008) as being significant. Therefore, there is a rigorous selection process both from Outward Bound and MSD so that those selected to attend are most likely to complete and benefit from the Catalyst course.

Chapter 7 Outward Bound Results

7.1 Introduction

This chapter sets out the data and communicates the results collected from the two Outward Bound Catalyst courses. Descriptive, observational and means-end data is included, enabling results from the Outward Bound programme to be presented.

The data collection process is first discussed and the demographic characteristics of the students are presented. Next, the course observation section describes parts of the course, and is included in response to calls for researchers to better describe what happens during the adventure experience, to make the research more valid (Cason & Gillis, 1994; Hattie et al., 1997), and to facilitate linkages between actual course events and the results from the means-end data. This descriptive section follows from course start to course end, highlighting areas such as the focus of the course and instructor staff. These areas are not focused on in the means-end data analysis, but still considered worthy of note to enable the reader to better understand the Outward Bound experience.

The means-end data is presented next for the Outward Bound results. This chapter concludes by presenting the results shown to be most important from the course end data, and results are displayed by way of HVMs. Course observation data and links established within the literature are presented, capturing key insights into the Catalyst programme. The results discussed include physical training, participant interactions, activity de-briefs, and expeditioning, as well as the results from the students at six months post course. Lastly, the research method is discussed with respect to the results that are revealed in this chapter.

As with the LSV results chapter, findings directly related to the initial research questions are not specifically addressed in this chapter; both results are examined in chapter 8.

7.2 Data Collection

Observational and means-end data were collected from two Outward Bound Catalyst courses during this stage of the research. The first course started on April 29th, and ended on May 19th 2007, the second started on July 28th 2007 and ended on August 17th 2007. Permission to research this group was first sought from Trevor Taylor, Outward Bond CEO, and a formal agreement to research was signed (Appendix 11). Prior to the course commencing, discussions with the Catalyst course instructors and course manager were held to inform the staff of the research intentions, introduce the researcher, answer any questions/concerns they had, and ask their permission to research their group. The intention during data collection was to observe the courses as a non-participant and in a non-intrusive manner. Students were interviewed at the end of the course about their experiences and the outcomes that they perceived from the course activities.

The April intake consisted of 10 students, with one early departure on day three, and the remaining 9 students completing the course. The August intake consisted of 7 students, with one early departure on day 8 resulting in 6 students completing the course. The decision to collect data from two Outward Bound groups was made after the data was collected from the first group and initial means-end analysis revealed that due to the low numbers attending the first course, data from a second course should be collected to increase the numbers for the means-end data analysis. After analysis of the 9 students' means-end data from the first group, information was sought on the minimum numbers required for the means-end results to be meaningful. While no absolute figure was able to be established, 20 appeared to be the rule of thumb figure obtained (Reynolds & Olson, 2001), though numbers as low as 11 have been used in previous research (Huber et al., 2004), as already discussed in the literature review chapter. The Catalyst course can have up to 12 students attend and it was hoped that the second course would have sufficient numbers to bring up the total number of respondents closer to 20. Unfortunately low numbers on the second Catalyst course brought the total up to 15 sets of means-end data, observation of a third Catalyst course was considered.

After taking into account the difficulties of access to a third group as well as financial and time restraints, this was not possible.

During the course, the researcher talked to the students on an informal basis establishing a rapport with them, thus building honest and open relationships with the students which facilitated the data collection interviews at course end.

The means-end data collection process at LSV revealed that the long-term unemployed population group had a low literacy skill level; therefore student interviews were again conducted verbally, following the method discussed in the research design chapter. Upon conclusion of the course students were asked if they would like to participate in a follow up phone interview 6 months post course. All 15 students were interested and their contact phone numbers were collected.

Six months after the course finished, students were contacted by phone for the 6 month post course means-end data collection. The questioning was the same as for the initial means-end interviews. A total of 14 students (93% response rate) were successfully contacted and interviewed via telephone for this part of the study. The questioning was the same as for the initial means-end interviews. The high response rate was due to the fact that some of the students had kept in touch after their course. The researcher was therefore able to obtain updated contact details for those students who had changed phone numbers since the course ended.

7.3 Demographic Characteristics

Ages ranged from 18-26 years old with a mean of 20.9 years and standard deviation of 2.9. The gender split was 9 females, 6 males. The ethnicity of the students was made up of 7 Māori, 6 European and 2 Pacific Islanders. Students came from all over New Zealand.

7.4 Course Observation

Observation of course activities was undertaken and relevant interpretations of what was observed were recorded by taking notes in a field journal. These notes are from the researcher's own opinions, and were formulated through course observation, conversations with interested parties, including Outward Bound staff and students. The researcher's own experiences with the long-term unemployed, motivational interventions and outdoor education courses have also influenced these notes. It should be noted that the researcher has had an extensive prior relationship with Outward Bound⁷, which facilitated the access to the organisation and also meant that he was familiar with the course environment. The possibility of bias is acknowledged in the limitations section, presented in the literature review chapter.

Both courses were primarily based at the Deep Creek remote base, and it is at this base that the researcher performed the majority of the course observation. The expedition portions of the course were not directly observed, but upon return discussions with both instructors and students revealed insights into their experience. The data presented is from both courses observed unless stated; both courses followed the same programme outline, the same safety and activity delivery procedures were adopted, both courses had the same management structure and personnel. The two groups were very similar in make up in terms of

⁷ The researcher was employed at Outward Bound New Zealand from 2002-2004, managing the Catalyst contract, in the position of social sector manager. Prior Outward Bound employment starting in 1993 included instructing at Outward Bound Scotland, England, Zimbabwe and Canada; also management positions at Outward Bound Canada and Thailand.

the split between males and females, regional origins and ethnic makeup, both instructor pairings also consisted of one experienced lead instructor, one new to the Catalyst course and the same gender split.

The observation of both courses revealed that the groups were very similar, therefore the observation data is pooled as it was the judgment of the researcher that similar mechanisms were at play to produce the outcomes from both courses. Where contexts or mechanisms were observed to vary, for example in the hiking phase of the expedition, this is stated in the results. The means-end data was analysed separately for both groups, the outcomes were noted as being very similar, with the same course attributes, consequences and values mentioned by both groups. The means-end data was then combined, which was again compared to each individual course means-end outcomes and again the data was deemed by the researcher to be a true representation of the outcomes from each group. Placing the combined results of two separate groups within the realistic framework it is noted that this has only been able to be achieved due to the closeness of context and demographics of each group. The results are not presumed to be transferable to every Catalyst group attending Outward Bound as both context (such as weather, time of year, course focus) and demographics (such as number of students on the course, instructor pairing and the individual student personal attributes) will change from course to course.

The remaining course observation section structure loosely follows the Outward Bound programme in chronological order from course start to course end. Topics such as focus of the course and instructor staff are discussed in more depth, as they were considered able to provide the reader with a richer description of particular course aspects that are not discussed in the results section, but considered useful to enhance knowledge of the student experience on the Catalyst course. This section is not intended to be a complete account of what transpired on the course, but rather allow the reader to identify on some level with what the students experienced. Quotes from students and instructors are presented though pseudonyms have been used to protect identity. Links to relevant research is also established where required to highlight the point.

7.4.1 Course Start

All students were met at midday at the Picton ferry terminal by Outward Bound staff, who then accompanied the approximately 100 students⁸ on the 45 minute boat ride to the main base, Anakiwa. Upon arrival the students were officially welcomed onto the base with a powhiri,⁹ followed by a welcoming address by management. Soon after, the students were split into their specific groups and led off by their newly introduced instructor pairs. The Catalyst group is one of the groups that would spend the majority of the time at a satellite base away from the Anakiwa main base. The group spent a short time introducing each other, followed by ice breaker games before they were driven to the Deep Creek base via a 45 minute drive.

On arrival at the Deep Creek base the students received a tour of the premises. As it was close to dinner time the students were sent off to accomplish tasks such as preparing dinner, lighting the fire for heating and setting up the living quarters. After cleaning up from dinner, extended introductions were conducted, allowing each student and staff member to introduce themselves, say why they have come to the course and what they wanted to gain from the course.

On day two the students were woken at 7.30am which by Outward Bound standards is relatively late. The day started by introducing the students to the morning physical training routine of aerobics, push-ups, sit-ups followed by a 3km run and a dip in the river to cool down. Breakfast was prepared by the students, who by then had created a roster for the chores and cooking that had to be done throughout the course. The remainder of this day was spent focusing on team initiatives and teaching first aid. The use of the Deep Creek remote base facilitated the instructors to deliver a more customised programme to the students on the course. At the main base, Anakiwa, there is little flexibility of programme to allow instructors to influence the plan of events.

⁸ The 100 students consisted of 4 open enrolment groups, 3 corporate groups and one Catalyst group.

⁹ The powhiri is the traditional Māori ritual ceremony of encounter, used to welcome new people to a significant place.

It has been identified in other research that the transition from participants' home environment and the social integration into the group are significant factors with respect to students departing early from the Catalyst course (Maxwell et al., 2008). Consistent with this, the course start for the Catalyst group was observed to be delivered at a level appropriate for the unemployed population group, with lower initial physical demands placed on the group but still with immersion into the Outward Bound programme environment. The Catalyst course manager acknowledged that many of the Catalyst students' home environments are vastly different from that of Outward Bound, and this has led to a reduction in the physical demands of the course, and less emphasis on timing for the first few days of the course. Students were observed to readily transition into the course programme and the social environment; this could be observed by the high number of social interactions, i.e. students talking to each other and the fact that they did not communicate that they would rather be back at home. The researcher asked some students how different the course was compared to their home life and all that responded said that it was very different from what they experienced at home, and that they liked being on the course "I never got to do this kind of stuff before, it's good here, I like it," (Taylor)

Within the first three days of both observed courses one member of each group departed early. In both instances it was observed that the student and Outward Bound's expectations and goals were not congruent. Again this corroborates previous research showing that if there are differences in perceived programme goals and expectations and those of the participant, then persistence on such a programme is likely to be reduced (Maxwell et al., 2008; Tinto, 1993).

7.4.2 Focus of the Course

The Outward Bound New Zealand organisation delivers courses targeted at personal development for young New Zealanders. The stated primary objectives of all courses are: developing self awareness, confidence and motivation; increasing social awareness, team building and communication skills; concern for the environment and to experience and understand what it means to be of service (Outward Bound New Zealand, 2003). While the Catalyst course has had some modifications to cater for the long-term unemployed population group, the course objectives are very similar in nature to the open enrolment standard courses. It was observed that gaining employment post course was not a major focus of the course, and the instructors rarely talked about employment as a course outcome.

Research indicates that courses designed for special population groups should integrate specific theories, knowledge and tasks related to that population group into the course delivery (Bacon, 1987). There were a number of opportunities to talk about post course employment that were not taken up; one example was the “Life Run” activity on day 11, that focused on motivational stories on how to live a good life. This life run activity session could have been an opportunity for the instructors to focus more on work outcomes for the students. On the day 10 reflection/solo de-brief, students shared their goals with the whole group. They used the ‘SMART’ (Specific, Measurable, Action, Realistic, and Time bound) framework to state their goals; by far the majority of the goals involved physical fitness. For example, a student on the second course stated that he wanted to reduce his morning run time by 2 minis by the end of the course; another student on that course stated that she wanted to be fitter at course end so she could resume playing netball on return home. The goal setting session could also have been directed towards post course employment goals. Throughout the course there were no concrete lessons aimed at specifically increasing students’ skills to secure employment, for example interview skills and presentation skills. The instructors did not connect activities to future employment, or facilitate de-briefing sessions to specifically transfer skills learnt on the course to future employment. Discussions with instructors and management staff revealed that the reason that

there was limited direct reference to post course employment was that the instructors had no training in this area, and that they felt that “typical” Outward Bound course outcomes would stand the students in good stead to secure employment.

7.4.3 Instructor Staff

Each group had two instructors assigned to them throughout the course; there was a lead instructor who had previously worked with a Catalyst group and a newer instructor who had not worked with this population, and thus was in the process of being mentored in the delivery of the Catalyst course. The instructors were relieved by other instructors to enable them to have days off when necessary, as well as another instructor joining in on activities such as kayaking to meet the instructor student safety ratio when required.

None of the instructors involved in delivering the course was specifically employed to instruct the long-term unemployed population group. Due to Outward Bound only conducting 5 or 6 Catalyst courses a year, there is limited opportunity for instructors to become expert at delivering these courses. There is no inter-industry collaboration or training on how to deliver motivational intervention for the long-term unemployed, and, as such, each organisation exists in somewhat of a vacuum, reliant on internal development of their programme.

Research indicates that outdoor education should be a facilitated experience, and the more contact that instructors have with the group, the better they will understand the experience that the students are going through, and thus better facilitate that experience (Boshier, 1941; Phipps & Claxton, 1997). The two main instructors appeared to form connections quickly with the group; there were many social conversations between instructors and students and due to the nature of the remote base camp it was apparent to the researcher that the instructor interactions were stronger than would have been the case if the course was held at the main base. Instructor contact with their group is lower for courses run on the main base, due to some activities such as the morning physical training sessions and course

introductions being facilitated by non group instructors. Also at the main base instructors typically do not eat with their group, and there is also a night supervisor who looks after the group once the instructors go home for the evening. At the remote base the instructors eat with the group, sleep on site and are responsible for delivering the majority of the course activities.

The group was observed to be welcoming of outsiders interacting with them; it was observed that whenever staff or relief instructors visited or joined the group, they were greeted by most of the group and asked questions about how they were, and what they were doing etc, and this was also the case for the researcher's presence.

7.4.4 Course End

The final part of the course was observed to be a very busy time as they tried to fit in a number of activities in a short amount of time. The group stayed at the Anakiwa base on the evening of day 17, they cleaned and packed away their expedition gear that night and the following morning, while also participating in the daily routine of the main base. Rock climbing was conducted on day 18 at the main base; the time spent on this activity was enough that every student who wanted to, completed one, two or three climbs; rappelling was not included due to limited time. After rock climbing the group had to pack up and depart on the drive to the Deep Creek base, therefore the de-briefing of the rock climbing activity was delayed until after dinner that night. After dinner a de-briefing session was conducted that included the expedition and the rock climbing activities. As both de-briefing sessions were conducted well after the activities were completed, the de-briefing session was more a review of what actually happened than an active discussion on what was learned from the activities and how any learning could be applied to future events (this area will be discussed further in section 7.6.4).

Day 19 was programmed to be a reflection day, enabling students to reflect on their experience and also plan for the future. This day had a number of other tasks that had to be completed as well, including cleaning up the base camp, cleaning gear,

completing letters, and interviews. As a result of the large number of activities that needed completion there was only limited time available to complete the reflection activity.

A 21km run started the penultimate day. This activity was designed as a test of how much the students had increased their physical fitness and determination to complete the run. Prior research indicates that at the end of intensive group experiences, participants experience post-group euphoria (Marsh et al., 1986). During this closing stage of the course the students were observed to be feeling elation at the completion of the Outward Bound experience with many positive comments made by students such as “I can’t wait to get home and tell my family about all the awesome stuff I’ve done here, they won’t believe that I did here... it’s been awesome,” (Robert). The course end programme was designed for students to achieve and celebrate their achievements, more time was made available for students to interact with each other, celebratory events held including being well fed, which added to the students’ positive feelings.

7.5 Means-end Data

The means-end data is presented in three parts; first the numbers of ladders completed by the students are presented, revealing how many ladders were collected from the interview stage. The frequency of the content codes is presented next, displaying which attributes, consequences and values were most mentioned by the students. Finally after the means-end data was analysed using implication matrices, the results are presented visually, in the form of HVMs.

7.5.1 Ladders Completed by Students

The number of ladders completed by the 15 Outward Bound students at course end ranged from 2 to 7, with most (73.3%) providing 3 ladders (Table 7.1), and producing a total of 51 ladders. The number of ladders obtained from each student was similar to previous means-end data collection in the outdoor education field (Goldenberg, 2002; Goldenberg et al., 2000). The 6 month post course data from the 14 respondents produced 54 ladders, ranging from 3 to 5 ladders per respondent with most (57.1%) respondents producing 4 ladders each.

Table 7.1 Number of ladders completed by Outward Bound respondents at course end.

Number of ladders	Frequency (n=9)	Percent (100%)
2	1	6.7
3	11	73.3
4	1	6.7
5	1	6.7
6	0	0.0
7	1	6.7

7.5.2 Frequency of Content Codes

Course end data produced a total of 34 content codes, comprising 14 attributes, 10 consequences and 10 values as shown in Table 7.2. Of the attributes that were mentioned, *interactions* was listed most frequently (7.7%), followed by *expeditioning* (5.5%), *physical training* (5.5%), and *activity de-briefs* (3.3%). It is these four most frequently mentioned attributes that will be further analysed in the results section. The consequences mentioned most often were *personal growth/challenges* (8.8%) followed by *knowledge/awareness* (4.6%), *physical fitness* (3.4%) and *relationships with others* (3.3%). Of the values mentioned *self-confidence/esteem* (9.4%) had the highest frequency count followed by *self-awareness/improvement* (5.0%), *sense of belonging* (3.9%) and *transference in general* (3.9%). Whilst this study is phenomenological in nature and as such typically does not deal with percentages, frequencies have been presented here in percentages due to the convention of previous means-end studies.

Table 7.2 Frequency of content codes in Outward Bound respondents' ladders.

Attributes	Frequency concept Mentioned	Percent of total Concepts mentioned
Interactions	14	7.7
Expeditioning	10	5.5
Physical training	10	5.5
Activity de-briefs	6	3.3
Water Activities	5	2.8
Course overall	4	2.2
Lessons	4	2.2
New experiences	4	2.2
Rock climbing	4	2.2
Instruction	3	1.7
Solo	3	1.7
Teamwork	3	1.7
Time management	3	1.7
Leadership opportunities	1	0.6
Consequences		
Personal growth/Challenges	16	8.8
Knowledge/Awareness	10	5.5
Physical fitness	7	3.9
Relationships with others	7	3.9
Determination	4	2.2
Achievement	3	1.7
Teamwork	3	1.7
Efficiency	1	0.6
Goal setting	1	0.6
Job skills	1	0.6
Values		
Self-confidence/esteem	17	9.4
Self-awareness/improvement	9	5.0
Sense of belonging	7	3.9
Transference in general	7	3.9
Warm relationships with others	4	2.2
Achievement of a personal goal/value	3	1.7
Sense of accomplishment	3	1.7
Transference to work	2	1.1
Fun and enjoyment of life	1	0.6
Self-reliance	1	0.6
TOTAL	181	100%

Six month follow up data produced a total of 31 content codes from the interviews, comprising 14 attributes, 8 consequences and 9 values mentioned by the students at 6 months post course (Table 7.3). The attributes listed most often by students were *physical training* (6.2%), *interactions* (5.2%), *course overall* (4.8%) and *expeditioning* (4.3%). The consequences most often mentioned were *personal growth and challenges* (6.7%), *relationships with others* (6.2%), *physical fitness* (4.8%) followed by *knowledge and awareness* (4.3%). Finally, of the nine values identified *self confidence and esteem* (10%) topped the list followed by *self-awareness and improvement* (6.2%).

Table 7.3 Frequency of content codes in Outward Bound respondents' means-end chains: 6 months post course.

Attributes	Frequency Concept Mentioned	Percent of Total Concepts Mentioned
Physical Training	13	6.2
Interactions	11	5.2
Course overall	10	4.8
Expeditioning	9	4.3
Teamwork	8	3.8
Time management	7	3.3
Lessons	6	2.9
Instruction	6	2.9
New experiences	4	1.9
Activity de-briefs	2	1.0
Water Activities	2	1.0
Rock climbing	1	0.5
Solo	1	0.5
Leadership opportunities	1	0.5
Consequences		
Personal growth/Challenges	14	6.7
Relationships with others	13	6.2
Physical fitness	10	4.8
Knowledge/Awareness	9	4.3
Determination	6	2.9
Efficient	5	2.4
Teamwork	4	1.9
Achievement	3	1.4
Values		
Self-confidence/esteem	21	10.0
Self-awareness/improvement	13	6.2
Sense of belonging	6	2.9
Transference	6	2.9
Fun and enjoyment of life	6	2.9
Warm relationships with others	4	1.9
Transference to work	4	1.9
Achievement of a personal goal/value	3	1.4
Self Respect	2	1.0
TOTAL	210	100%

7.5.3 Means-end Associations

From the data an implication matrix was produced listing the means-end associations between concepts, for all Outward Bound students and all course components at course end. The entries in the implication matrix indicate the number of times a concept was either directly or indirectly associated to each of the other concepts, and is the basis for constructing the HVMs (Klenosky et al., 1993). Further implication matrices were compiled enabling HVMs for individual course components to be produced.

7.6 Results

Results from the means-end data and the course observation are presented by first defining the section heading and scope, followed by the visual representation of the means-end data and subsequent analysis; course observation data is introduced to support or highlight areas of note, each section is connected to relevant literature and where appropriate is summarised by placing the results in a realistic perspective of outcome, mechanism and context. This follows the same procedure as the LSV results.

For clarity, all the HVMs utilised a cut off level that enabled the illustrations to be uncluttered and as readable as possible without losing meaning. Table 7.4 summarises the cut off levels for the HVMs produced from the means-end data including all respondents at course end, the course components, interactions, expeditioning, physical training and activity de-briefs, as well as the HVM for the respondents at 6 months post course. Due to the number of respondents at Outward Bound, HVMs for the subgroups of gender, ethnicity, and age were not produced, as the HVMs produced would have insufficient numbers to draw meaningful conclusions.

Table 7.4 Summary of the cut off level for the Outward Bound HVMs.

	HVM	Cut off level
Figure 7.1	All respondents	3
Figure 7.2	Interaction component	2
Figure 7.3	Expeditioning component	2
Figure 7.4	Physical training component	2
Figure 7.5	Activity de-brief component	2
Figure 7.6	6 month post course	2

7.6.1 All Students at Course End

Figure 7.1 summarises the means-end results obtained from all 15 Outward Bound students at course end. This HVM includes all the course activities that the students had experienced on the course up until they were interviewed, thus it did not include the last evening events or the departure ceremony. The HVM includes all the attributes, consequences and values that remained using the cut off level of three.

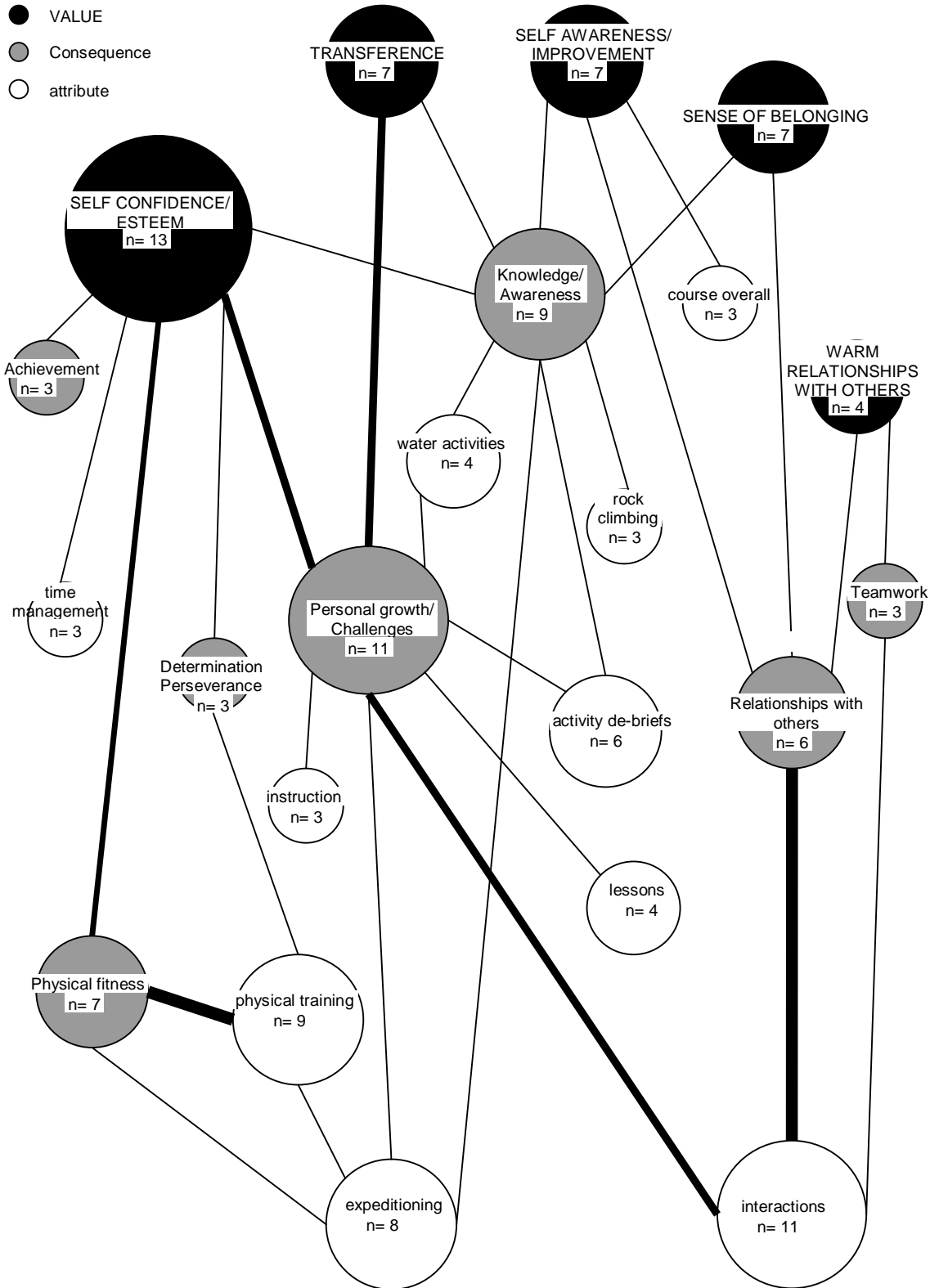


Figure 7.1 Hierarchical value map for Outward Bound course students: All respondents (n = 15).

It can be observed in Figure 7.1 that the predominant attributes/course components are interactions, physical training, expeditioning and activity de-briefs. Other notable course components included water activities, instruction, rock climbing, course overall, time management and lessons. The consequences/outcomes that were mentioned most frequently were personal growth/challenges and knowledge/awareness. Other represented outcomes were relationships with others, physical fitness, teamwork and determination/perseverance. The value most often mentioned was self confidence/esteem. Additional values included transference in general, self awareness/improvement, sense of belonging and warm relationships with others.

Course observation also revealed that student interactions and physical training were important course components that had an effect on the outcomes from the course. This was obtained from listening to the comments of students at course end such as “it [course] was great, I really enjoyed the morning run and dip... the people I met here have become really important to me,” (Sue) and “I feel really close to you [the group and instructors] after such a short time, I hope I can keep in contact with all of you,” (Fran). Upon course completion, it was observed that all the students were feeling increased levels of self confidence, self esteem and a strong sense of belonging within the group. Student comments upon departure from Outward Bound included “the course was awesome, I feel so fit and happy... I didn’t think I would enjoy the course as much as I did, I feel like part of a new family,” (Jacqui) and “Sometimes the days were really hard and I wanted to go home... but now I’m glad that I have done it [the course] and know that I can do whatever I set my mind to,” (Steven). The researcher could also observe the mannerisms of the students change over time; on arrival students were reserved and somewhat distant, and by the end of the course most were confident when approached by someone new outside of their group. Results displayed in the HVM are consistent with what was observed on both courses by the researcher.

The course components that did not show up as being important in either the means-end data or from course observation include the so-called high adventure activities such as rock climbing, the high ropes course and kayaking. Research indicates that high adventure activities are associated with outcomes such as

engendering participant growth (Marsh et al., 1986). Research also indicates that it is not performing the activity that is responsible for outcomes, but the qualities such as challenge and mastery that are more important with respect to producing outcomes (Luckner & Nadler, 1997; McKenzie, 2000b; Walsh & Golins, 1976). The consequences of personal growth and challenge that have shown up as important in the HVM (Figure 7.1) could be seen as similar to challenge and mastery as stated above. However, there is little indication that the high adventure activities were an important precursor to such consequences. The results presented here indicate that on the Catalyst course, high adventure activities were not important in shaping outcomes for the students observed.

The HVM for all respondents illustrates a summary of all the students' responses, allowing conclusions to be drawn on individual course aspects and chains of attributes, consequences and values. The course components, physical training, participant interactions, activity de-briefs and the expedition, have been identified as being most important on the HVM for all students and as such are next discussed in further detail.

7.6.2 Physical Training

On both Outward Bound courses, physical training was an important aspect of the course. When at base the daily routine incorporated a daily physical training component, and when appropriate on activities conducted away from the base camp, some kind of physical activity was incorporated into the day's routine.

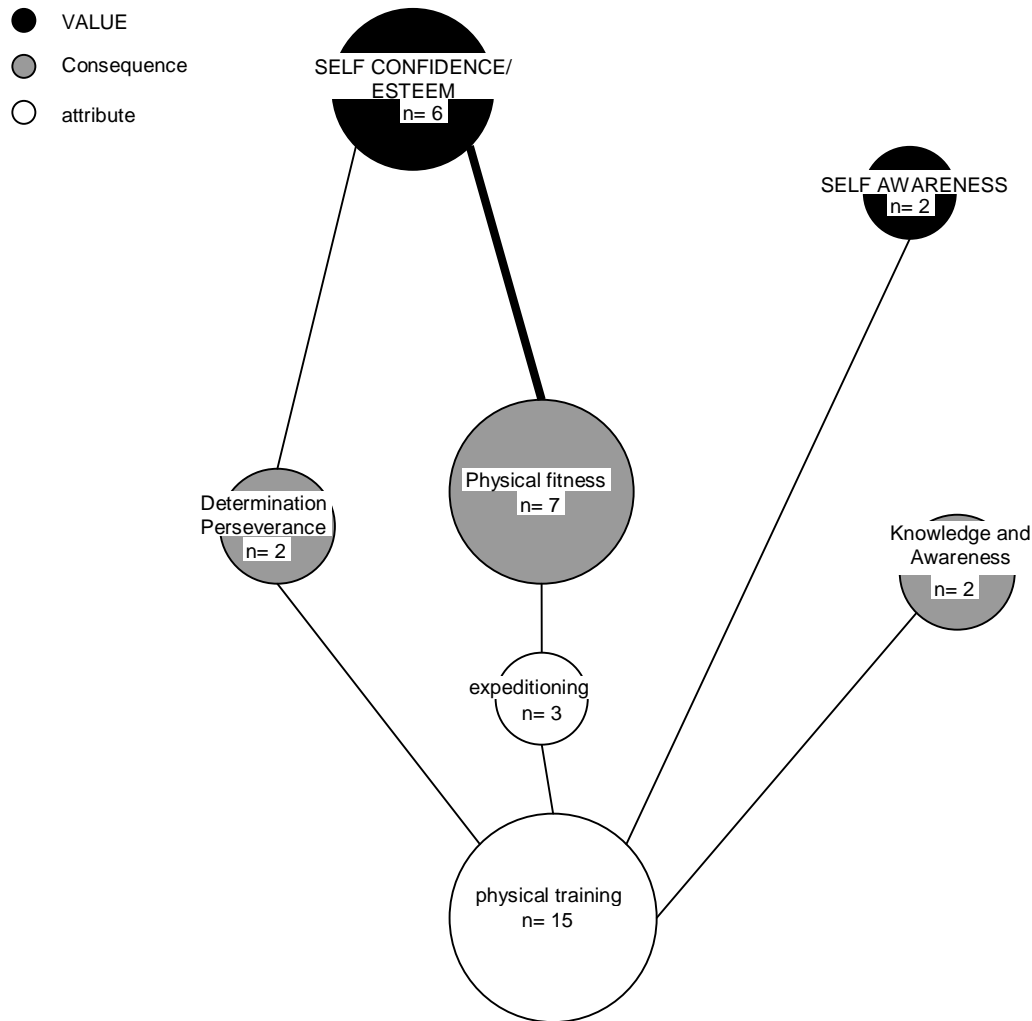


Figure 7.2 Hierarchical value map for Outward Bound course component: Physical training (n=15).

As would be expected, in the HVM for physical training shown in Figure 7.2, the most frequently mentioned concept was the consequence physical fitness. Other consequences include determination/perseverance and knowledge and awareness. The values associated with physical training are self confidence/esteem and self awareness/improvement. It can be observed by the boldness of the link that there is a strong connection between physical fitness and self confidence/esteem.

Physical training is also linked to the expeditioning activity, indicating that the physical training aspect from the hiking component of the expedition was an important factor for the students, this will be discussed in section 7.6.5.

Observation of the students participating in the physical training aspects of the course revealed that the majority really pushed themselves on the physical challenges, in that upon completion they showed signs of physical exertion. Many discussed how they wanted to increase their physical fitness during the course, so that at the end they would be considerably more fit than when they started the course, “When I get home I’m going to be able to play with my kids more... now that I have got fitter and stopped smoking,” (Iteria). The students talked about continuing with physical training upon returning home after the course, as they enjoyed feeling more physically fit, for example Fran commented that “Now that I have got my fitness back I will start playing netball again [upon return home]” and “I’m going to keep up the fitness routine every day back home,” (Frank).

Both groups were similar in that the majority of students conveyed at the course start that they did not partake in regular exercise, and that they had not since leaving high school. The instructors talked to the students about how it “was up to them how hard they pushed themselves... [but] you only get out of this course what you are prepared to put into it,” (Martin). Students were encouraged by the instructors and each other to do their best on all course aspects including the physical training; for example at the end of the morning run students would wait for each other, encouraging other students by clapping and cheering them to the end. In both groups there were a couple of students who conveyed that they did not usually enjoy physical exercise and that they would not chose to do it if they had the choice, these students were observed to partake fully in the physical training and indicated in their means-end interview that they thought physical training was an important outcome for them. It was apparent to the researcher that the variety of physical training activities and the incorporation of fun delivery mechanisms were important to enable the students to enjoy this aspect of the course, rather than having two groups of students who happened to enjoy physical training.

The enjoyment that the students received at the completion of the physical training aspects of the course outwardly showed as they built their esteem and boosted their confidence to complete future physical challenges. On the occasion when a student became injured, forcing them to stop physical training, they would be

disappointed at missing out on that aspect of the course and would find ways to participate on some level. For example, after the expedition, Pete had severe blisters on one foot which stopped him from running; rather than not participate at all he completed a short fast walk, followed by push ups and sit ups for the entire time that the remaining group members completed the morning run, and then joined them for the post run dip. Determination and perseverance were also observed, in that students would strive to complete the physical training activities on the course to the best of their ability.

Research indicates that “while the physical nature of the outdoor activities is a part of the program, physical fitness and physical skills are not the primary goals” (Hattie et al., 1997, p. 45). Little research has been completed on the effects of the physical training aspect of outdoor education programmes, but research has focused on the outcomes of physically challenging activities. Marsh and Peart’s (1988) research on the effects of physical training on outdoor education programmes reveals that physical ability self-concept at course end is low, while actual physical fitness has increased. Marsh and Peart (1988) also suggest that there are differences in competitive and cooperative physical training programmes, that a more cooperative programme results in better self-concept outcomes. Research indicates that there is also a time lag effect of increases in self-concept; this may occur upon returning to students’ home environments where they can compare increases in their physical fitness with people who did not complete the same programme (Hattie et al., 1997). This was not observed in this case, nor did the results of the means-end data reveal this outcome for this population group.

Hattie et al. suggest that there is need for further research on the outcomes of physical fitness, as it is an important aspect of outdoor adventure education programmes (1997). Much research has been compiled on the benefits of physical fitness including helping people feel better about themselves through improved physical self-perceptions, improved self-esteem and decreased physiological reactions to stress (Department of Health, 2004). Physical health is also improved by reducing coronary heart disease, Type II diabetes, hypertension, obesity, colon cancer and fostering healthy muscles and bones (CDC, 1996; DCMS., 2002).

Research shows that exercise in the natural outdoor environment or “green exercise” (Pretty et al., 2003) produces significantly greater positive effects on self-esteem than exercise alone, for example in a gym or urban environment (Pretty, Peacock, Sellens, & Griffin, 2005).

The effects of green exercise have not been discussed a great deal in the outdoor education literature to date; this may be because there are only relatively few outdoor education programmes (including Outward Bound schools) that still include a rigorous specific physical training component in their courses. Outdoor education programmes do incorporate physically challenging activities such as rock climbing, hiking, skiing, kayaking etc, that increase students’ physical fitness, but there are relatively few Outward Bound schools that still incorporate regular physical training sessions in their programme.

Placing the results into a realistic framework reveals that both the observation and means-end data indicate that physical training is an important attribute for the Outward Bound students, and in turn had the consequences of increasing students’ physical fitness, determination and perseverance. The most important end value is the increase of students’ self confidence and self esteem. The context that enabled such outcomes to occur was the non-conventional physical training based in the natural outdoor environment, within a small positive group. Relevant literature and course observation indicate that the mechanism at work was that the students engaged in physical training in a context that enabled them to set and strive toward individual goals.

7.6.3 Participant Interactions

Participant interactions (or ‘interactions’) included informal interactions between students, student and instructor, and between students and other people that they encountered while on the course. Examples of times when students were able to interact with one another on an informal basis include meal times, breaks between activities, time on transport between bases or activities, and time spent in their

bunk house or tent during the evening. Participant interactions also include inter group interactions during activities and also include group conflict.

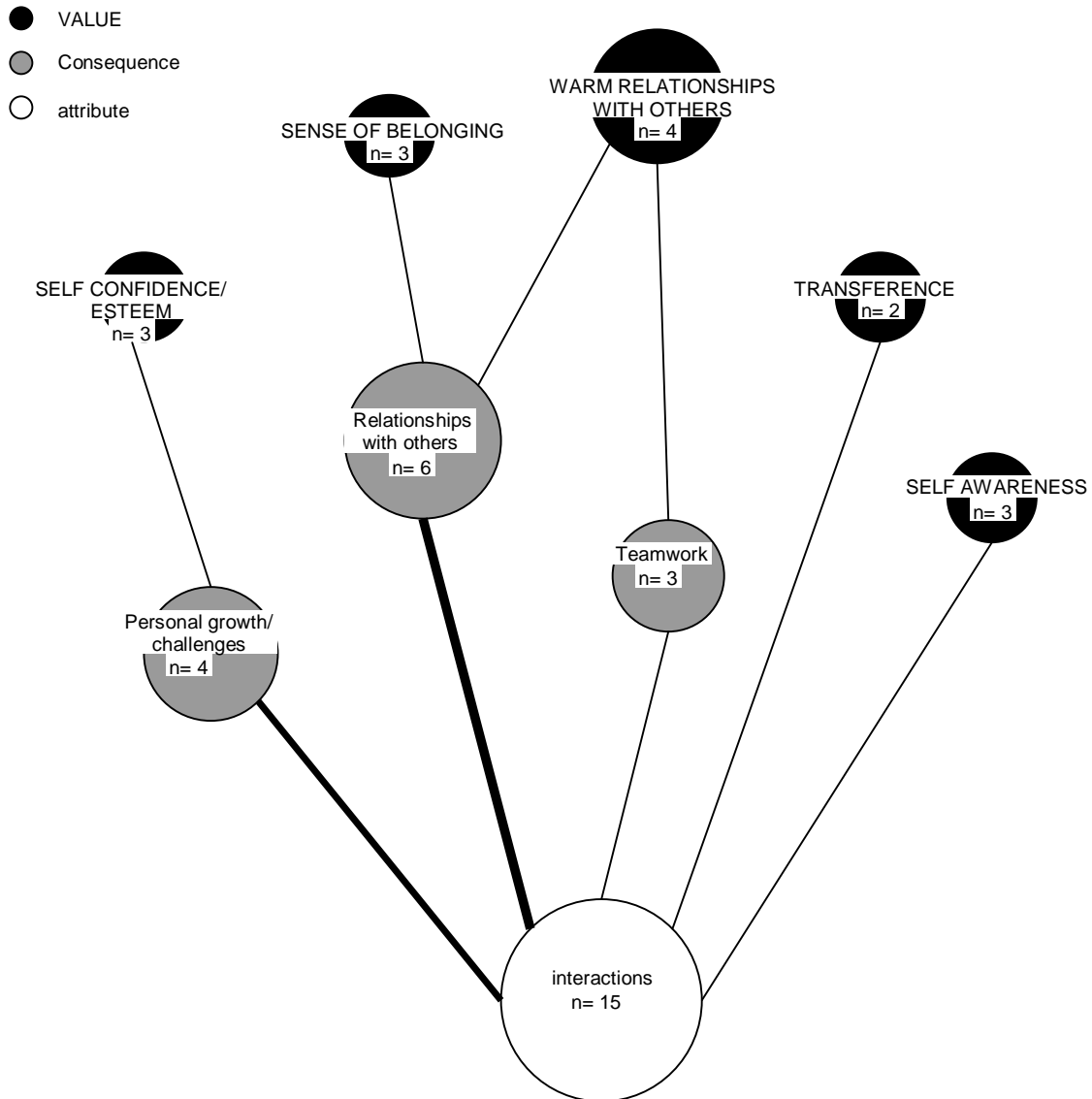


Figure 7.3 Hierarchical value map for Outward Bound course component: Interactions (n=15).

The HVM for participant interactions (Figure 7.3), indicates that the most often mentioned consequence is relationships with others, followed by personal growth/challenges and teamwork. The values associated with interactions include warm relationships with others, a sense of belonging, self confidence/esteem and self awareness.

Both of the groups observed were a relatively small size (9 and 6 students after the initial few days of course), compared with the majority of Outward Bound New Zealand courses that consist of between 12 and 14 students. The small group size along with the lack of contact with other people due to the remote location, had the effect of assisting the social interactions between group members. At the main base meal times were observed to be more restrained and while talking was allowed the noise level was managed due to many groups sharing the single dining hall; the noise level could easily escalate. Also instructors did not eat with their groups at the main base. Neither group observed appeared to form into smaller subgroups, which can happen in larger group sizes. The small number of students facilitated the ability of students to get to know all of their fellow course members; this was observed by all students communicating freely with each other. The groups observed appeared to quickly form close relationships with one another. This created a supportive atmosphere and a sense of belonging within the group. This was observed particularly at meal times, when students had assigned duties to prepare meals and whilst doing this other students would go to the kitchen and talk to each other in a relaxed manner about what they had done that day or home life etc. There was an almost family feel to both groups; at the same time they were also very open and welcoming to people outside their group to join them in whatever they were doing. This was also most evident at meal times; newcomers were always asked to share a meal with the group, the conversation flowed between students and instructors and much laughing was heard.

The instructors were observed by the researcher to be very important in maintaining norms, for example limiting the use of negative and profane language; promoting interactions and structuring interdependence, for example by selecting small groups who may not usually interact with each other to work together to accomplish an activity; this is also supported by previous research (Anderson et al., 1994). The HVM data for all students at course end and 6 months post course indicated that the instructors were only a small contributing factor for the students and on the HVM for interactions, instruction did not show up at all. The low incidence of instruction showing up in the HVM data could be explained by the low key approach that the instructors had; meaning that while they did give

instruction on what was expected and how to achieve each activity, they also stepped back, allowing the group to complete the assigned activity by themselves.

The outcomes from the means-end data and the course observation highlight the importance of the social interactions that occurred on the course. Outcomes of fostering warm relationships with others and a sense of belonging on outdoor education programmes is supported by prior research (Kimball & Bacon, 1993; Witman, 1995). The contexts that enabled these outcomes were the small group size and the autonomous group circumstance due to being based in a remote location. The mechanisms at work to produce positive outcomes were the ability of the instructors to facilitate interactions and provide structure and maintain norms, so that the group members quickly bonded and formed positive and supportive relationships with one another.

7.6.4 Activity De-briefs

Activity de-briefs occurred after most activities, and were facilitated by either one or both instructors at some time after the activity. The de-briefing session usually was a case of the group gathering together after an activity and then one of the instructors asking each of the students in turn to answer one or two questions on the activity they had just completed. Typical questions were ‘what was the highlight of the activity?’ or ‘what have you learned from that activity?’ or ‘how do you feel now you have completed that activity?’ students would then in turn verbalise their answers to the group, which were usually short and to the point. When time was short after an activity, the de-brief was postponed until there was time in the programme to go back and de-brief the activity; this time was usually after the evening meal cleanup was completed. During these evening de-brief sessions there was usually more dialogue around the activity as there was more time available and also it was conducted in a more comfortable setting.

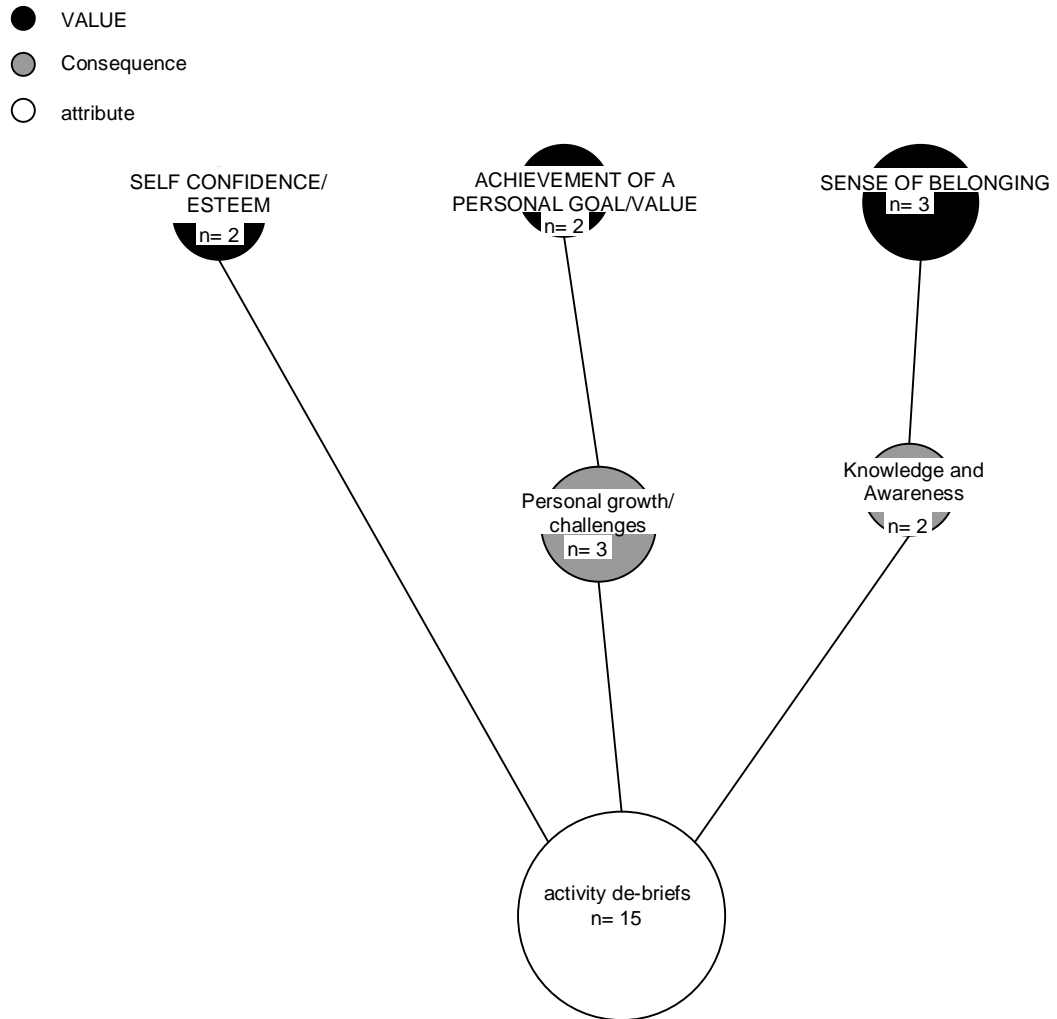


Figure 7.4 Hierarchical value map for Outward Bound course component: Activity de-briefs (n=15).

The HVM shown in Figure 7.4 reveals that personal growth/challenges and knowledge and awareness are the consequences associated with the activity de-briefs. The resulting values are a sense of belonging, achievement of a personal goal/value and self confidence/esteem.

Observation of the activity de-briefs revealed that the model followed was close to the second generation of facilitation, as put forward by Priest and Gass (1997). The second generation of facilitation is when the instructor takes on a facilitation role to direct the discussion to make links between the activity completed, and the student's daily life. The second model is thought to be more beneficial to participants on an experiential education programme than the first model, which is

when the participants are responsible for reflecting on the experience for themselves (Priest & Gass, 1997). The third model or the 'metaphoric' model is the next model in the progression which is thought to be the most effective facilitation model (Bacon, 1987). The third model involves the instructors consciously framing activities and de-briefing sessions to represent metaphors, focusing on challenges in participants' daily lives (Bacon, 1987).

When de-briefing was not conducted immediately after the activity, the effect appeared to be that by the time the de-briefing session was conducted, memory of what took place was limited, as well as lowered intensity of feelings that occurred on the activity. This was observed by students' responses being less detailed and less discussion eventuating than when it was conducted immediately after activities. An example is that the sailing portion of the expedition was rarely mentioned in the expedition de-brief, which was held three days after sailing was completed.

Research shows that timely and appropriate de-briefing is an important aspect of experiential education, enabling participants to internalise meaning from activities, and therefore help shape programme outcomes (Luckner & Nadler, 1997; Phipps, 1988). While little research has been conducted into the effects of using different facilitation models on the outcomes of experiential education programmes (McKenzie, 2000b), it was observed that the de-briefing sessions were typical of standard enrolment courses at Outward Bound New Zealand; this was supported in discussions had with the Catalyst course manager. This is supported by the means-end results indicating that the important end values were a sense of belonging, achievement of a personal goal/value and self confidence/esteem; and not transference to work as would be expected if the de-briefing focused on the aim of the course, post course employment. Research indicates that participants need assistance in providing linkages between what has been learned on experiential education courses, back into their home environment so as not to lose the value of such lessons (Gass, 1990; Miller, 2001).

Placing the results into a realistic framework of context, mechanism and outcome, reveals that the outcomes from the de-briefing aspect of the course were similar in

nature to that of standard enrolment courses. The mechanism at work was the use of the second generation model to conduct the de-briefing. The context that the activity de-briefs were conducted in was either immediately after the activity or at a convenient time after the associated activity.

7.6.5 Expedition

Mid course saw the start of the expedition phase of the course; this was a culmination of the skills that the students had learned to date. The expedition started with three days sailing on the Queen Charlotte Sound, the entire group sailed one of the school's sailing cutters. The cutter was gaff rigged without fixed winches, deliberately to require all students to be occupied in the sailing of the yacht. The cutter was also equipped with oars, to row the boat when there was insufficient wind to enable the sails to be set. Instruction on how to handle the yacht was given on day one, with one instructor on board, and the other instructor following close behind in the safety vessel. On days two and three both instructors stayed on the safety boat, keeping an eye on the students who were able to sail the cutter on their own. The three days sailing were followed by three days hiking; throughout the expedition the students camped out for the entire time. The two groups took different routes in the hiking phase of the expedition, with one group hiking the Queen Charlotte Walkway which is a well marked popular trail; the other group hiked on unmarked hills covered in native bush. During the final hiking phase of the expedition the group was "shadowed" by one of the instructors, meaning that the instructor was within sight of the group for safety reasons, but essentially the group travelled under their own direction. Both groups were fortunate in that they experienced good weather for the majority of the expedition phase of their courses.

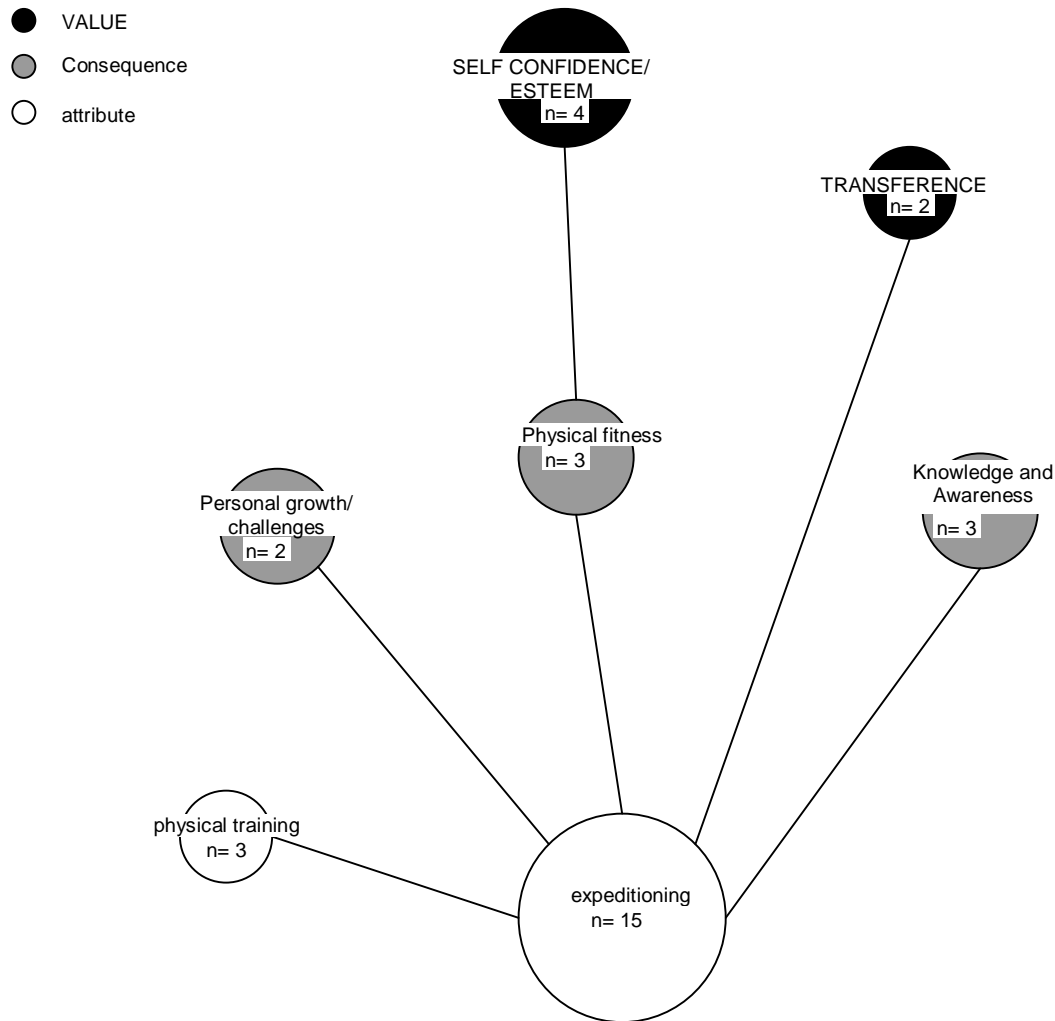


Figure 7.5 Hierarchical value map for Outward Bound course component: Expeditioning (n=15).

Physical fitness, knowledge and awareness as well as personal growth/challenges were the consequences resulting from the expeditioning component of the course (Figure 7.5). Physical fitness leads to the end value of self confidence/esteem; the other value linked to expeditioning is transference in general.

It has been observed in prior research that the aesthetic and spiritual qualities of the wilderness environment, such as experienced in the expedition phase of courses are considered to facilitate participant outcomes (Driver, Nash, & Hass, 1987; Hattie et al., 1997); also that environmental education and nature awareness are benefits from outdoor education programmes (Ewert, 1983, 1989; Hattie et al., 1997; Paxton & McAvoy, 2000). Goldenberg's means-end investigation into

general enrolment Outward Bound programmes revealed that nature appreciation showed up as a minor consequence of the expeditioning component of the course (Goldenberg, 2002).

In contrast to previous research, concern and appreciation for the natural environment is missing from the HVM and course observation data. The expedition for both groups was conducted in a very appealing natural environment. Sailing on the Queen Charlotte Sound is a sought after recreation destination, due to its natural beauty and un-crowded waterways. The Queen Charlotte Walkway hike that one group accomplished again is a popular recreation destination, due to its natural beauty. At the time of year that the course was carried out the Queen Charlotte walkway did not have many other users on the track, offering an experience not encumbered by meeting other people, which could be an issue in the summer months when the walkway is very busy. The hiking portion conducted in the bush and mountains surrounding the Deep Creek base camp that the other group completed, was also set in a very appealing remote natural environment.

The course observation data revealed that the group that hiked the Queen Charlotte Walkway on return communicated that they really enjoyed the experience, even though it was very physically demanding, requiring long days of walking; for example “I was amazed that I could carry the pack for all those days... I thought at times I could not go any further, but I guess you just get fit along the way,” (Margaret) and “It was good to push ourselves on the hike... I enjoyed hiking on the trail,” (Caroline). The other group conveyed that the native bush was very frustrating to navigate through, and that they got lost several times, as stated by one student “We got real lost heaps of times, and no one knew how to read the map thing, we kept on having to stop and try to find out where we were and people were getting pissed off at each other,” (Taylor).

Some students from both groups commented that they hoped that the extra fitness they gained on the hiking component would help them increase their morning run time, and also help them achieve a good time on the half marathon run at course end, for example “I feel real fit now I’ve done the hiking, it’s going to help me on

the run [course end half marathon],” (Iteria). It is note worthy that the sailing portion of the expedition was not commented on in depth by the students. This may be due to the sailing portion being held at the start of the expedition phase and therefore overshadowed by the most recent experience, hiking.

The expedition HVM put forward by Goldenberg (2002) is similar to the results presented here in that physical fitness is an important consequence of the expedition phase of the Outward Bound programme. Where the results do vary is that in Goldenberg’s (2002) study transference is the most important end value, this study reveals that while transference is recognised as an end value, increased self esteem and confidence are the most important outcomes.

The physical consequences leading to increased self confidence and esteem were particularly noted by the group that hiked the Queen Charlotte Walkway, both through observational data and by separate means-end analysis of this aspect of the course. The group that completed the bush hiking component was challenged in a variety of ways, including group cohesion, decision making, route finding and to a lesser extent physical fitness, outcomes from this group as indicated by separate means-end analysis was the self confidence gained from the completion of a challenging task.

Placing the results into a realistic framework in this instance requires each group to be presented separately. For the first group, the context was hiking on an easy to follow trail avoiding continual breaks for navigation; the mechanism was hiking with pack on, at a steady pace over a period of days to produce the main outcome of increased physical fitness. For the second group the contextual conditions were difficult route finding on an unmarked trail in the bush; the mechanism was frequent stopping and starting to find the way, thus outcomes for this group focused more on self confidence.

7.6.6 Six Months Post Course

Six months after each Outward Bound course had finished the researcher phoned up all the course students to conduct interviews with them as described in the research design chapter. Most of the 14 that could be contacted stated that they were happy to have been called by someone who had been involved in their Outward Bound course. The students were also keen to find out news about their instructors and other members of their group; during the interviews many of the respondents commented that contact was diminishing over time.

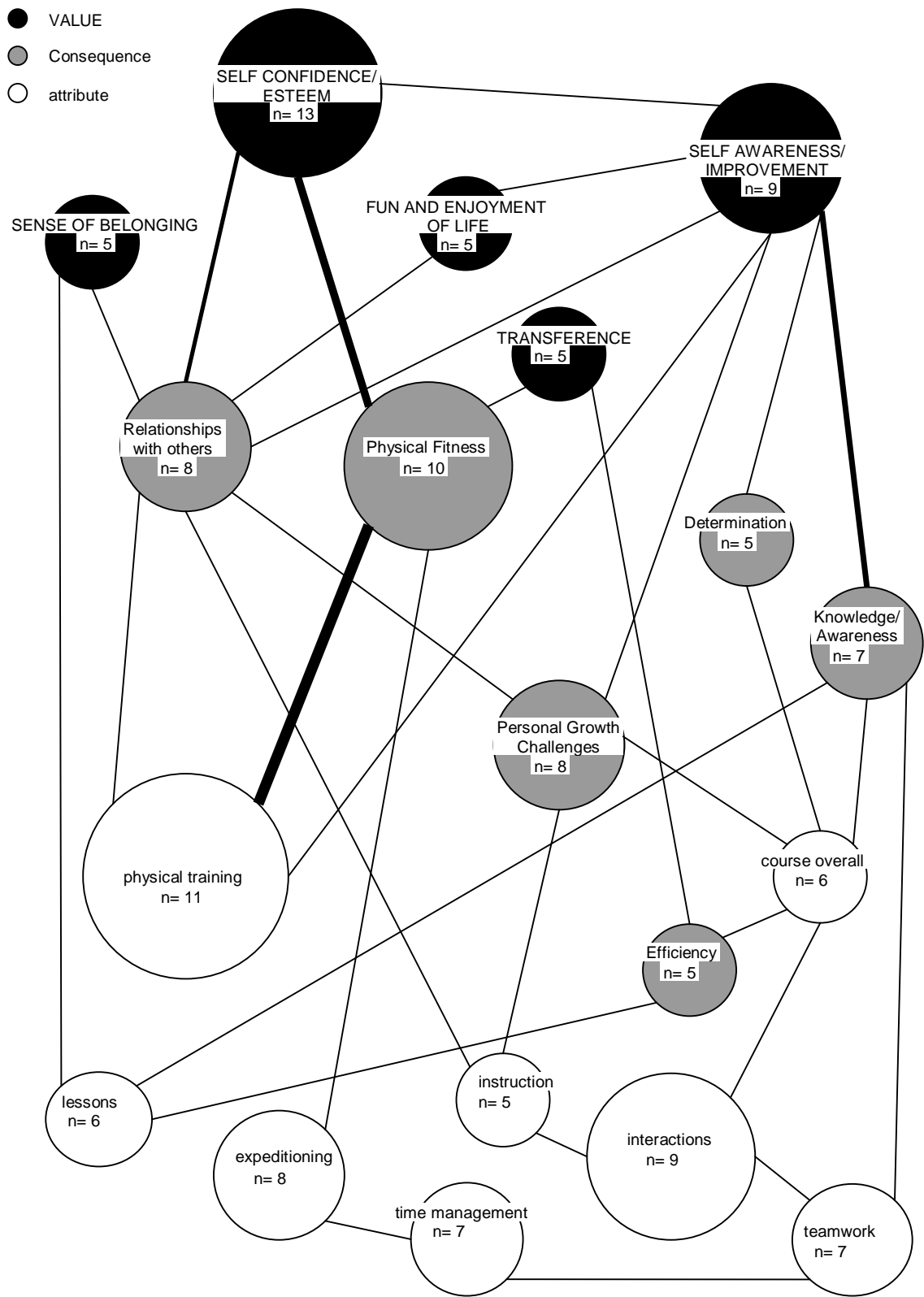


Figure 7.6 Hierarchical value map for Outward Bound course students: 6 months post course: (n=14).

The final HVM (Figure 7.6) represents the data collected from the 14 respondents at 6 months post course. It can be observed that the predominant attributes/course components are physical training, interactions and expeditioning. The consequences/outcomes that were mentioned most frequently were physical fitness, relationships with others and personal growth/challenges. The values most often mentioned were self confidence/esteem and self awareness/improvement. Strong links between physical training, physical fitness and self confidence/esteem can be observed, as well as a strong link between knowledge/awareness and self awareness/improvement.

Comparing the initial HVM for all students at course end and this HVM 6 months post course, reveals that the course attributes and consequences are by and large similar, but there has been some change in the values reported. The value of self confidence and esteem remained the predominant value after 6 months, self awareness and improvement has become slightly more important to the students, whereas transference and sense of belonging have slightly declined in importance. What has changed is that at 6 months post course warm relationships with others has disappeared from the HVM and fun and enjoyment of life has been included as being an important value 6 months post course.

Changes in the value of warm relations with others could be explained that at course end the group was interacting with each other to a great extent, also positive relationships with others were an important part of accomplishing the day to day activities on the course. At 6 months post course, relationships with others were still an important consequence of the course but it does not lead to an end value.

The value fun and enjoyment of life included in the 6 month post course data may be explained as the students look back on their time at Outward Bound as an enjoyable experience that was fun to do, now that they were removed from any hardships that occurred on the course. Why this value did not show up at course end may be explained due to the high intensity of the course suppressing the enjoyable aspects.

In summary, the results reported by the students at 6 months post course were similar to those reported at course end with the differences having a logical explanation. The 6 month results showed that transference was still an important value to the students; this indicates that the students did believe that what they gained from the course was of value 6 months on. The means-end data obtained 6 months post course is consistent with prior research on the long-term effects from outdoor education programmes, showing that effects are persistent at 6 months post course (Hattie et al., 1997).

7.6.7 Research Method

Reviewing the second application of the combination of the means-end and course observation approach with the Outward Bound groups shows that the research questions on course components were able to be answered as in the LSV results, regardless of the low number of respondents. The HVM for all the students was able to distinguish the attributes that they thought were most important in producing outcomes, the 4 attributes were then able to be separated and analysed with the inclusion of course observation data. Separate analysis of demographic data was not presented due to the low number of respondents in each sub-group when divided into age, gender and ethnicity. Also, the LSV results indicated that little could be concluded from analysis of demographic data within the method adopted. Meaningful results were able to be established from the means-end data from 15 students, due to the homogeneity of the group; and the fact that a phenomenological paradigm was subscribed to.

The homogeneousness of the group is ascertained with respect to the fact that the students who attended both Outward Bound courses were selected from the long-term unemployed population group and were observed to share similar traits; for example limited educational achievement and lack of stable home life that was ascertained during conversations with the students on both courses. As the results emerged for the individual course attributes which were identified as most important for the students, it was noted that there was a considerable degree of agreement and correlation from the 15 students and as such trust developed that

the results were a true representation of the group as a whole; this was also the case for previous means-end studies using small samples (Devlin et al., 2003). The individual course attribute results spread of consequences and values was also noted as being close, in that the number of consequences leading from the attributes was 2 or 3 and the number of end values ranged between 2 and 5, revealing that of the 15 respondents only 2 or 3 consequences showed up as being important to them, and between 2 and 5 values. This shows a stronger correlation than if the 15 respondents reported 15 or more individual consequences and values.

The ability to pool the data from both groups was not only due to both groups having similar traits, but also because both courses followed the same course programme, operated under the same procedures had the same course management and by and large similar instructor pairings. Realistic results were able to be produced from the pooled data from both groups for interactions, physical training and activity de-briefs. Data from each group was not able to be combined to produce a realistic proposition for the expedition activity due to the fact that while each course was very similar, both groups followed a different hiking route. The ability to conduct separate analysis for each group when required was a strength of the research approach, as revealed by the expedition activity analysis.

By using the phenomenological paradigm the researcher's thoughts as an expert in the area were able to be included into the data analysis (Collis & Hussey, 2003), guiding the discussion using not only the means-end and observational data, but also by using reasoning gained from previous extensive experience in the outdoor industry the researcher was able to give meaning to the results by presenting the findings within a realistic framework. Literature supporting the ability to use a small sample size has already been discussed in chapter 2; the results that have been presented here support the literature findings and therefore it is concluded that in this instance the sample size used was adequate to produce meaningful results for course components.

7.7 Conclusions

Course observation revealed the culture and environment of the Catalyst course, which provided a context in which to interpret the results. Course start for the Catalyst group was shown to vary from typical New Zealand Outward Bound courses, to facilitate the transition from participants' home environment, in the hope of reducing the number of students departing early. In contrast to the customised programme start, the remaining course focus varied little from a typical Outward Bound programme, showing little direct focus on the course end goals of employment. There was minimal evidence of developing the instructors' expertise to deliver a course for the Catalyst population group, with mentoring being the predominant tool used to exchange skills between instructors. The tight schedule at course end meant that activity debriefs had limited effect, thus reducing the reflective aspect of the course programme that is an important aspect of the experiential education process.

Using means-end theory, participant interviews and course observation data collected from an initial sample of 15 students provided an insight into what the students perceived as the key attributes, consequences and end values from the two Outward Bound Catalyst courses studied.

Interactions, expeditioning, physical training and activity de-briefs were identified as key activities in producing the outcomes associated with the Catalyst programme. Data, collected 6 months post course, revealed that many of the course outcomes were still persistent at that time.

The means-end data reveals that the most important activities at Outward Bound were the activities that had a physical training aspect to them and time that enabled social interactions between students. The most important immediate consequence from the course for the students was personal growth and challenges. At 6 months post course the most important consequence was the increase in physical fitness that students achieved while on the course. The most important resulting value from the experience was increased self confidence/esteem, and by

6 months post course the importance of the value of self awareness/improvement also becomes more evident.

The results presented here again show that the method used was able to highlight important course attributes and further enable deeper investigation into them as was highlighted in the LSV results chapter. What was also able to be ascertained from the Outward Bound results was that through combining the method used and the phenomenological approach, meaningful results were able to be produced from a small sample. Course observation data was integrated with the means-end data from both groups and discussed with pertinent literature, enabling an explanation of outcomes, mechanisms and contexts to be proposed for the course components of interactions, physical training and activity de-briefs. The expeditioning results highlighted the flexibility of the approach, in that separate analysis was able to be conducted on each group when required.

The significance of the findings from LSV, Outward Bound and the research approach are discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 8 Discussion

8.1 Introduction

Having now presented the results from LSV and Outward Bound, this chapter discusses how the results can answer the research questions presented at the start of the study, thus allowing a response to the research objective to be offered in the final chapter.

Each research question is revisited and discussed with respect to the results produced from the data analysis, and how the results are positioned alongside the literature. Limitations of the study are stated and suggestions put forward on how to address the shortcomings for future research.

8.2 Discussion of the Results

The results from this study were obtained from researching one LSV and two Outward Bound courses during 2006-07. The researcher attended the three courses, making observations, and fostering relationships with the participants, in-order to facilitate the means-end interviews conducted at course end, and again six months after the course had finished. The data was analysed and results presented in each provider chapter, enabling the research questions to be answered as put forward at the start of this study. These are now discussed.

8.2.1 Research Question 1

What are the outcomes for participants from participating in motivational intervention programmes at course end?

The results presented in this study indicate that the outcomes from these three motivational intervention courses have strong positive effects on the participants': self-esteem, self-confidence, self-awareness, self-improvement and a sense of belonging, all of which are able to be transferred back into the participants' home environment. These results are consistent with prior research in the outdoor adventure and experiential education fields including (Ewert, 1989; Goldenberg, 2002; Hattie et al., 1997; Martin, 1998; McVicar, 2002; Neill, 2001; Paxton & McAvoy, 2000). The LSV results also indicated that transference to future work situations was an outcome for its participants.

What are the outcomes for participants from participating in motivational intervention programmes 6 months post course?

Results obtained 6 months post course reiterate the course end results in the form of positive increases in participants': self-esteem, self-confidence, self-awareness, and self-improvement occurred from participating on the motivational intervention courses. The results indicated that indeed transference of the outcomes to participants' home environment did in fact occur, due to the same outcomes being identified after 6 months. Previous experiential education research has also indicated that outcomes from general enrolment experiential education programmes can be transferred back into participants' home environment (Paxton & McAvoy, 2000), and the outcomes are long lasting (Hattie et al., 1997; Mitchell & Mitchell, 1989). Again the LSV results indicated that transference to work was an important course outcome, both from the means-end results and also by the fact that at 3 months post course 84% of LSV participants (during the 2005-2006 year) were either in employment or full time study.

8.2.2 Research Question 2

What do the participants perceive as the most important course aspects in producing outcomes?

The specific course aspects that participants perceived as being the most accountable for producing the outcomes at course end for each provider were, for Outward Bound: personal interactions, expeditioning, physical training and activity de-briefs; for LSV: marching, time management, physical training and personal interactions.

Results obtained six months after the courses had finished indicate that again the physical training and personal interactions were perceived as being the most important aspects from both courses. At six months post course for the LSV participants, the importance of the marching activity was replaced by the aspect 'course overall'; this change could be accounted for by the fact that the marching activity was concentrated on at course end, and therefore the importance highlighted for the participants at that time. Whereas six months later 'course overall' represents the combining of course aspects, due to failing memory of the specific activities that were completed. For the Outward Bound participants, activity de-briefs was replaced by time management; this again could be attributed to the time spent de-briefing at course end, and time management representing an overall aspect of the course rather than specific activities.

The results highlight the importance of course attributes such as participant interactions and physical training, over the high adventure activities such as rock climbing, rafting and high ropes courses that are commonly associated with outdoor adventure programmes. The results from this study are complemented by Goldenberg's (2005) means-end study of outcomes from the components of an Outward Bound experience, in that the course overall and interactions have a greater effect on the participants than individual high impact activities such as rock climbing and new experiences. However, what also needs to be stated is that it is assumed that high adventure activities such as rock climbing, rafting and high

ropes courses have an important role to play with respect to attracting people to partake in the programmes, as well as being seen as enjoyable or ‘fun’ activities for the participants to continue to remain engaged with the course. Therefore, while high adventure activities did not appear to produce important outcomes for the participants, they may indirectly contribute to producing outcomes by attracting and retaining participants.

Research suggests that it is the qualities of course activities such as challenge, and personal interactions rather than the activities themselves that produce outcomes, and a number of theories have been advanced on what these qualities are (Gass, 1993; Luckner & Nadler, 1997; Walsh & Golins, 1976). While some researchers have conducted research to link specific course qualities to outcomes (Hattie et al., 1997; Witman, 1995). The means-end research method has proven to have the ability to empirically identify specific course activities or attributes, and make direct links to course outcomes (Goldenberg, 2002; Goldenberg et al., 2000; McAvoy et al., 2006). The results presented in this study extend the research by advancing both the contexts and the mechanisms by which course outcomes are achieved from specific course activities.

The six most important course aspects as perceived by the participants at course end were analysed, and results produced, using a combination of the means-end and course observation methods, enabling the third research question to be answered.

8.2.3 Research Question 3

How do the means-end structures vary according to course components?

Expeditioning was shown to be an important course component for the Outward Bound participants, resulting in increases in their self confidence and esteem, as well as being linked to transference in general. Results for expeditioning showed similarities to previous means-end research (Goldenberg, 2002), but did not support previous research that indicated that appreciation for the environment is a

benefit from the expedition phases of experiential education courses (Ewert, 1983; Hattie et al., 1997; Paxton & McAvoy, 2000).

It was further shown that the outcomes from the expedition phase of the course were dependent upon the context in which it was performed. In one instance the group had a well marked trail to follow, resulting in physical fitness as a main outcome; whereas the other group completed a challenging route that had the main result of increasing their self confidence.

Physical training was an important course aspect for both the LSV and the Outward Bound groups, indicating that an increase in participants' physical fitness was the immediate outcome, leading to increases in self confidence, esteem, and awareness. Other experiential education research also support physical activity producing positive outcomes (Ewert, 1987; Hattie et al., 1997). However, it is more the literature outside the experiential education field that aligns with this research, indicating that physical training in a natural environment increases participants' self esteem, more than in an urban or gym environment (Pretty et al., 2003; Pretty et al., 2005).

It is suggested that for the outcomes to be achieved, a variety of physical training activities were set within the context of the natural environment and a small supportive group. The mechanism at play was that the participants were able to set and strive toward individual goals.

Participant interactions results for LSV and Outward Bound closely followed previous experiential education literature indicating that outcomes such as fostering warm relationships with others, a sense of belonging and increases in self esteem result from participant interactions (Goldenberg, 2002; Kimball & Bacon, 1993; McKenzie, 2000b; Witman, 1995). While not showing up on the means-end data, staff were observed as playing an active role in facilitating positive, constructive interactions among the participants, and as such were identified as the mechanism for the outcomes to be achieved. The context in which the results occurred, was a small, supportive group setting, in an unfamiliar environment, that enabled participants to attempt new actions or behaviours.

Time management was identified as an important course component for the LSV group at course-end. Previous research also argues time management as an important outcome from experiential education programmes (Hattie et al., 1997; Neill, 1999). However, the results presented in this research link time management to the end values of transference to work, and increased self awareness and improvement. The ability to link time management to outcomes and end values, in this case highlights the importance of time management to the desired outcomes of the LSV programme, post course employment.

Time management is a prime example of how course providers have the ability to direct course outcomes. By focusing activities toward the stated goals of a course, participants' learning has a direction, rather than leaving the participant to take what they will from course experiences. In this instance, the LSV staff discussed the importance of good time management skills with respect to future employment, as well as making participants aware of how their skills in this area could affect them in a work situation.

Marching is an activity exclusive to the military which at course-end showed up as being important for the LSV participants. No empirical research was uncovered on the effects of marching, other than the stated aims of producing a participant who is proud, alert, obedient and to provide the basis of team-work (LSV training poster, 2006). What was able to be established was the link between marching and the processes of skill mastery that occurs on experiential education programmes. Skill mastery is the progressive, successful attainment of an increasing level of challenging activities throughout a course, in which participants are helped to achieve success, resulting in increased self confidence, esteem and improvement (Bacon, 1987; Walsh & Golins, 1976).

At LSV, the marching activity was delivered in a way that participants could practise each new marching component until they achieved success, then a new more challenging component was introduced to them, and again the cycle would continue, culminating in feelings of achievement upon success in being able to perform marching to a high skill level at course end.

Activity de-briefs were identified as an important course aspect for the Outward Bound participants, which resulted in end values of a sense of belonging, achievement of a personal goal or value and gains in self esteem and confidence. While the means-end data indicate activity de-briefs are important to the participants, of note was that outcomes were observed to be similar to activity de-brief outcomes from general enrolment courses at Outward Bound New Zealand.

The facilitation model used in this instance was the second generation model; instructors direct the de-briefing discussions to enable links between activities and participants' home life to be established (Priest & Gass, 1997). What was thought to be a more appropriate model to use is the third generation model, where instructors frame activities and de-briefing sessions, focusing on challenges in participants' daily lives (Bacon, 1987), which in this case would be to focus on post course employment.

How do the means-end structures vary according to gender, age and ethnicity?

The means-end structures results for the LSV data indicate that there were some difference with respect to gender, age and ethnicity, but that due to the low numbers in each sub-group, the results were inconclusive. The analysis of gender, age and ethnicity was not presented for the Outward Bound data, as the number of respondents would be too low to give meaningful results, as indicated by the LSV results. It was concluded that this research approach was not able to produce meaningful results with respect to gender, age and ethnicity.

How do the means-end structures vary according to provider?

There was little difference in the activities that had most effect on both courses, with physical training and personal interactions accounting for outcomes for both Outward Bound and LSV. This indicates that both these activities were conducted in similar ways, highlighting the similarities between each provider and how they delivered their courses. This justifies comparisons to be made between the results that differed for similar activities on each course. The activities that had effect on

LSV (marching and time management), and de-briefing and expedition for Outward Bound, can be accounted for as each provider emphasises such activities as is shown by the proportion of time spent conducting them.

The consequences varied between providers, but shared common traits such as fostering relationships with others, and participants' knowledge that they can achieve more than they initially thought. The consequences from each provider linked to largely similar end values, such as: self awareness and improvement, transference in general, and self confidence and esteem. Where the two providers did differ was that for LSV the end value of transference to work was important, whereas Outward Bound fostered more of a sense of belonging for its participants.

The means-end results combined with the observational data indicate that the main difference between providers was that LSV kept a focus on the end result of increasing participants' chance of securing employment post course, whereas Outward Bound did not focus on employment as an end result.

The application of the method to two Outward Bound and one LSV course, and the data analysis enabling the production of the above results within the methodological approach adopted, enabled the next research question to be answered:

8.2.4 Research Question 4

How appropriate is the means-end approach for evaluating motivational intervention programmes?

The combination of the means-end and observational methods was able to generate data that answered calls from the literature to reveal processes that are responsible for producing outcomes on experiential education courses (Anderson et al., 1994; Baldwin et al., 2004; Ewert, 1983; Hattie et al., 1997). This study was also able to move away from the more quantitative outcome evaluations and use a more qualitative approach that has been suggested in the experiential education

literature (Barrett & Greenaway, 1995; Bocarro & Richards, 1998). This current study also addressed one of the limitations of Goldenberg's (2002) means-end study, the use of self-administered questionnaires; this study follows her suggestion to conduct one-on-one interviews, enabling more specific outcomes to be obtained.

The methodological approach was able to show what the participants perceived they gained from the motivational intervention programme, both at course end and at 6 months post course. The results from the means-end data was supported through course observation data and as both methods were conducted within the phenomenological paradigm they were able to complement each other. From the course end data, the identification of the most important course components was able to be made, and further analysed and presented using the realistic approach.

The use of the means-end method on a small sample was not able to adequately show differences between the sub-groups of age, gender, ethnicity, smoking habits and participant home location. It was revealed after analysing the first set of age, gender and ethnicity data for the LSV group that while the method could summarise the means-end structures for the sub-group, the results would have little meaning outside of that group for that particular split of age, gender etc. A better approach would be to uncover the cognitive structures of each sub group using a large scale, positivist approach such as adopted by Goldenberg (2002). A large scale research design, collecting data from several groups would have the ability to draw inferences about the wider population. For example, groups with varying gender ratios may have differing outcomes. If many groups were studied the different gender ratio effects would balance out enabling a better representation of the effect of gender on outcomes.

The realistic explanation proved to be a good way of presenting the results of the course component analysis, because more than just outcomes were able to be presented. Realism enabled the context in which the results occurred to be stated and the mechanism at work to be put forward for the motivational intervention courses studied. Presenting the results within the realistic explanation also aids the transferability of the results, as the context and mechanisms in which the

outcomes were produced have been stated, enabling the results to be matched to similar contexts and mechanisms. For example, knowing that the participants in this study hiked in generally good weather, in groups of around 10 people, enables future researchers to compare to results to comparable context, but not expect results to match much larger groups hiking in bad weather. Also, knowing the time management outcomes were influenced by the mechanism of staff and instructors emphasising the importance of good time management, courses with little emphasis on time management would not be expected to produce similar results.

The phenomenological approach of immersing the researcher into the courses enabled a richer description of the programme to be presented (Collis & Hussey, 2003), responding to calls to ensure that outdoor education programmes are described in depth (Gillis & Speelman, 2008; Hattie et al., 1997). It is the presentation of the “subtle contextual conditions” (Pawson, 2006, p. 36) that can reveal why interventions are successful or not.

The methodological approach adopted ensured that the results were a true representation of the data collected, thus producing a good representation of the groups studied. This effect is also described as having high credibility (Collis & Hussey, 2003). The reliability of the results using the phenomenological paradigm is low, in that if the same study was to be repeated there is a high chance that the results would not be exactly the same. The realistic explanation of the results goes some way to address the reliability issue, in that the context in which the results were obtained is presented so that if the study is to be replicated, the researcher would be able to state whether the data was collected in the same context as the initial one. Transferability of these results would be possible only from one setting to another, but it is acknowledged that it would not be possible to generalise the results into the larger long-term unemployed population group. Collis and Hussey (2003) state that phenomenological results can be transferred to similar environments if a comprehensive understanding of the behaviour and activities have been established. The results presented in this study are thought to be transferable from this setting to other experiential education courses, because the

depth of data gathered including a discussion of the courses and the view of the participant, which captured the interactions and characteristics of the programme.

8.3 Limitations

The selection of the phenomenological paradigm, while having advantages, also presented several limitations to the research. The low number of participants and courses researched, the researcher, the environment and the participants are all acknowledged as having both positive and limiting effects on the research output.

As this study uses inductive inference, the results that are drawn from the sample population can never be analytically or empirically certain (Danermark, Ekstrom, Jakobsen, & Karlsson, 2001), and as such this limitation is acknowledged. The selection of realism as the chosen philosophical standpoint makes the results conditional upon individual contexts and therefore they may not have the same relationship in different contexts (Pawson & Tilley, 1997; Robson, 2002). For example, comparing this data to Goldenberg's (2002) data could result in variances from differing cultures e.g. Americans compared to New Zealanders. The perceptions collected in this study were from participants 17-26 years old; as such the perceptions of older (or younger) long-term unemployed may not be the same. Also, the low national unemployment levels (3.8%) at the time when the study was undertaken, would have an effect on the makeup of course participants attending motivational interventions at that time. During spells of higher unemployment, providers have the opportunity to select from a larger population, and therefore the results may not be directly transferable to times of lower unemployment.

To ensure the study remained a manageable size, and remained within financial constraints, data collection was limited to observation of one LSV and two Outward Bound courses. A consequence of the inductive approach is the opportunity of collecting too much information. This was addressed by the filtering process designed in the means-end procedure to gather common threads of data to produce a manageable data set. The data analysis procedure has inherent limitations in that the individuals' responses are interpreted, coded, and aggregated, therefore sacrificing a level of accuracy for economy (Cohen &

Warlop, 2001). This needs to be done to limit the size of information presented, and enable the key themes to be presented in as understandable a way as possible. As the study focused on links between course components and corresponding outcomes, rather than measuring the size of outcomes, pre- and post-course statistical testing of the participants was not required. Participant observation and the findings from other studies were included as another viewpoint by which to analyse the means-end data, which assisted the verification of the outcomes. This triangulation of results in part overcomes the shortfall of pre- and post- course testing; however it is acknowledged that the outcomes reported in this study are less reliable than if this testing had occurred.

Profiling and documenting the background of the participants as suggested by Hattie et al. (1997), to enable the identification of key moderator variables was not done. The demographic data collected was limited to age, gender, ethnicity, home location and smoking habits. One of the conditions of being granted permission to conduct research on the participants was to keep the time that participants were taken out of the programme to a minimum, thus maximising the engagement with the programme curriculum. This was a key reason for limiting the collection of demographic data.

It is acknowledged that the results from each course and provider are not transferable to the greater population group of long-term unemployed, as the clients are selected to attend different providers depending on their individual characteristics. Participants are selected with the greatest chance of succeeding on the given intervention; therefore the remaining clients who do not attend any intervention are perhaps, in the view of the motivational intervention providers, less likely to be employed post course, or clients who in reality do not want to be employed.

Potential Work and Income clients may also have not been selected because of being unfit, having a high height/weight index, criminal record, or not being willing to attend any type of intervention. Other reasons for not wanting to attend a residential programme include family responsibilities, drug or alcohol dependency, or being unable to get time off part time work. Therefore, the

participants who do attend motivational interventions may not be representative of the greater population of long-term unemployed. Until more research is conducted, these findings can be seen as starting to unravel the complexities of the processes involved in motivational intervention programmes.

The researcher was invited to conduct research at LSV at short notice, which meant that not enough time was available to gain full ethics approval to use a recording device to record the interviews. Once the written method was used at LSV the same method was also used to conduct the Outward Bound interviews for consistency, although there was time to present a full ethics application for approval. A more efficient method of recording precisely what the participant said would have been to record the interviews using a tape recorder. This would have enabled the researcher to go over the interviews at a later stage to check the accuracy of the data coding process.

In any field work undertaken in a social situation it is not possible to record in an un-intrusive way the consequences of the programme upon its participants. No matter how careful the researcher is, their mere presence in the environment can have an effect (Cooper & Schindler, 2001). The balance between the researcher affecting course outcomes by their presence, and the need for rapport to be established between participants was at front of mind for the researcher. The effect that the researcher had on the results was minimised by the acknowledgement of this possibility.

The survey approach utilised in this study was subject to the Hawthorne effect, in that the participants may construct responses that they think the researcher wants to hear, or may respond in a overly positive manner as a way of thanking the programme provider for a positive experience (Cooper & Schindler, 2001). To reduce the possible effect, participants were asked to give frank and honest responses, and were informed that the course provider and Work and Income would not see the raw data from each participant, and therefore they were free to respond without repercussion.

The final limitation of the study was that the sample size of Outward Bound participants was small ($N = 15$). While this number was small it does not preclude

the ability to conduct successful research, as research can be conducted with sample sizes as small as 10 (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001). Consequences of a small sample size of Outward Bound participants precluded the ability to further analyse the data into smaller sub-groups of age, gender and ethnicity. Low enrolments were observed during the time that this research was conducted at Outward Bound on their Catalyst courses. A full Outward Bound Catalyst course in general has 12 participants; this was not the case with the two courses observed (course one n = 9, course two n = 6). Low national unemployment during the study also limited Outward Bound to delivering a Catalyst course every two months, as opposed to every month in times of higher unemployment. These factors conspired to restrict the quantity of data gathered from Outward Bound.

It is important to note that the findings from this research cannot be taken as representing motivational interventions as a whole. Only one course from LSV was studied, and two courses from Outward Bound; this is an immediate limitation to this research. None the less, this research was designed to be exploratory rather than confirmatory in nature, and to this end it has been fruitful.

8.4 Conclusions

Most of the research questions that this research set out to answer in chapter one were all able to be answered, using the adopted approach. The results indicated that course outcomes at course end and at six months post course was similar in nature to previous research on outdoor education programmes. Positive influences on participants': self-esteem, self-confidence, self-awareness, self-improvement and a sense of belonging, were revealed and such results were able to be transferred into participants post course environment.

The means-end method enabled the most important course aspects to be identified as perceived by the participants. These course aspects included personal interactions and physical training for both LSV and Outward Bound. As well as marching and time management for LSV, and expeditioning and activity de-briefs for Outward Bound. These results indicate that the two providers, while sharing the same stated course goals, and at times similar course activities, can be perceived by participants to result in different consequences and outcomes.

The results indicated the various structures of the course components that were identified as being most important to the participant. The structures of course components of personal interactions, physical training, marching, time management, expeditioning and activity de-briefs were revealed, and links to research were presented to either support or suggest why results varied from previous research.

The primary cause of not being able to show differences in participant demographic characteristics of gender, age and ethnicity was due to the low numbers of participants that were involved in this research. It was concluded that in order to fully distinguish variances between participants' demographics, a cognitive structure evaluation would be a more suitable approach to take.

Differences between providers were able to be established. For LSV the end value of transference to work was important, whereas Outward Bound fostered more of

a sense of belonging for its participants. Results indicate that LSV focused post course employment as an end result from their courses, whereas for Outward Bound this was not an area that they concentrated on.

The methodological approach was an appropriate framework for evaluating motivational intervention programmes. Case studies of motivational interventions at LSV and Outward Bound utilising the means-end method, within the phenomenological paradigm and using realism as the conceptual framework were able to answer most of the research questions.

While there were several limitations of the research such as the low numbers of participants and courses researched, the possibility of the researcher having an effect on the participants and the data collection, as well as the ability to transfer the results back into the wider population of long-term unemployed, none were sufficient to prevent the research to continue and produce meaningful results. Having presented the results, conclusions about the research objectives can now be discussed.

Chapter 9 Conclusions and Implications

9.1 Introduction

The main objective of this study was to evaluate the outcomes of motivational intervention programmes in the outdoors and the processes involved in producing these outcomes. A secondary objective of this study was to review the merit of the means end approach for evaluating motivational interventions in the experiential education field. This chapter starts by presenting the conclusions with respect to these objectives: course outcomes, processes and method.

Implications for motivational intervention courses, the experiential education field and means-end theory are next discussed. Followed by recommendations for further research; culminating with final thoughts of the study.

9.2 Conclusions

9.2.1 Outcomes

The empirical evidence presented in this research shows that outcomes for motivational intervention courses are largely consistent with standard enrolment experiential education courses. The courses evaluated improved participants' self-esteem, confidence, awareness, and a sense of belonging, all which are able to be transferred back into their home environment. What has been revealed is that while motivational interventions have the stated specific outcomes of increasing participants' motivation and self esteem in order to increase the numbers of long-term unemployed back into the work force (Swindells, 1988), increases in participants motivation was not an outcome from these particular motivational interventions.

The results from Outward Bound indicate that the course outcomes are largely similar to the standard enrolment courses they provide, and not focused on the specific outcomes for motivational interventions. This was observed by the lack of discussion around post course employment objectives and minimal skill development towards securing employment. Differences in the Catalyst course design were seen to be more directed towards keeping participants persisting on the course, rather than to direct the outcomes towards the stated objectives. This reinforces the initial conjecture that courses provided for specific population groups in the outdoor education field are largely based on a notion that the standard course design is adequate to cater for groups with particular needs.

LSV results highlight that by focusing parts of the course around post course employment, outcomes in this area are able to be achieved. Differences between the outcomes from the two providers indicate that in order for course objectives to be met, a concentrated, directed effort toward course outcomes needs to be a focus throughout the course.

It is therefore concluded that specific courses need to be designed from the ‘ground up’ rather than as an adaptation of existing general population courses. Purposeful, directed efforts towards participants’ individual circumstances and needs, as well as focusing on the stated course objectives should be considered when designing or making changes to courses. Results from this research enable a deeper insight into what are the outcomes from specific course components and the processes involved.

9.2.2 Processes

Results revealed the course components responsible for the most important outcomes were: physical training, personal interactions, time management, marching and expeditioning. Links established between course components, consequences and end values revealed insights into how participants perceived the course to have had an effect on them. Thus, this research has expanded the knowledge about how course components have an effect on shaping outcomes from motivational interventions. This knowledge was also supported by the identification of the mechanisms and contexts in which the outcomes were achieved, thus enabling transferability of the results beyond the current study.

Knowledge about how course components influence outcomes can be used in the design of courses. Specifically, by knowing what course components contribute to particular outcomes, programme components can be included or not, thus enabling purposeful programme design to occur. Furthermore, an understanding of the process that is involved in producing such outcomes enables the manipulation of the delivery of course components to achieve specific desirable outcomes.

9.2.3 Method

Course observation and semi structured interviews were appropriate approaches for the social nature of the course and the population groups’ specific literacy abilities. The summary of outcomes from the courses, from the view of the participant, was also supported by the researcher’s observations, enhancing the

credibility of the results. The means-end method was able to clearly identify which course components were responsible for such outcomes and the linkages between course components, outcomes and end values. The ability to present the outcomes from course components within the realistic framework enhanced the depth of knowledge about course components and outcomes. Thus, the knowledge gained about how outcomes on experiential education programmes are produced by adopting the means-end method, was able to answer calls from previous literature (Baldwin et al., 2004; Cason & Gillis, 1994; Hattie et al., 1997).

The results here indicate that the method adopted was not able to produce meaningful results with respect to the variables of ethnicity, age and gender, due to low numbers.

This study demonstrated the successful use of the means-end theory within the experiential education field, and helps establish means-end as an appropriate methodology to conduct research in this field.

9.3 Implications

This research has a variety of implications not only for motivational interventions, but also the wider experiential education field and for future means-end research. Implications for course design are next presented as well as the implications for the use of means-end theory in the experiential education field.

9.3.1 Course Design

First and foremost, this study has been able to make a contribution to the practice of motivational interventions for the long-term unemployed. This research is able to help practitioners make decisions about programme components based on data as advocated by Ewert and Sibthorp (2009). As part of the research process, success has been achieved in improving the delivery of the LSV programme by changing the goal setting aspect of the course, so that the participants are able to produce a more meaningful set of goals that they can work towards after the course (personal correspondence, 2008). Other recommended improvements to the delivery of the LSV programme were made while the researcher was conducting the course observation phase, and communicated to LSV by way of a comprehensive evaluation report (Maxwell, 2007), which was part of the access agreement with the provider. Many of the recommendations have been implemented by LSV, and feedback to date suggests that the LSV programme has benefited from the changes they have been able to execute.

This research has made the first step in disseminating knowledge among providers of motivational interventions, through the publication of an article about the role of goal setting in motivational intervention programmes (Maxwell, 2008) and the upcoming publication of the results from the LSV portion of this study (Maxwell, 2009).

This research has provided an initial platform for the understanding of the environment of motivational interventions for the long-term unemployed in New

Zealand. The findings can be used by providers to better understand what the processes are that participants undergo during the courses, enabling modification and justification of the programmes to enhance individual learning. Providers of motivational interventions for the unemployed also now have the opportunity to see what other providers are delivering to their clients, enabling inter-industry knowledge to be shared. Future researchers can use this study as a starting point for further studies into motivational interventions, not only to compare and build on the data provided but also as a resource for literature on motivational interventions.

Implications for the experiential education field include an increased understanding of the effects that particular course activities have on participant outcomes. Experiential education providers can take heed of the findings in this study with respect to delivering courses that are targeted towards a specific outcome. This study shows that it takes a conscious effort to direct course activities towards specific outcomes (such as employment-seeking), and it cannot be assumed that standard course formats will produce significant results for non-standard groups.

9.3.2 Means-end Theory in Outdoor Experiential Education

This study adds to the body of literature on means-end theory. As a relatively new method to conduct research in the experiential education field, it offers another step in increasing the credibility of the use of means-end as a method of enquiry. In particular, this study used means-end theory on a specific homogenous population group: the long-term unemployed in the experiential education setting. This was one of the first experiential education studies to use the means-end method within the phenomenological paradigm, as well as presenting the results using realism as its conceptual foundation.

9.4 Recommendations for Future Research

A larger survey from many groups may produce findings that could reveal insights into how various sub-groups interact with motivational interventions, such as different ages, genders and ethnicities.

As the means-end approach is still relatively new to the experiential education field, further research is suggested to advance this approach, in order to develop a thorough understanding of the advantages and disadvantages of the method.

Replication of this research would be valuable to see if the programme changes made at LSV as a result of this study have produced measurable effects. A longer term study, showing results after one, two or more years could reveal just how persistent the outcomes from motivational interventions actually are. Linking course outcomes to participants' employment or study status as well as interactions with the justice system, drug and alcohol use etc. could reveal more about the long-term benefits of motivational intervention programmes. While the data exists, currently there is no research available on the employment or study outcomes from specific providers of motivational interventions. Such research may prove valuable in assessing the benefits from various course designs.

This research indicates that there was little difference in results between Outward Bound's Catalyst courses and general enrolment courses for the wider population. Research comparing the results from long-term unemployed participants integrated into general enrolment courses versus into the Catalyst course at Outward Bound may prove interesting. Results may confirm that there is little difference, or that in fact long-term unemployed participants may benefit more from interacting with people from a broader situation than from a course with only long-term unemployed participants.

With unemployment levels rising due to the current world economic situation, research into how experiential education programmes can best serve participants to maximise the opportunities available to them is becoming even more important.

9.5 Final Thoughts

The reader should be cautioned that this analysis does not claim that in motivational intervention programmes lies the solution for New Zealand's problem of long-term unemployment. Motivational intervention programmes represent one part of a solution and when implemented can lead toward the raising of participants' self esteem, motivation and self confidence. There is no question that participants feel the impact of their motivational intervention programmes, and this combined with post course support can lead to increasing their chances of entering full time employment or study.

The practical value of social science depends upon its ability to deliver useful knowledge about the causes of social problems and the effectiveness of policies and programs designed to alleviate them. The immense diversity of social life, however, and the great welter of factors underlying any social phenomenon make it difficult, if not impossible, to derive conclusive knowledge from any single study, no matter how well designed or intelligently analyzed. The causal processes that appear so essential at one time or place may prove less important in another. The program that works well with one group under certain conditions may be less effective with another group when the circumstances are a bit different. These basic facts of social life render the success of social science crucially dependent upon its ability to accumulate results across the many studies of a given social process or program (Cook, Cooper, Cordray, Hartman, Hedges & Light et al., 1992, p. vii).

I never imagined the research journey that I embarked upon would expose me to the many different ideas, concepts and insights into the experiences of the long-term unemployed. At times the complexity of the motivational intervention question seemed beyond answering, and then little by little the research process began to shed enough light to continue. Inspiration to complete this thesis has come in part from people I have met, who were former participants of motivational interventions, who have shared their success stories with me. I finish with a quote from a former LSV trainee, who I met in Wellington “*The LSV course changed my life, it gave me direction, and I knew from then exactly what I was going to do with my life...*” .

Appendix

Appendix 1 Definitions

Case Manager: An employee of Work and Income who manages clients.

Catalyst: The name that Outward Bound uses for its 21 day motivational intervention course.

Classic: The name for Outward Bound's standard open enrolment 21 day courses.

Client: A person who is a customer of Work and Income.

Company: A military unit, typically consisting of 75-200 personnel. Most companies are formed of three to five platoons.

Drill: When an individual, platoon or company marches.

Experiential education: Learning achieved from an experience, typically set in the outdoors. The terms outdoor education, outdoor recreation, and experiential education are often used somewhat interchangeably. In the current review experiential education will be used to encompass the aforementioned terms.

General enrolment: Refers to courses that accept a wide range of participants from the general public, as opposed to courses that restrict enrolment to specific population groups.

Long-term Unemployed: Unemployed people who have been registered as job seekers with Work and Income for 26 weeks or more.

Marching: Refers to the organized, uniformed, steady and rhythmic walking forward, usually associated with military personnel.

Participant: A person who partakes on a course. For LSV “trainee”, Outward Bound “student”, and for WINZ/MSD “client”. In this thesis the appropriate term will be used when discussing different stakeholders. Participant will be used when talking about multiple providers and for non-specific providers.

Physical Training (PT): Cardio vascular exercise, utilising various methods including running, push-ups, sit-ups, weight lifting and sporting activities.

Platoon: A military unit typically composed of two to four sections or squads and containing about 30 to 50 personnel. Platoons are organised into a company, which typically consists of three, four or five platoons.

The Ministry: The Ministry of Social Development (MSD).

Transition: The change from a participant’s home environment to the new social environment and demands of the course. Transition has two stages: firstly, the removal of past associations, and secondly, coping with the demands of the new environment.

Unemployed: People aged 15 and over who are not employed and are actively seeking and available for paid work.

Unemployment: The number of people aged 15 years and over who are not employed and who are currently seeking work and are available for paid work, expressed as a percentage of the total labour force. This does not include people who regard themselves as unemployed including the “discouraged unemployed” those who do not meet the “actively seeking work” criterion. This group is classified in the “not in the labour force” category.

Work and Income New Zealand (WINZ): A front line service department of the Ministry of Social Development that helps job seekers and pays income support on behalf of the Government.

Appendix 2 Unemployment definition

According to the OECD (OECD, 2006), the unemployed comprise all persons above a specified age (typically 15) who during the reference period were:

- Without work, that is, were not in paid employment or self employment during the reference period; and
- Currently available for work, that is, were available for paid employment or self-employment during the reference period; and
- Seeking work, that is, had taken specific steps in a specified recent period to seek paid employment or self-employment.

The specific steps to seek work may include registration at a public or private employment agency; application to potential employers; checking at worksites, farms, factory gates, market or other assembly places; placing or answering newspaper advertisements; seeking assistance of friends or relatives; looking for resources to establish their own enterprise, etc.

In this thesis, the MSD definition of unemployed as “people aged 15 years and over who are not employed and who are actively seeking and available for paid work” will be used (The Social Report, 2006). The definition of the length of time considered “long-term” unemployment in New Zealand is 26 weeks (MSD, 1994). This differs from most OECD countries, which use the OECD definition of people out of work and looking for work for 12 months or more (OECD, 2006). Within this thesis, 26 weeks will be the measure used to define long-term unemployment as this is the client group participating in the programmes.

New Zealand’s official measure of unemployment is derived from the Household Labour Force Survey (HLFS) which is conducted quarterly by Statistics New Zealand. The unemployment rate at the time of data collection was 3.8%, in the

March 2007 Quarter (or 84,000 people) (HLFS, 2007). At the time that the data was collected for this study there was a low rate of unemployment; since that time there has been an increase in the number of unemployed to 4.2% as of the September 2008 quarter (HLFS, 2008).

Appendix 3. Student means-end interview form.

Student means-end interview form

Group	Individual	M / F	Age	Location	Smoke/No	Ethnicity
						Euro, Māori PI, Asian, Other

Consequence

What outcomes did you observe from the course?

Step

Why was that important to you?

Step

Why was that important to you?

Value

Why was that important to you?

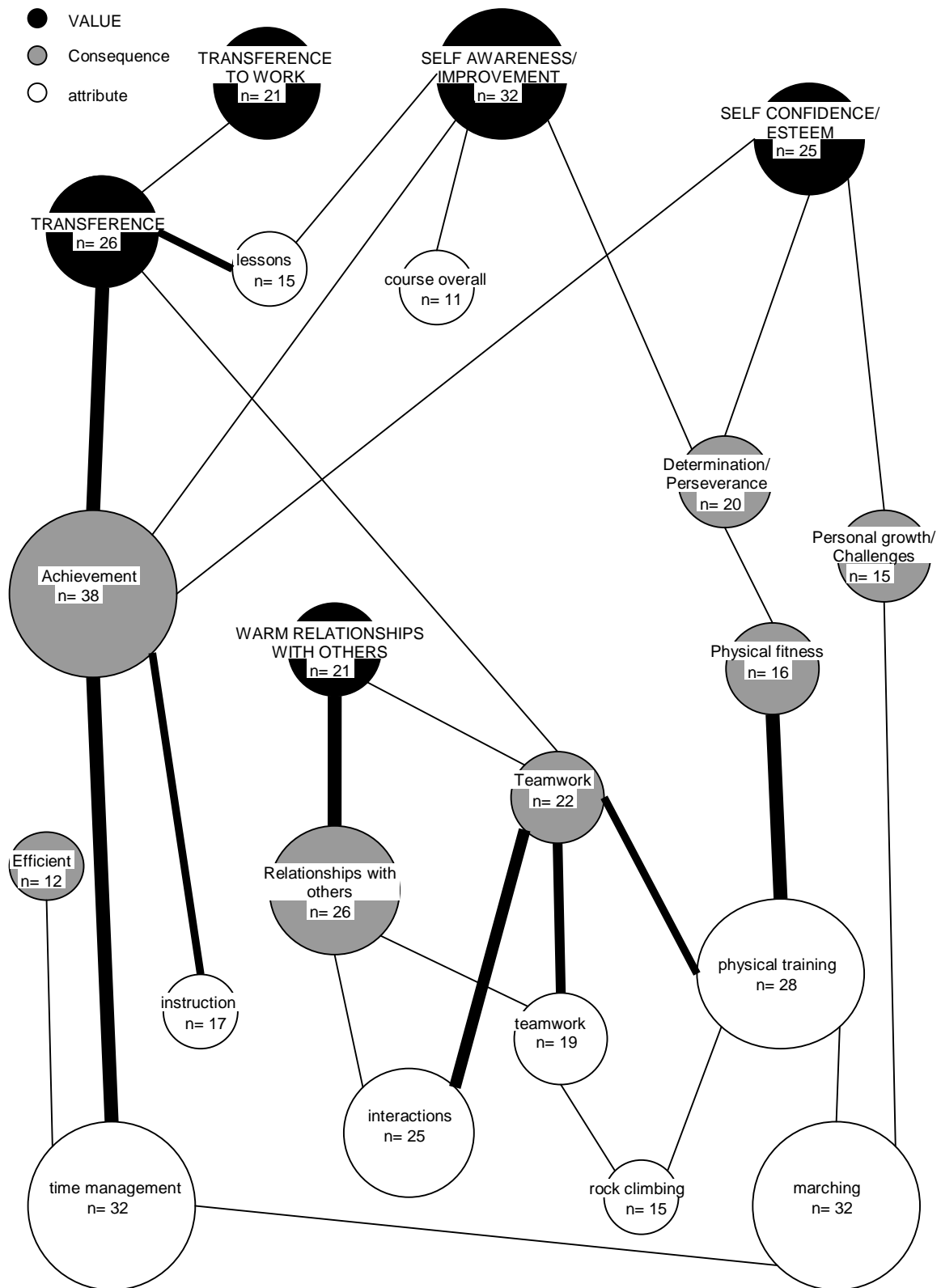
Activity

What activities or parts of the course led to that outcome?

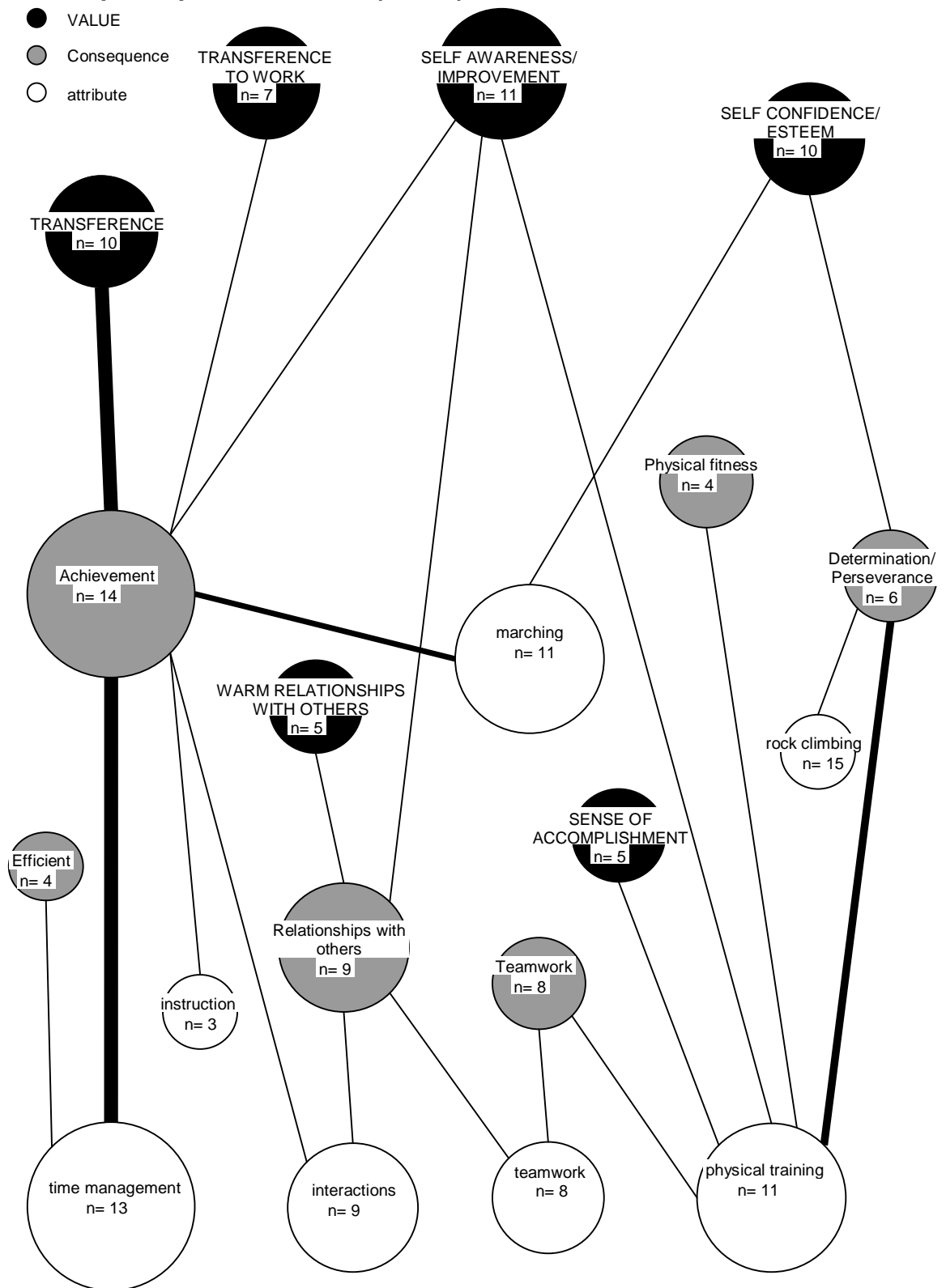
Appendix 4. Goldenberg's list of consequences (2002).

Consequences	Sub-category for the consequence
Achievement	<i>Pride</i>
Appreciation	
Determination/Perseverance	<i>Determination</i>
	<i>Overcome Fears</i>
	<i>Motivation</i>
	<i>Endurance</i>
	<i>Perseverance</i>
Efficient	<i>Craftsmanship</i>
	<i>Responsibility</i>
Independence	
Knowledge/Awareness	<i>Knowledge</i>
	<i>Awareness</i>
	<i>Open Minded</i>
Leadership	<i>Leadership Skills</i>
Nature Appreciation	<i>Awareness of Nature</i>
	<i>Stewardship</i>
Patience	
Personal Growth/Challenges	<i>Awareness of Abilities</i>
	<i>New Opportunities</i>
	<i>Personal Challenges</i>
	<i>Personal Growth</i>
	<i>Problem Solving</i>
Physical Fitness	
Relationships with Others/Teamwork	<i>Awareness of Others</i>
	<i>Build Relationships</i>
	<i>Communication</i>
	<i>Compassion</i>
	<i>Cooperation</i>
	<i>Encouragement</i>
	<i>Being Positive</i>
	<i>Friendships</i>
	<i>Respect</i>
	<i>Teaching</i>
	<i>Teamwork</i>
	<i>Trust</i>
Reflection	<i>Inner Peace</i>
	<i>Live in the Moment</i>
	<i>Solitude</i>
	<i>Understandings</i>
Survival	

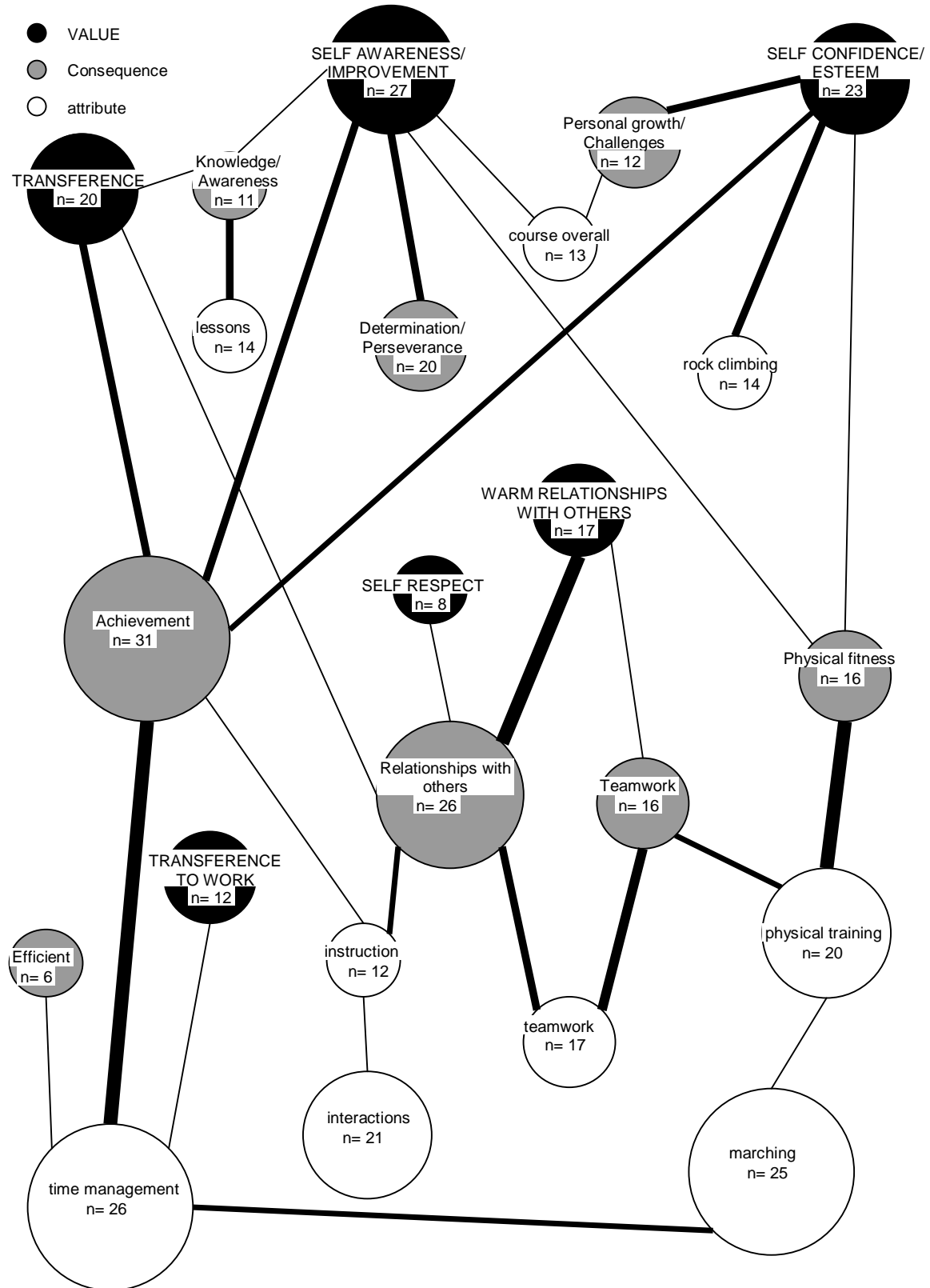
Appendix 5. Hierarchical value map for Limited Service Volunteers course participants: Males (n = 67). Cut off level 5.



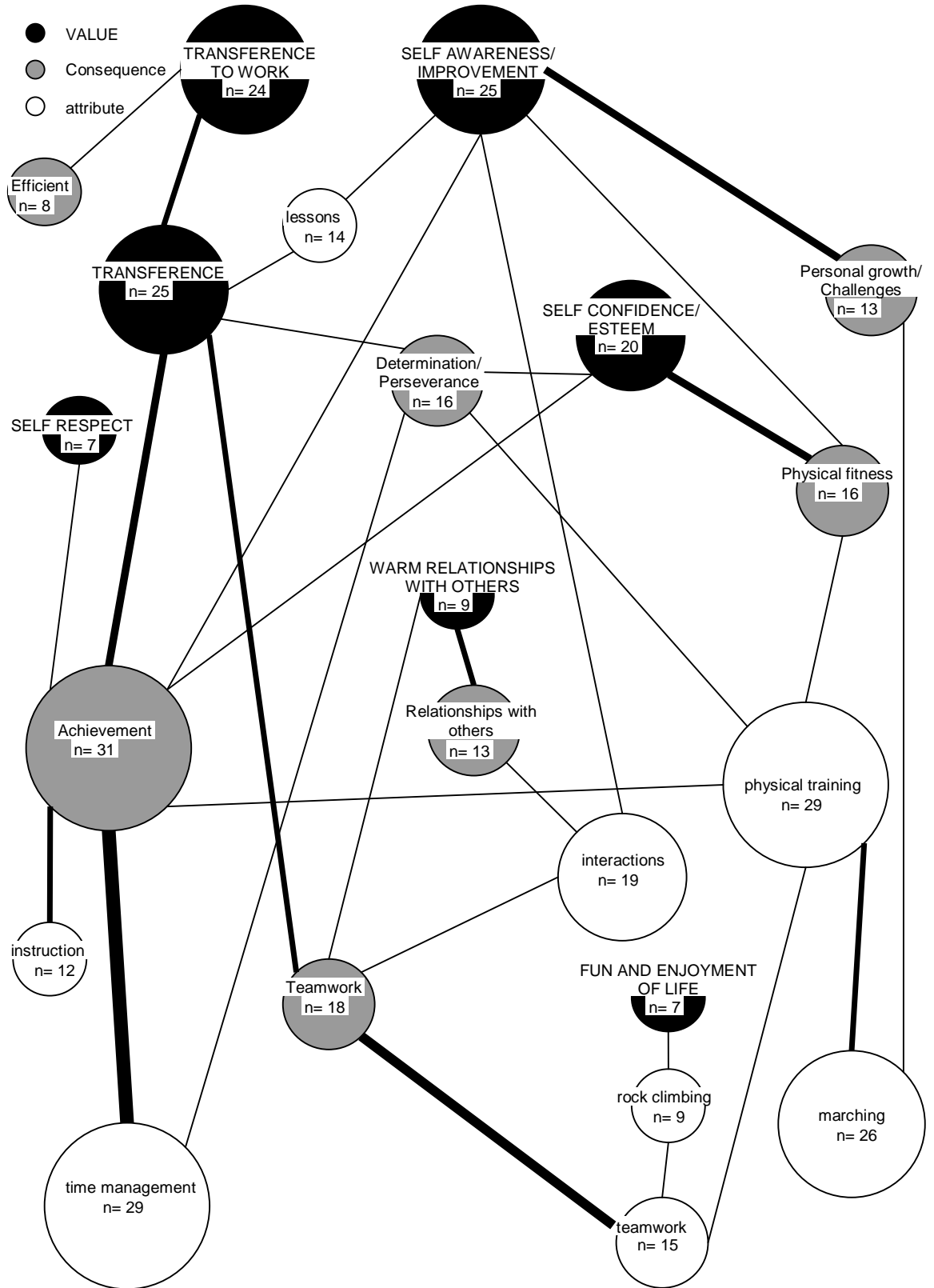
Appendix 6. Hierarchical value map for Limited Service Volunteers course participants: Females (n = 18). Cut off level 3.



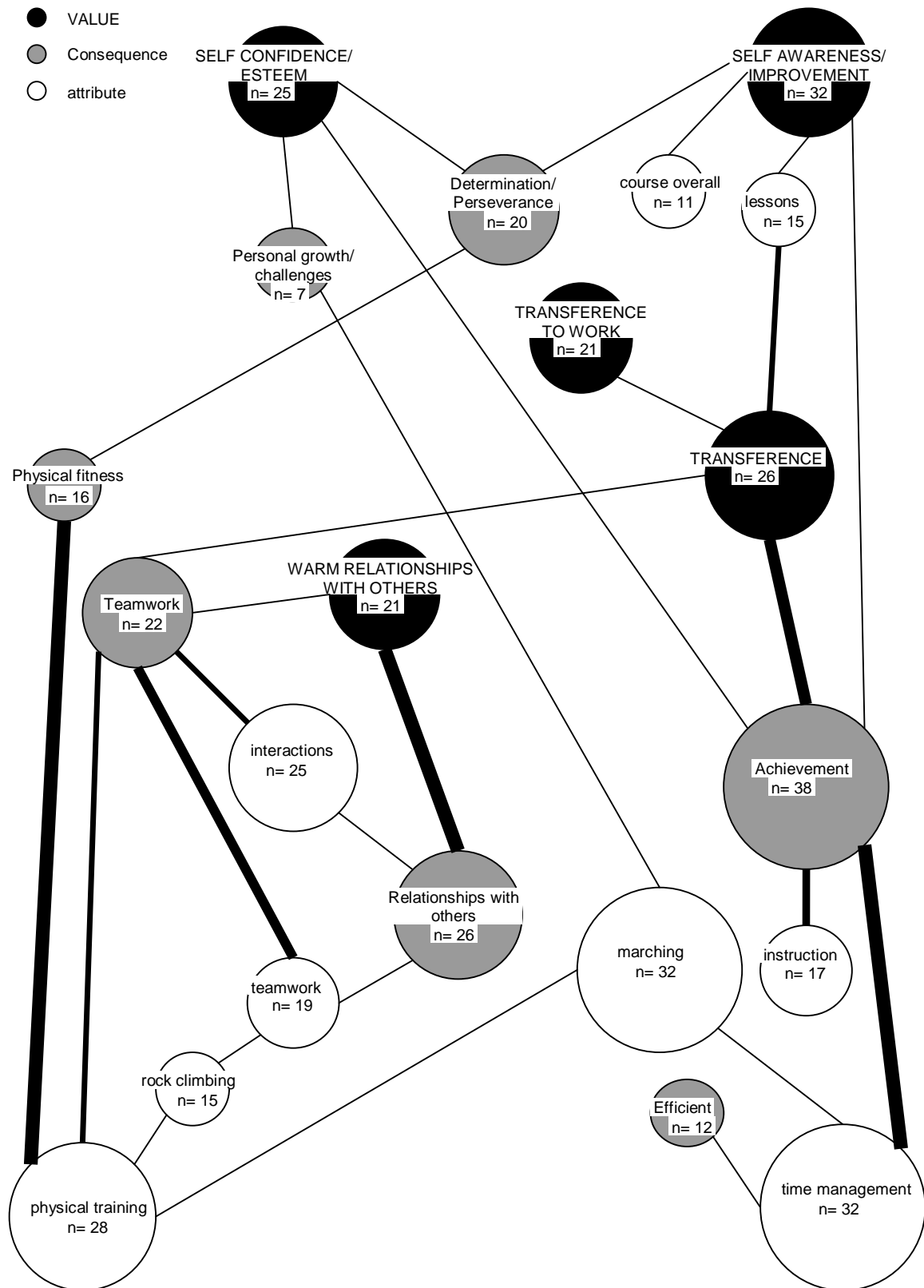
Appendix 7. Hierarchical value map for Limited Service Volunteers course participants: 17-18 year olds (n = 44). Cut off level 4.



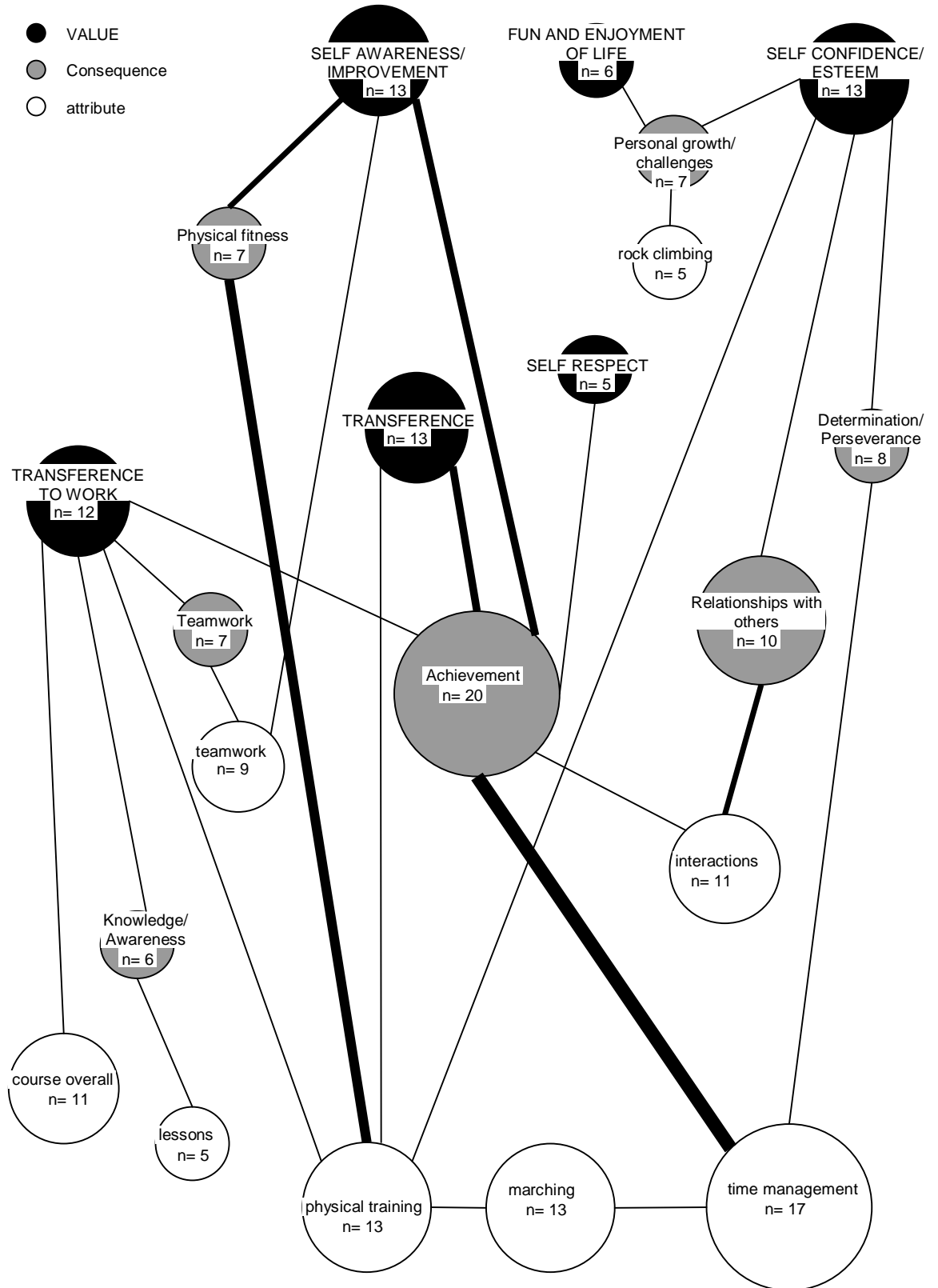
Appendix 8. Hierarchical value map for Limited Service Volunteers course participants: 19-25 year olds (n = 41). Cut off level 4.



Appendix 9. Hierarchical value map for Limited Service Volunteers course participants: Māori (n = 50). Cut off level 5.



Appendix 10. Hierarchical value map for Limited Service Volunteers course participants: Europeans (n = 25). Cut off level 3.



Appendix 11. Approval to research at Outward Bound.

From: Robert Maxwell
PhD Student
Massey University
Wellington

March 2007

To: Trevor Taylor
Chief Executive Officer
Outward Bound New Zealand

An Evaluation of Motivational Intervention Programmes for Long-term Unemployed.

Research scope and intention

Dear Trevor

I am requesting to visit Outward Bound to interview a group of catalyst students for my PhD research. The intention of this research is to gain a better understanding of the internal processes that lead to the outcomes of motivational intervention programmes.

I am using a means-end approach linking the activities to the outcomes to the values that participants perceive they gain from the course. This information will be collated to enable linkages from activities to values for this population group.

This study differs from the outcome data collected in previous studies (i.e. Mitchell & Mitchell, 1989; Martin, 2001; Hattie et al, 1997; among others) showing increases in participants self esteem, self efficacy, leadership, self concept, locus of control and independence. The data collected will increase the knowledge of what the internal processes are that occur within courses, allowing enhances in programme design to optimise course outcomes.

What is required from Outward Bound:

- Access to a group of catalyst students and to interview them at course end

To facilitate the course end interviews I would like to attend the course as a non participant observer, to make observations and to make the students feel comfortable with my presence. Each student would be interviewed individually for approximately 15 minutes each. The interviews would be conducted at convenient times worked out with their instructors, within the last two or three days of the course.

There will be very limited resources required by Outward Bound and in particular there will be no extra effort required by the social sector manager in the undertaking of this research.

What Outward Bound will receive:

- Quality research on the Catalyst programme
 Currently Mitchell and Mitchell, and Andy Martins' research on open enrolment programmes are the only sources available
- Ability to use study as a marketing resource to MSD
- Gain up to date knowledge in this area, through the extensive review of international literature, and theories
- Presentation of findings
- Copy of the final report

Ethics

The students will be made aware that there will be no consequences for not taking part in the research. This information, along with an assurance that the results will be anonymous, and have no effect on their welfare benefit, will be communicated to them verbally prior to their decision to participate in the study, then again in writing if they decide to participate in the study.

The research will follow Massey University's ethical guidelines and regulations, and ethical approval will be obtained prior to commencement of the research. At no stage shall any person be able to be identified in the research, or in the resulting research findings.

Signed

Date

Trevor Taylor
Chief Executive Officer
Outward Bound New Zealand

Signed

Date

Robert Maxwell
PhD Student
Massey University

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