
27 Cultural and environmental awareness through sustainable tourism education: exploring the role of onsite community tourism-based Work-Integrated Learning projects

*Stephen Wearing, Michael A. Tarrant,
Stephen Schweinsberg and Kevin Lyons*

1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter explores the potential of Work-Integrated Learning (WIL) in promoting cultural and environmental awareness through sustainable tourism education. WIL is a form of experiential learning and education that integrates academic learning in workplace environments (Buabeng Assan, 2014; Edgar and Connaughton, 2014; Smith and Worsfold, 2014; Xia et al., 2014; Zegwaard and McCurdy, 2014). While the term 'WIL' is commonly used throughout Australia, in other parts of the world it may be known as Learning Content Management Systems, Integrated Learning Systems, or Learning Management Systems. For the purpose of this chapter, however, we will consider WIL as synonymous with the aforementioned terms.

WIL experiences such as internships, placements, cooperative programs, industry projects and service learning are a common feature of many tourism programs (Dorasamy and Balkaran, 2011; Keating, 2012). Its application here is considered using the context of onsite community-based tourism projects that provide learners with the opportunity to actively engage with communities and to 'apply knowledge, skills and feelings in an immediate and relevant setting' (Smith, 2001). Such placements have the potential to promote what Orrell (2007 in Peach et al., 2013) has described as the 'transformative stakeholder ethos'; a holistic approach to learning where students may develop new ideas and innovations through the blending of class-based education with first-hand workplace experiences.

In this chapter we consider the ecological paradigm shift that underpinned the rise of environmental education, and marry it with an experiential framework as a conceptual foundation for community-based Work-Integrated Learning projects. We argue that such an approach exposes learners to a concrete experience, but also has the capacity to introduce them to authentic practices through interaction with industry and community leaders and players. We briefly describe a couple of examples of how such an approach has been successfully applied in diverse settings, drawing on two tertiary case studies from the University of Georgia and the University of Technology (Sydney). We conclude by considering less formal learning contexts such as the gap year, in which knowing and learning are co-constructed through ongoing and reciprocal processes (Billet, 2001) that may benefit from the framework discussed in this chapter.

2. LITERATURE

Much has been written about paradigm shifts. In 1970 the renowned scientific historian Thomas Kuhn wrote that paradigms are ‘a constellation of beliefs, values and techniques, and so on shared by the members of a given community’ (Kuhn, 1996, p. 175). Since the publication of Kuhn’s work, *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*, there has been a profound evolution in green philosophies as they relate to management practice. In the late 1970s Dunlap and Catton introduced the notion of green paradigms as the antithesis of the dominant social paradigms of the day (Dunlap, 2008). By questioning the almost universally held beliefs in the merits of zero limits to growth and the primacy of economic growth over environmental protection (see Hay, 2002), early proponents of environmental thought were able to question the basis of the dominant anthropocentric philosophies that had defined the nature of humankind’s relationship to the world since the industrial revolution. Such thinking gave birth to environmental education.

Proponents of environmental education have long recognized that ecological understanding involved more than learning concepts. At its heart it is a process of enacting a shift to a green paradigm by fundamentally changing the way individuals view the world (Lyle, 1996). The process whereby human beings develop the skills to prioritize the often competing social, economic and biological aspects of sustainability starts with environmental education (Global Development Resource Centre, n.d.). Environmental education was defined at the 1977 Tbilisi Conference as encompassing three broad goals:

- to foster clear awareness of, and concern about, economic, social, political and ecological interdependence in urban and rural areas;
- to provide every person with opportunities to acquire the knowledge, values, attitudes, commitment and skills needed to protect and improve the environment;
- to create new patterns of behavior of individuals, groups and society as a whole, towards the environment (Global Development Research Centre, n.d.).

Within each of these goals lies the universal charter of environmental education, which is to broaden the consciousness of the need to apply sustainability principles collectively and in our everyday lives (Haigh, 1995 in Scott and Van Etten, 2013). Over the last thirty years a number of international conventions and agreements have taken up the cause of environmental education. Kyburz-Graber (2013, p. 23) notes that it was political strategizing at the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment in Stockholm in 1972 that took environmental education from being a niche concern of ‘engaged biology and geography teachers’ and developed it into a political force. The report *Our Common Future* subsequently identified education as one of the primary facilitators of the process whereby human beings may develop ‘new values that would stress individual and joint responsibility towards the environment and towards nurturing harmony between humanity and environment’ (Brundtland, 1987, p. 111).

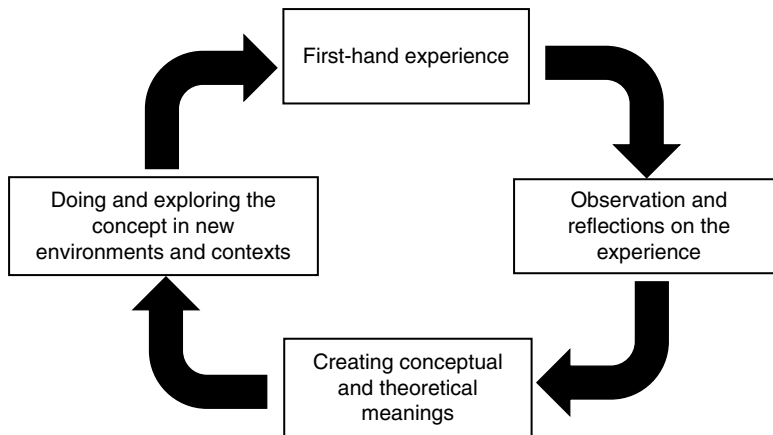
Tilbury (1995) notes that it was in the 1990s that sustainability became a stated objective of environmental education. Reflective of evolving human understanding of sustainability itself; environmental educators have increasingly realized the need for a holistic approach to environmental education for sustainability. In doing so, a range of theoretical interpretations of environmental education have come into vogue.

One that is particularly relevant in the present chapter is the socio-ecological approach. The essential premise of socio-ecological environmental education is that positive learning outcomes are best achieved by ‘promoting competencies for critically analysing and reflecting on situations, living conditions and values, and for developing a multi-perspective understanding of the complexity of these issues’ (Kyburz-Graber et al., 2006, p. 111). To achieve such constructivist outcomes requires that practitioners ponder the multilayered demands of a diverse range of stakeholder groups and actively consider the ways in which the personal and critical reflection of their own value positions can be combined with participatory approaches to learning (Kyburz-Graber, 2013). In short, such an approach blends environmental and experiential forms of education through what is now known as Work-Integrated Learning (WIL).

3. TEACHING APPROACHES

It has been well argued that WIL is a form of experiential learning and education that integrates academic learning in workplace environments (Buabeng Assan, 2014; Edgar and Connaughton, 2014; Smith and Worsfold, 2014; Xia et al., 2014; Zegwaard and McCurdy, 2014). Our approach to Work-Integrated Learning (WIL) is contextualized in an experiential learning framework, that is, it is project-based community engagement which provides learners with the opportunity to gain and ‘apply knowledge, skills and feelings in an immediate and relevant setting’ (Smith, 2001). WIL exposes learners to a concrete experience; it may also introduce learners to authentic practices through interaction with industry and community where through a project-based approach there can be an opportunity for conceptual change which can be advanced through collaborative social interaction in the culture of the domain (Resnick, 1988). ‘Social situations – such as workplaces – are not just one-off sources of learning and knowing. Instead, they constitute environments in which knowing and learning are co-constructed through ongoing and reciprocal processes’ (Billet, 2001, p. 434).

We propose that experiential learning is an ideal educational paradigm upon which to build WIL experiences because of its relationship with many sustainable traditional learning styles. Experience-based learning, in which the learner is directly in touch with the realities being studied, contrasts with learning in which the learner only reads about, hears about, and talks or writes about these realities (Keeton and Tate, 1978, p. 2). Joplin claims that the emphasis and goal within experiential education is ‘toward monitoring the individual’s growth and the development of self awareness’ (Joplin, 1990, p. 158). As such, the major characteristics of experiential education proposed by Joplin (adapted, p. 159) are (1) learner based, rather than teacher based; (2) personal, not impersonal; (3) process and product oriented (i.e., how a learner arrives at an answer, as well as how correct that answer may be); (4) evaluative – for both internal and external reasons (i.e., a focus on learner skill development and on external agent monitoring of the learner learning experience); (5) holistic (including an understanding and component analysis, representing the complexity of situations stressed over the simple summation); (6) that learning is organized around (and begins with) an experience; (7) based on both real/perceived and theoretical foundations; and (8) individual rather than group based (and thereby stress the ‘individuals’ development in a self-referenced fashion’). The



Source: Adapted from Kolb (1984).

Figure 27.1 Experiential learning framework

theoretical framework of experiential education is best conceptualized by Kolb (1984) in Figure 27.1.

An examination of Figure 27.1 suggests some methods that can be used for sustainable tourism education contexts. First, the First-hand Experience relies heavily on emotive-based judgments and specific learning situations and, as such, forms an integral basis of teaching and learning in many indigenous communities. This education, for example, enables the participant to focus on specific, but familiar, natural environments within their local area that is part of their culture or community experience. In contrast, conceptualization (the polar opposite of First-hand Experience) suggests a more rational and conceptual approach to education, one in which participants adopt (or prefer) symbolic interactions over personal learning interactions (see, for example, Shuttenberg and Poppenlagen, 1980, p.30). This style of approach relates strongly to the way we learn about sustainability, so exposure introduces learners to learning patterns that reinforce sustainable tourism approaches based on one's personal beliefs.

The final two categories in Figure 27.1 allow the integration of components of sustainability and sustainable tourism that is desired through the WIL process. Observation and reflection is a pre-requisite to learning in a WIL project, often with the learning dimension being based on 'being'. This involves careful observation rather than involvement, as well as thinking about and comparing ideas. Indeed, this may be considered as the preferred way to learn about sustainability (Rickinson, 2001). The polar opposite, however, represents active testing and experimentation. This approach is oriented towards 'doing' by facilitating learning, and is therefore an approach that invites trying things out and then modifying behavior in the light of success or failure. This is why WIL is an essential component in the learning process for sustainable tourism.

Overall Figure 27.1 represents an approach that is based on the integration of a number of different learning styles, thus facilitating bi-cultural learning opportunities and applications for learners (as well as local people) involved in WIL sustainable tourism projects.

Additionally, it allows for the integration of culturally distinctive approaches to learning. Historically the teaching techniques of advanced industrial nations, which concentrate on objectivity and rationality, have been criticized for their insensitivity to sustainable tourism education on the basis that, 'different styles of interpersonal communication are manifestations of underlying differences in world view and there is clear potential for conflict' (Harris, 1990, p. 39). One outcome of this conflict is likely to be ineffective learning. However, Mascarenhas et al. (1991, p. 11) maintain that where attitudes of outsiders are right and rapport is good, it has been repeatedly shown that villagers know a great deal, and this knowledge itself helps to drive innovations.

Locals involved in sustainable tourism projects are themselves often the main innovators of change. As such, a WIL framework of sustainable tourism seeks to incorporate biological adversity and social development within the traditional economic, market-driven paradigm; thus turning the cliché, 'Think globally, act locally' into a form of practical politics. One extension is that learners can be educated on the effects their lifestyle has on the physical and cultural environment of other regions. Thus education and training in this way offers the opportunity to educate both learners and local stakeholders.

Effective sustainable tourism education requires that responsibility must be given to those people nearest the core of the issue (Shiva et al., 1991). This places it within the hands of those communities who have the greatest stake in project ownership and success, and who possess the greatest store of historical, social and cultural knowledge of the local area. By promoting local-learner relations, learners directly receive the benefit of this knowledge.

If you want to rehabilitate the environment, you must rely on villagers and not on government officers to do the job. But people will care for their environment only if they have legal rights to manage it and to use its products. People already have the knowledge, what they must get are rights over their local environments. (Shiva et al., 1991, p. 118)

Local communities must have a major role in WIL for sustainable tourism education projects and be empowered to take major roles in the education and training that is at the heart of these projects. As a result, local communities can teach learners how to manage the resources on which their livelihood and culture depend. However, this education must attempt to address a range of criteria suggested by Shiva et al. (1991) before it is undertaken. Such criteria include: protecting and promoting local knowledge and innovations; the support of conservation and utilization of local biological resources; strengthening local-based research and development; and support for community institutions and improved security.

The Convention for Biodiversity (Shiva et al., 1991) outlines the need for research, training and education by incorporating training specialists in: ecosystem functioning; research in natural resources; formal and non-formal education of the general public and the local population; development of research institutions in developing countries; and strengthening information exchange between government and non-government agencies. Stapp (1972, p. 32) further outlines a number of requirements for environmental education that are applicable to the Sustainable Tourism Education Process (STEP). These should enable the learner and other stakeholders to develop a critical perspective and understanding of our natural resources (their characteristics, status, distribution and

values), an ecological awareness (a blend of previous experiences that will develop interest and respect towards the environment), and an economic and political awareness (an understanding of the factors – political and economic – which interfere with conservationist policies).

Essential to successful WIL sustainable tourism project education is understanding and managing community dynamics, especially community stakeholders that are internal and external to the local environment. It is necessary to ensure these stakeholders (and their respective organizations, if appropriate) are involved in establishing any project educational program. This is because they will provide invaluable information and interaction in the learning process.

The following text provides two case studies of how this experiential approach to WIL has been applied in the context of community-based projects in two diverse settings operated by two different higher educational institutions.

4. CASE STUDY 1: HOMESTAY EXPERIENCE WIL IN FIJI: SUSTAINABILITY IN ACTION

Over a four-week period in June/July 2014, 10 university learners (mostly undergraduate) from the University of Georgia in the United States traveled to the South Pacific island nation of Fiji where they partnered with a local community (Waitabu) to establish a commercially viable international tourism business venture in the village. The goal of the Fiji WIL is for learners to work collaboratively (as a cohort) with village elders and local community members to create a village homestay opportunity for international tourists that, once developed, would be maintained and marketed by the community. Learners registered for six semester credits at the university, for which they undertook coursework both prior to, and upon completion of, their month-long overseas village experience.

Waitabu, a traditional Fijian village, is located on the north-east coast of Fiji's third largest island, Taveuni. Taveuni (a population of around 15000 mainly indigenous Fijians), known as the Garden Island, lies on the 180-degree meridian and its remoteness has meant it has been much less impacted by tourism than Viti Levu and its adjacent off-shore islands. It contains some of the world's best soft coral, has unique wildlife and natural resources not found elsewhere, and a rich cultural history. Approximately one-third of the island is protected as a World Heritage Area. The 130 residents of Waitabu live in a collectively owned village unit of 25 houses. The cash economy is dependent on crop farming (especially taro and kava) and subsistence fishing, with average salaries of USD70/month. The village receives some limited income from cruise ship tourists, but the elders and residents are keen to expand on their tourism opportunities by creating a homestay for visitors wishing to stay one or more nights to learn and experience the culture and natural ecology of the area.

Waitabu represents an ideal location for the Fiji WIL for at least the following reasons: (1) a locally managed marine protected area (LMMPA), the Waitabu Marine Park, was established in 1998 to provide a tourism attraction (besides the proposed homestay experience itself); (2) the Fiji WIL has the full support of the Waitabu village chief and elders (meetings were held on at least three separate occasions prior to the WIL project inception); (3) Waitabu village has, or is in close proximity to, critical resources such as a local

24/7 field nurse and first aid clinic, radio phone and generator; and (4) all 22 family homes in Waitabu had previously been evaluated (as part of a comprehensive family homestay assessment conducted for a prior study abroad program).

The WIL project consisted of learners developing a series of plans for the village. (1) A business and leadership plan consisting of a viable accounting and financial system, and green business model for administering and managing the homestay, along with appropriate business ethics to operate in a global and sustainable environment. (2) A tourism needs assessment plan identifying the range of tourism services demanded and opportunities available, and the potential tourism market that exists (that is, for whom, when, and how should the opportunities be delivered). (3) A stewardship and community engagement plan including a process for collaboration and decision-making; specifically, how does the business operate sustainably at local, regional, national and international levels, who are the key stakeholders and how are they involved? (4) A marketing plan with publicity and promotional materials, and a market information system to recruit tourists. (5) A health and safety plan addressing health, safety and risk assessment objectives for operating a homestay experience. (6) An infrastructure plan to identify facility needs such as buildings (interpretive center/classroom/library, upgrades to homes such as toilets) and creation of an online booking system. (7) An educational plan, with specific learning objectives, for homestay visitors. At Waitabu this included, for example, tourists being involved with the following types of activities:

- impact mapping of the LMMPA (for example, documentation and mapping of coastal erosion, benthic categories, reef surveys, LMMA boundaries – which remain highly contentious – and fish species);
- land use mapping outside of the LMMA (for example, documentation and mapping of cultural and ecological resources including artifacts, plantations, medicinal plants);
- cultural interpretation (for example, oral history and timeline of the village based on historic occurrences such as hurricanes and deaths of a chief that can be then grounded on the Western calendar; art interpretation of the village history);
- tourism impacts and education (for example, reef restoration efforts, snorkel guide training, development of new interpretive materials, educational activities for cruise ship tourists and backpackers);
- primary school education and teaching at the local school.

(8) Finally, an ongoing maintenance plan (including training system) to enable Waitabu residents to cooperatively manage the homestay as an ongoing, financially-viable, project in all aspects of business, marketing, education, health/safety, and infrastructure.

At the time of writing, it is too early to determine whether the village homestay will be a successful and long-term viable business endeavor for the village. A second cohort will participate in the Fiji WIL (this time at a different village in Fiji, Soso in the Yasawas) in 2015 and will include a follow-up with Waitabu. However, Waitabu program evaluations clearly show that the success of the Fiji WIL rests on several key principles. First, establishing a strong relationship with the village prior to WIL inception, in order to gain an intimate knowledge of the community and political structure and to garner support of the project from village elders. Second, ensuring that learners understood the social, business

and ecological dynamics of the WIL project and the promises and pitfalls of creating a sustainable and viable tourism venture in a developing nation. Third, and perhaps most importantly, creating an environment in which learners engaged in levels of cross-cultural communication as they recognized the importance of operating within the local community's cultural framework, rather than with a purely Western mindset.

5. CASE STUDY 2: COMMUNITY ENGAGEMENT WIL IN THE NORTHERN TERRITORY, AUSTRALIA AND OVERSEAS

A long-running innovative WIL initiative at the University of Technology, Sydney in conjunction with the Youth Challenge Australia Program (YCA) embeds experiential learning in a dedicated subject on Community Engagement (see Figure 27.2).

In this case project-based community engagement provides learners with the opportunity to gain and 'apply knowledge, skills and feelings in an immediate and relevant setting' (Smith, 2001). This approach to WIL exposes learners to a concrete experience and has introduced learners to authentic practices through interaction with industry and community where through a project-based approach there can be an opportunity for conceptual change. Such an experiential, learner-centered learning approach is shown in Figure 27.3 (University of Technology, Sydney's Youth Challenge Australia program), which was recognized with the Tourism Transport Forum's *Corporate Leadership Award* for innovation. The project encourages tourism learner volunteers to work on grassroots development projects in regional and remote towns in indigenous communities in the Northern Territory.

Over 200 learners have participated in the WIL projects, with many going on to higher degree studies, and it has furthered UTS's sustainable tourism management area for having a strong reputation for having a practical and 'real-world' focus and twice being used by the University in National Tertiary Education submissions to demonstrate its community contribution. The work that these WIL participants have carried out over this period includes:

- construction of important community buildings such as school houses, health clinics and community centers;
- participation in a variety of environmental projects which secure the natural flora and fauna of the regions, that may otherwise be under threat from development or subsistence lifestyles;
- participation in the Surgical Eye Expeditions projects, where volunteer medical staff provide surgical expertise to remove cataracts and prevent other forms of eye disease that, left untreated, may lead to blindness;
- numerous health and environmental awareness projects, where interaction with the local community has meant that awareness is spread effectively at a grassroots level.

In addition to the benefits provided through these projects to local communities, the impact on participants has been remarkable. Many of those involved have been dramatically affected by their experiences and now seek to create a greater positive influence through their careers and even day-to-day lives. Past participants are involved in aid relief,

International Volunteer Positions

Earn Academic Credit



Costa Rica



Guatemala



Guyana



Community Development, International Development, Project Management, Education, Health, Social Work, Tourism, Environmental Studies, Youth Work, Community Welfare, Human Rights, Cultural Studies, Outdoor Education, Indigenous Studies, Humanities, Political Studies

Vanuatu



India



Central Australia



For more information about earning academic credit
please contact the office:
Email: yca@uts.edu.au or Ph: (02) 9514 5512
www.youthchallenge.org.au



YOUTH CHALLENGE AUSTRALIA

Empowering Individuals. Supporting Communities.

Figure 27.2 *WIL subject at UTS community engagement*

FAQS

Will I get credit for my participation in a YCA field program?
 Yes. This class is available as an elective to all UTS students.

Will I need to pay a HECS fee over and above the cost of my YCA fees?
 Yes. As this is a unit elective, you will be required to pay the usual uni HECS fee that is mandatory for all classes.

Will I get uni credit if I participate in a YCA field program during my summer holidays?
 Yes. YCA programs run at various times throughout the year depending on the host country, so the timing of fieldwork may not always coincide with the uni calendar year.

I don't attend uni at UTS. Can this subject be transferred and applied to my studies at another university in Australia?
 Yes, this is generally fine; however, this will vary depending on the transfer policies of the university in question. You will need to check with your own uni about credit transfer criteria and processes. Some uni's recognise YCA placements as a matter of course.

For more information about earning academic credit or to apply for the Youth Challenge Australia volunteer program, please contact the office:
 yca@uts.edu.au
 (02) 9514 5512
 www.youthchallenge.org.au

School Of Leisure, Sport and Tourism
 Faculty of Business
 University Of Technology, Sydney
 PO Box 222, Lindfield, NSW 2070
 Phone: 02.9514.5497 Fax: 02.9514.5195
 www.business.uts.edu.au/leisure/index.html

For information on topics and study:
 Associate Professor Stephen Wearing
 Email: s.wearing@uts.edu.au

For eligibility criteria, enrolment applications
 and general course information:

Sue Upton, Admin. Assistant
 Phone: 02.9514.5497 Fax: 02.9514.5195
 Email: s.upton@uts.edu.au



Youth Challenge Australia
 c/o University of Technology, Sydney
 PO Box 222, Elton Road, Lindfield
 NSW 2070
 Ph. 02 9514 5512
 Fax. 02 9514 5130
 Email: yca@uts.edu.au
 www.youthchallenge.org.au
 ABN: 65 053 902 640



International Volunteer

Positions:

Earn Academic Credit

*Undergraduate or Postgraduate
 Elective Subject, Internship or Research*

**Vanuatu, Guyana, Costa Rica,
 Guatemala, India and Central Australia**

Community Engagement

Community Development, International
 Development, Project Management,
 Education, Health, Social Work, Tourism,
 Environmental Studies, Youth Work,
 Community Welfare, Human Rights,
 Cultural Studies, Outdoor Education,
 Indigenous Studies, Humanities,
 Political Studies



Figure 27.3 Outline of WIL subject community engagement

working with children and refugees from devastated areas, in experiential education, politics, social justice issues and environmental concerns, to name just a few of the important areas that have benefited from the experience of these learners.

The use of Work-Integrated Learning (WIL) through onsite, community-based tourism projects to provide cultural and environmental awareness in sustainable tourism education has been a critical step, leading the way forward for many other professional areas. This chapter has provided a framework for those interested in developing WIL for sustainable tourism education projects, specifically based at a community level. It has focused particularly on the theory and practice in order to demonstrate how this can provide projects that seek to provide the opportunity of a learning approach to the benefit of learners in an environment where they offer the opportunity to work with the local people (and their natural and cultural environments) to be environmentally and culturally sustainable. However, further developments of WIL need to reach outside of the framework of dedicated university courses where there is a likelihood that some 'preaching to the converted' may be occurring. In the remainder of this chapter we look at two contexts for such expansion. The first focuses upon informal learning experiences as contexts for WIL and the second concludes this chapter by challenging how sustainable education in higher education needs to provide access to WIL opportunities that lead students to a critical knowing about themselves and others.

6. FUTURE DIRECTIONS: INFORMAL LEARNING CONTEXTS

For sustainable tourism education both the formal and informal learning that derives from volunteering, living and working overseas have been positively linked to greater employability for young adults (Powell et al., 2006; Canadian Council on Learning, 2008). O'Reilly (2006), Martin (2010) and Heath (2007, 2009) claim that travel experiences contribute to travelers' 'soft skills', such as communication skills, open mindedness, adaptability, motivation and resourcefulness, making travelers more attractive to potential employers when they seek to re-enter the job market. It has been identified in Sustainable Tourism education as a valuable factor when contextualized in a WIL context, as being able to provide the skills and qualities gained during lengthy sojourns are transferable and 'particularly suited to the current context of flexible employment conditions' (O'Reilly, 2006, p. 1012).

Future application of this framework may also be suitable for more informal experiential contexts that reach beyond formal WIL initiatives. One area that offers an opportunity for more informal sustainable tourism education is that provided by the gap year. A gap year has been defined as a nominal period during which a person delays further education or employment in order to travel (Lyons et al., 2012). Although this interlude may be experienced at any point across the lifespan, it is within the period of early adulthood that the gap year phenomenon has become most popular and commonly it involves a year off after completing secondary school or tertiary studies. A gap year is increasingly recognized as a *rite of passage* for many young people in developed nations (Lyons et al., 2012), yet as a means for WIL it remains in its infancy. In the past a gap year has been used and offered for tourism learners as many in the area of sustainable tourism education saw it

as the opportunity to elicit *desirable* learning outcomes and that these should be formally recognized by, and integrated into, institutions of higher education (Lyons et al., 2012; Lyons and Wearing, 2011). While a gap year may be experienced at any point across the lifespan it is undertaken predominantly by university-aged learners for non-credit (Abidi, 2004; Jones, 2004). Given recent government initiatives to expand university participation from 25 percent to 40 percent by 2025 (Universities Australia, 2013), institutions of higher education have a perfect opportunity to target the gap year as an opportunity for WIL. Integrating these informal learning contexts into higher education environments through credit arrangements and recognition of prior learning presents challenges that are yet to be addressed.

7. CONCLUSION: TOWARD A CRITICAL KNOWING THROUGH WIL

Schweinsberg et al. (2013) have recently argued that sustainability education is predicated on students, teachers and universities embracing notions of ‘criticality’ in curriculum design. In the wake of the global financial crisis, many universities have been suitably lambasted for a historically dominant focus on profit generation as the key deliverable from a neoliberal-based tertiary education (see Quigley, 2011). Responding to such concerns, in 2010 the BEST Education Network identified five value sets that tourism ‘students must imbibe to be successful leaders of a fragile industry in uncertain times. They are ethics, stewardship, professionalism, knowledge and mutual respect’ (Sheldon in Liburd and Edwards, 2010, p. viii). All of these value sets are, we would argue, characterized as ‘occupational values’ (see Evetts, 2011), which define the perceived position of business in society.

The rapid globalization of business interests after the Second World War has sparked considerable academic interest into notions of business ethics and corporate social responsibility (Carroll, 1999; Donaldson and Dunfee, 1994; Ferrell and Fraedrich, 2014; Goodpaster, 1991). Business does not exist in isolation from its environmental context and as such there is a necessity to explore how best to communicate environmental and social values to future business leaders. Jurowski and Liburd (2001) argued that sustainability is best taught not as distinct subjects, but as a philosophy, which impacts on all mainstream tourism business subjects. The present authors agree with such an approach in as much as it helps ensure that sustainability education cannot be parked as a niche concern of an elective unit, but instead centralizes a doctrine of sustainability into all facets of business education. Where such approaches can run into problems, however, lies in the notion of the ‘journey metaphor’ and the possibility that by focusing too much on their own constructions and journeys towards sustainability, businesses may inadvertently (or perhaps deliberately) side-step important questions and miss opportunities for actual required changes to organizational practice (Milne et al., 2004). One mechanism whereby this can be addressed is through the development of what Tribe (2002) describes as ‘critically knowing’ graduates. Critical knowing, Tribe (2002) notes, is not just related to the development of ‘narrow professional competence that may be characterized as vocational’. Instead, he notes, there is a need to develop broader ethical competence. One mechanism for achieving such competences is through the enhancement of opportunities

for experiential learning. By offering opportunities for students to engage in workplaces with the full spectrum of tourism stakeholder groups as evident in the case studies discussed earlier in this chapter (including mainstream commercial tourism providers, NGOs such as Tourism Concern, WWF and so on), graduates will gain a greater appreciation of the roles of tourism in society.

REFERENCES

- Abidi, Z.J. (2004), *Taking a Gap Year? Report for Rank Foundation Youth Work Schemes*, London: YMCA George William Collage.
- Billet, S. (2001), 'Knowing in practice: Re-conceptualising vocational expertise', *Learning and Instruction*, **11** (6), 431–52.
- Brundtland, G. (1987), *Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development: Our Common Future*, Brussels: United Nations.
- Buabeng Assan, T.E. (2014), 'Work integrated learning (WIL): A phenomenographic study of student teachers' experiences', *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, **5** (7), 300–306.
- Canadian Council on Learning (2008), 'Health literacy in Canada: A healthy understanding', accessed 1 September 2014 at www.ccl-cca.ca.
- Carroll, A.B. (1999), 'Corporate social responsibility evolution of a definitional construct', *Business and Society*, **38** (3), 268–95.
- Donaldson, T. and Dunfee, T.W. (1994), 'Toward a unified conception of business ethics: Integrative social contracts theory', *Academy of Management Review*, **19** (2), 252–84.
- Dorasamy, N. and Balkaran, R. (2011), 'Inculcating a service culture among hospitality management learners through work integrated learning (WIL): A case study of Durban University of Technology', *Corporate Ownership and Control*, **8** (3), 479–86.
- Dunlap, R.E. (2008), 'The new environmental paradigm scale: From marginality to worldwide use', *The Journal of Environmental Education*, **40** (1), 3–18.
- Edgar, S. and Connaughton, J. (2014), 'Exploring the role and skill set of physiotherapy clinical educators in work-integrated learning', *Asia-Pacific Journal of Cooperative Education*, **15** (1), 29–36.
- Evetts, J. (2011), 'A new professionalism? Challenges and opportunities', *Current Sociology*, **59**, 406–22.
- Ferrell, O.C. and Fraedrich, J. (2014), *Business Ethics: Ethical Decision Making and Cases*, Boston: Cengage Learning.
- Global Development Research Centre (ND), 'Tbilisi Declaration 1977', accessed 10 March 2015 at www.gdrc.org/uem/ee/tbilisi.html.
- Goodpaster, K.E. (1991), 'Business ethics and stakeholder analysis', *Business Ethics Quarterly*, **1** (1), 53–73.
- Harris, S. (1990), *Two-Way Aboriginal Schooling: Education and Cultural Survival*, Canberra: Aboriginal Studies Press.
- Hay, P.R. (2002), *Main Currents in Western Environmental Thought*, Bloomington: Indiana University Press.
- Heath, S. (2007), 'Widening the gap: Pre-university gap years and the "economy of experience"', *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, **28** (1), 89–103.
- Heath, S. (2009), 'Full time UK based volunteering and the gap year', *Youth and Policy*, **101** Winter, 33–41.
- Jones, A. (2004), 'Review of gap year provision', Research Report No. 555, Department of Education and Skills, University of London.
- Joplin, L. (1990), 'On defining experiential education', in Kraft, R. and Sakofs, M. (eds), *The Theory of Experiential Education*, 2nd edn, Colorado: Association for Experiential Education.
- Jurowski, C. and Liburd, J. (2001), 'A multi-cultural and multi-disciplinary approach to integrating the principles of sustainable development into human resource management curricula in hospitality and tourism', *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education*, **13** (5), 36–50.
- Keating, K. (2012), 'Mentorship of hospitality management learners during work-integrated learning', *Asia-Pacific Journal of Cooperative Education*, **13** (2), 89–102.
- Keeton, M. and Tate, P. (1978), 'A boom in experiential learning', in Keeton, M. and Tate, P. (eds), *Learning by Experience: What, Why, How?*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kolb, D.A. (1984), *Experiential Learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Kuhn, T.S. (1996), *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*, 3rd edn, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Kyburz-Graber, R. (2013), 'Socio-ecological approaches to environmental education and research: A paradigmatic response to behavioral change orientations', in R.B. Stevenson, M. Brody, J. Dillon and

- A.E.J. Wals (eds), *International Handbook of Research on Environmental Education*, New York: Routledge, pp.23–32.
- Kyburz-Graber, R., Hofer, K. and Wolfensberger, B. (2006), 'Studies on a socio-ecological approach to environmental education: A contribution to a critical position in the education for sustainable development discourse', *Environmental Education Research*, **12** (1), 101–14.
- Liburd, J. and Edwards, D. (eds) (2010), *Understanding the Sustainable Development of Tourism*, Oxford: Woodeaton.
- Lyle, J.T. (1996), *Regenerative Design for Sustainable Development*, New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Lyons, K. and Wearing, S.L. (2011), 'Gap year travel alternatives: Gen-Y, volunteer tourism and global citizenship', in K.A. Smith, I. Yeoman, C. Hsu and S. Watson (eds), *Tourism and Demography*, London: Goodfellow Publishers, pp.101–16.
- Lyons, K., Hanley, J., Wearing, S. and Neil, J. (2012), 'Gap year volunteer tourism: Myths of global citizenship?', *Annals of Tourism Research*, **39** (1), 361–78.
- Martin, A.J. (2010), 'Should students have a gap year? Motivation and performance factors relevant to time out after completing school', *Journal of Educational Psychology*, **102** (3), 561–76.
- Mascarenhas, J. et al. (eds) (1991), *Participatory Rural Appraisal: Proceedings of the February 1991 Bangalore PRA Trainers Workshop*, Bangalore: MYRADA and London: IIED.
- Milne, M.J., Kearins, K. and Walton, S. (2004), 'Business makes a "journey" out of "sustainability": creating adventures in wonderland?', paper presented at the 4th APIRA conference, Singapore.
- O'Reilly, C.C. (2006), 'From drifter to gap year tourist: Mainstreaming backpacker travel', *Annals of Tourism Research*, **33** (4), 998–1017.
- Peach, D., Gomez, R. and Ruinard, E. (2013), 'Reconstructing places and spaces in blended work integrated learning', in S. Frielick, N. Buissink-Smith, P. Wyse, J. Billot, J. Hallas and E. Whitehead (eds), *Research and Development in Higher Education: The Place of Learning and Teaching (Volume 36)*, refereed papers from the 36th HERDSA Annual International Conference, Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australasia, Inc, AUT University, Auckland, pp.336–45.
- Powell, S., Bratovic, E. and Dolic, A. (2006), *Pro-social Value/Behaviour and Employability Amongst Young People in SEE and the Impact of Volunteer Work Camps*, Sarajevo: South-East Europe Youth Network.
- Quigley, R. (2011), 'Sustaining momentum', *U*, **6**, pp.10–11.
- Resnick, L. (1988), 'Learning in school and out', *Educational Researcher*, **16** (9), 13–20.
- Rickinson, M. (2001), 'Learners and learning in environmental education: A critical review of evidence', *Environmental Education Research*, **7** (3), 207–320.
- Schweinsberg, S., Wearing, S.L. and McManus, P. (2013), 'Exploring sustainable tourism education in business schools: The Honours program', *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, **20** (1), 53–60.
- Scott, R.H. and Van Etten, E. (2013), 'Environmental and conservation volunteering as workplace integrated learning for university learners', *Issues in Educational Research*, **23** (2), 242–57.
- Shiva, V., Anderson, P., Schücking, H., Gray, A., Lohmann, L. and Cooper, D. (1991), *Biodiversity: Social and Ecological Perspectives*, London: Zed Books.
- Shuttenberg, E. and Poppenhagen, B. (1980), 'Current theory and research in experiential learning for adults', *Journal of Experiential Education*, **3** (1), 27–32.
- Smith, C. and Worsfold, K. (2014), 'WIL curriculum design and student learning: A structural model of their effects on student satisfaction', *Studies in Higher Education*, **39** (6), 1070–84.
- Smith, M.K. (2001), 'David A. Kolb on experiential learning', *The Encyclopaedia of Informal Education*, accessed 24 August 2014 at www.infed.org/b-explrn.htm.
- Stapp, W.B. (1972), 'Inservice teacher training in environmental education', in W.B. Stapp (ed.), *Environmental Education Resource Book*, Newtown, PA: McGraw Hill, pp.254–60.
- Tilbury, D. (1995), 'Environmental education for sustainability: Defining the new focus of environmental education in the 1990s', *Environmental Education Research*, **1** (2), 195–212.
- Tribe, J. (2002), 'Education for ethical tourism action', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, **10** (4), 309–24.
- Universities Australia (2013), *An Agenda for Higher Education Australia*, Canberra: Universities Australia.
- Wearing, S., Lyons, K.D. and Snead, S. (2010), 'Volunteer tourism', in J. Liburd and D. Edwards (eds), *Understanding the Sustainable Development of Tourism*, London: Goodfellow Publishers, pp.188–204.
- Xia, J., Caulfield, C. and Ferns, S. (2014), 'Work-integrated learning: Linking research and teaching for a win-win situation', *Studies in Higher Education*, **40** (9), 1560–72.
- Zegwaard, K.E. and McCurdy, S. (2014), 'The influence of work-integrated learning on motivation to undertake graduate studies', *Asia-Pacific Journal of Cooperative Education*, **15** (1), 13–28.